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Multiple strategies for vocabulary development in English as a foreign language in Japan

Kunie Kaminaka

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MULTIPLE STRATEGIES FOR VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT
IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN JAPAN

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

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education

by
Kunie Kaminaka
December 1997
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Approved by:

Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Thom Gehring, Second Reader

November 20, 1997
ABSTRACT

Most teachers of English pay little attention to teaching vocabulary even though students face difficulties in learning vocabulary and need help. Japanese students spend too much time in rote learning for competitive entrance examinations and strict grading systems. The main problem is that students do not have more effective strategies for increasing their vocabulary other than rote memorization. Therefore, strategic learning will be the major key to overcoming current pedagogical drawbacks in teaching and learning vocabulary in Japan.

The purpose of this project is to propose teaching methods that enhance vocabulary development for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students in Japan. Based on the review of literature, I employed five principles: encouraging students to generate meaningful learning, emphasizing sociocultural competence, promoting self-motivated and self-managed learning, urging students to become strategic learners, and having students work cooperatively.

In the instructional units, strategies are proposed that are based on depth-of-processing theory for enhancing vocabulary development. The activities for vocabulary development use cooperative learning approaches, visual aids, interactive vocabulary activities, and crosscultural lessons. Therefore, teachers can get a clear idea how they can provide students with alternative strategies which meet individual student’s needs.
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CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Introduction: The General Education System in Japan

A brief survey of schooling practice in Japan will offer an overview of the importance of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction. I believe English instruction should be changed to address Japan’s future needs. I will focus on teaching English vocabulary for students in Japan.

Compulsory Education through Junior High School

In Japan, kindergarten is not compulsory. At the age of three or more, most children enter for pre-school to develop their minds and bodies (Sato, 1991). They enjoy singing and dancing together with their classmates in groups. At this stage, children learn to adapt to communal learning.

Compulsory education starts from the age of six. All children between six and fifteen are mandated by law to attend elementary school for six years and junior high school for three years. Students have to go to school Monday through Friday and every other Saturday (Sato, 1991).

School starts in April and ends in March. There are three terms in a year. The first term starts in April and ends in July; the second begins in September and ends in December; and the third starts in January and ends in March. Summer vacation lasts about 40 days, and winter and spring vacations for two weeks each. During summer vacation, students go to school once to take attendance and make sure they have no problems at home. Also, teachers check how far students have progressed in completing homework during summer vacation. Students have many assignments during vacation.
When school starts in September, they must bring their homework, which is included in the second term grading period.

The School Curriculum in Japan

In grades one through four, students learn Japanese, math, science, social studies, physical education, music, and art from their homeroom teacher. Fifth and sixth graders learn Japanese, math, science, history, geography, physical education, art from their homeroom teacher, but they learn music and domestic science from specialist teachers. They take a test after each lesson and get grades at the end of each term.

In junior high school, students learn English, Japanese, math, science, history, geography, music, art, domestic science and physical education. Different teachers are in charge of each subject. In Japan, students start learning English as a foreign language at the age of twelve. All are required to study English. Because English is used as a tool to assess academic proficiency, students need to study English to prepare for the entrance examinations for high school and universities. There are mid-term and final examinations during each term. Maintaining good grades is important for junior high school students, who need a solid recommendation from their homeroom teachers to go to a competitive high school. All students take an entrance examination because high school is not compulsory. They must pass the examination to go to a high school commensurate with their academic purpose and abilities. Therefore, they need to go to a tutoring school (juku) to pass the competitive examinations.
Secondary Education

Today most students go to high school for three years. There are three kinds of high schools: commercial, vocational, and academic high schools. Most students in commercial high schools are female, who are expected to graduate and work for a few years in an office. They marry at an early age and retire from their careers to take care of their husband and children. Most vocational high school students are male, and they are also expected to graduate and to go to work. They are required to have special skills by the time they graduate. Academic high school students need to prepare for college entrance examinations. All Japanese students are encouraged by an education-conscious culture to extend their learning past junior high and go on to one of the three types of high schools.

In Japan, junior colleges usually offer courses for two or three years, universities, for four years; and medical, dental, and veterinary courses, for six years. A university may set up a graduate school as well, offering master’s degree courses for two years; medical, dental, or veterinary courses for four years; and doctoral courses for five years (Sato, 1991).

Supplementing Education: The Juku

According to Goya, the Japanese have a “secret” school called the juku. “Juku” is translated as “tutoring school,” “cram school,” “college-prep school,” or “after-school” in English (1993, p. 128). I prefer to call the juku a tutoring school because I think the juku is the place where skillful teachers help students study comfortably.

Parents pay expensive tuition fees for their children to attend the juku. Students'
criteria for a *juku* are very strict. If students are not satisfied with the tutor's teaching techniques or they do not get improved grades, the parents and their children change school right way even though they already paid expensive tuition fees (Goya, 1993). The qualifications of the *juku*’s teaching staff are very individual. Some *jukus* hire university students as tutors, or former public school teachers. The quality of the teachers depends on the size of the *juku*. Some *jukus* have very big buildings and they can get the best teaching staffs. Others are small and use houses or apartments as sites for teaching.

Today, most Japanese students go after school to the *juku* to prepare for entrance examinations for high school or the university. Usually, students must take an examination before entering the *juku*. In some high level *jukus*, students are not allowed to enter the school if they are unable to follow the lessons. Students are divided into different classes depending on the results of this examination.

Students spend time with their tutors at the *juku* until late at night because they go to the *juku* after school. I taught at a *juku* for about three years. Mainly, I taught English, math, science, and Japanese to elementary and junior high school students, but I also taught English to high school students. I enjoyed teaching at the school because I could spend much time with my students. I think students feel more relaxed at the *juku* than at public school because they do not have to wear their school uniform or feel threatened by the strict school rules. The *juku* involves individualized tutoring where teacher and students work one-on-one, so students are free to ask questions and tell tutors which parts they do not understand. Teachers work with students until they understand clearly. They can study without anxiety because their questions are all answered clearly by their tutors.
I ensured my students’ comprehension by using many different ways of approaching the correct answers until they could solve their problems.

The School-Employment Connection in Japan

Academic high school students are expected to go on to a college or university. However, male and female students receive different treatment because men still predominate over women in Japanese society even though the opportunities for employment of women have improved. It is hard for female students to get good jobs today. Even though women can get better jobs, they are expected not to pursue careers in order to marry. Female students in academic high schools choose two-year colleges or four-year universities. On the other hand, male students go to four-year universities to get better jobs because they have to support their wives and children in the future. Men are expected to work in the same company until their retirement. For example, my father has worked in Mazda for over 38 years because promotions are made on the basis of seniority and the salary is better year after year. In other words, society-wide practice is to find a well-paying company and stay with the company until retirement age. Therefore, it is perceived as important for the Japanese to enter a big company in order to have better lives.

Women are generally paid less than men even though they may have the same background. If male students have a good background, they can be hired well up on the company’s management ladder and be well paid. That is why male students in academic high schools want to enter one of the prestigious universities. On the other hand, female students in academic high schools also hope to enter prestigious universities to find a
successful man. However, these famous universities are competitive because there are so few slots but so many applicants. Therefore, students go to the juku to get one of the few slots. Some students who fail the college entrance examinations go to a college-prep juku called yobiko to prepare for the entrance examinations for next year (Goya, 1993).

The System of the Entrance Examinations

There are entrance examinations for some kindergarten programs because some parents want to enter their children in a famous private school from the beginning. If they can enter a competitive kindergarten, their competitive advantage makes university attendance more promising. Therefore, kindergarten students must go to a juku to pass the entrance examinations. However, after admission, children still have to go to the juku because the academic competition is high and students need to avoid being left behind.

Junior high school students in public school take entrance examinations for moving onto high school. Students are guided by homeroom teachers when they choose their high school. Teachers advise each student about the proper high school depending on their grades and the result of some trial examinations. Students cannot choose their high school by themselves; teachers advise them based on their scores in reference to statistical data.

In Japan, one must prepare for entrance examinations to enter a competitive high school or university. The test is one of elimination. For example, if there are 400 freshman positions available and 450 students apply, the test is given to eliminate 50 students. It does not matter what kind of score a student actually gets. What matters is that they are not one of the fifty students who will be rejected (Goya, 1993).
Teaching Styles in Japan

Grasha (1996) provides four clusters of teaching methods and learning styles. According to his classification, Japanese teaching methods belong to the Director style, which is mainly based on expert and formal authority. Teachers control students and classroom tasks. Teachers lecture and students listen most of the time. Japanese students are dependant participants in class lessons because there is neither speaking nor individual research in the curriculum.

Harel (1992) calls the classroom structure used in Japanese teaching style “teacher-fronted” classrooms because teachers control students, tasks, and lessons with authority. Teachers centrally control the flow of information and students study hard to please their teachers or get attention from them. Students are dependent on their ability to understand the teachers’ explanations and directions. Therefore, students have little or no control in lessons. Classroom structures emphasize individual performance because students have to study very hard to compete with each other on the entrance examinations. This method works well in the Japanese school system because the curriculum is predicated on competitive exams and strict percentage-based grading.

The Importance of Learning English

English is the main international language, so it is natural that Japanese choose to learn English as a foreign language to communicate with other people. They can learn about other cultures through learning English. It is important for Japanese to learn about various cultures, ways of thinking, and ways of living.

English education is very important in Japan. Some elementary students study
English at *jukus*. However, most students start learning English when they enter junior high school at age twelve. Foreign language study is required for a college degree, and most students choose to take English (Kitao, 1985). Kimizuka (1968) reports, “The purpose of English education is to give students a practical command of written and spoken English and to promote understanding of the cultural and social backgrounds of English-speaking people” (p. 22).

There are some historical reasons why Japanese have to study English. According to Kitao (1985), Japanese believed that they were far behind western countries in many areas in the last half of the 19th century. The Japanese needed to learn the languages of Western countries, especially English, French, and German, to learn about Western countries, in such areas as economics, government, and technology. English is now the chief means by which Japan learns from other countries. In recent years, the Japanese felt the necessity to express themselves to the other countries to explain Japanese culture, ways of thinking, and positions on various issues to other people (Kitao, 1985).

According to Helgesen (1987), many Japanese choose to learn conversation. There are several reasons why learners take English conversation courses. Some people study to improve their ability to conduct business all over the world. English is absolutely required to communicate with people in different countries in the business world. Other students may choose to work in hotels, so they need to communicate in English with guests who come from other countries. Also, research hospital doctors who wish to benefit from attendance at medical conferences conducted in English or contribute to such conferences by making presentations, are required to have English proficiency. Those
who work at such tourist attractions as the rural castles also need English conversation to welcome foreign tourists so they can inform and entertain the visitors. In addition, international travel is increasingly popular among Japanese. People want to learn English conversation so they can remain independent during travel abroad. Some people may choose to travel in tour groups with Japanese-speaking guides who can speak English, but the number of people who want to travel on their own is steadily increasing. English language instruction is also standard fare at the culture centers, along with flower arrangement or calligraphy. That is, learning English is a kind of hobby in Japan.

**Focus on Form in Teaching English**

**English textbooks.** Students use English textbooks depending upon their grade levels. They all use the same textbooks and move on to the next levels together even though they may not understand previous lessons. For example, if a student is in ninth grade, he or she learns English for ninth grade students even if he or she does not understand the seventh grade and eighth grade lessons. Most students do not follow because the textbooks are too difficult for them. Mainly, junior high school students use textbooks that feature colloquial English rather than written English. However, they do not have enough opportunities in class to practice the dialog between speakers. On the other hand, textbooks used in high school emphasize reading and grammar. At the university level, most English classes have reading comprehension as the main goal. Many college English teachers are literature majors with little or no training in EFL. In reading class, professors usually ask students to translate English sentences into Japanese. Textbooks are chosen by teachers’ interests rather than students’ goals and interests.
Many Japanese say they can read English but cannot speak it. According to test results, the English ability of the Japanese is rather poor. People know the meaning of each word in Japanese and they translate into Japanese, but they do not understand how sentences fit together and the meaning of the passage as a whole (Kitao, 1983).

Class size in public school. Students are not satisfied with their lessons at public school because there are too many students in a class, without division into ability groups. There are about 40 students in a class in public school. In addition, students at different learning levels study together in the same class. Some students complain that the lecture is too easy because they might have learned English in a juku in advance. Others cannot understand the lessons. As a result, students lose their motivation to study English. However, they can choose a juku depending upon their needs. If they want to learn English in a small group they can choose that kind of juku. Or, if they want to learn more advanced English, they can go to a higher level of juku. So the juku is instrumental in the teaching of English and providing an alternative to the large class sizes of public school.

The lack of teaching abilities. English teachers are trained in universities of education or universities with teacher training courses. Teaching certificates are required for teachers in junior high and high schools. Their requirements do not emphasize teaching methods, practice teaching or performance in English. Teachers rarely have the opportunity to practice teaching. Their teaching practicum lasts only two to three weeks. To become a teacher in public schools, a person who has received a teaching certificate must pass a prefectural or municipal employment examination. The examinations
emphasize theoretical knowledge rather than performance (Kitao, 1985). Teachers need
more opportunities to improve their teaching techniques for further English education.

Teachers use Japanese to teach English and speak English with Japanese accents.
Students never learn correct pronunciation from their teachers. Also, they have very few
opportunities to speak English with native English speakers. Students need to use English
orally to master it. The more opportunities students have to speak and listen, the more
they will be motivated to learn English. If English were taught by using English, students
would use more English for communication with others.

Gradually, some teachers are emphasizing the communicative aspects of English,
teaching about other cultures, making use of audio-visual equipment, and so on. Through
this project, I would like to help those teachers who try to improve their quality of
teaching techniques.

Curriculum and teaching methods. In Japan, the grammar-translation method is
still used. Students usually prepare for a class in advance by writing Japanese equivalents
next to English words or sentences. Their teachers read a model or correct translation
with Japanese accents. Mainly, the lesson is spent discussing difficult grammatical points.
Then teachers model by reading aloud the English version of the lesson, and students
repeat after their teachers (Hisano, 1976). There are grammar classes, composition
classes, and reading classes in high school. In grammar class, the textbook is divided into
grammatical categories. It consists of examples, explanations, and exercises in each
category. Students spend time translating Japanese into English, not free writing in
composition classes. The textbook has no authentic cultural content and it is usually
structured in short sentences. In reading class, students translate English into Japanese sentence by sentence. Then teachers tell students the correct translation in Japanese with grammatical explanation. Therefore, students believe they must know every English word translated into Japanese in order to understand the content of reading. Students need to memorize only the Japanese translation to prepare for mid-term and final examinations. However, the contemporary belief in reading literature is that it is not necessary to understand each word to achieve reading comprehension. Therefore, the word-by-word translation approach is overly tedious for students.

**Specific Challenges in Vocabulary Acquisition**

Learning English is difficult for Japanese students, for several reasons. The Japanese language is totally different from English in terms of writing, reading, speaking, and listening. Students are forced to rely on ineffective techniques.

**Rote Learning**

Japanese students spend too much time in rote learning of vocabulary. Japanese must learn the English alphabet first. This is entirely different from the Japanese hiragana, katakana, and kanji system. Some people need to spend a lot of time to memorizing all the letters of the alphabet, and lose interest in learning English at the beginning of lessons. After learning the English alphabet, they have to memorize each word step by step. Kitao (1985) finds many students lose interest in English because they have to study with emphasis on memorization rather than communication.

Second, it is difficult for Japanese students to spell English words correctly because English words have silent letters which are not pronounced. For example, the
word 'island' is pronounced as [ailoend]. The sound /s/ is not pronounced, but it must be spelled with /s/. In addition, the pronunciation of certain phonemes is different from Japanese language. Therefore, Japanese students need to master phonics rules more effectively. However, teachers pay less attention to teaching vocabulary, so students must memorize words independently. Some students are good at just memorizing the words in textbooks. Others have a difficult time with rote learning because they do not know how to develop vocabulary. Moreover, they do not have good study skills. They need to know which words are important and which words are not. Teachers need to give students some idea how to increase vocabulary without memorizing every word in the textbook. Japanese students need strategies that help them understand how to process and remember English words. Therefore, they need a meaningful alternative to rote memorization.

Learning Vocabulary Decontextualized from Grammar

Another difficulty is vocabulary acquisition decontextualized from grammar. English grammar is very different from Japanese grammar. It is hard to understand new vocabulary without understanding the structural rules of English. For example, one must understand nuances of parts of speech and shades of personification to know the difference between “the open door,” “the opened door,” and “the opening door.” When Japanese students learn English grammar, they use textbooks which do not feature authentic content and therefore are not as useful as they could be in vocabulary acquisition. The grammar textbook is divided into grammatical categories. It contains examples, explanations, and exercises in each category. The sentences used for
grammatical explanation are usually short and simple. It is hard for students to learn vocabulary through textbooks because there is no connection with meaningful content. Grammar books are not focused on building vocabulary but on explaining grammatical rules. Vocabulary should be learned in the context of grammar, and successful word learning strategies involve both. Students have to master all these different rules to be successful in English.

**Vocabulary Acquisition without Sociocultural Competence**

To acquire a new word, people must be aware of its social use. There are many differences between Japanese and American culture. In Japan, young people must show respect to older people, so they use “polite” syntax and vocabulary to talk to older people. Social distance is important to determine proper levels of politeness, but this is also related to the culture. Similar sociocultural competence is needed in American society, but it is seldom syntactic or lexical in nature and varies widely by region and subculture. Therefore, students have difficulties understanding English if they do not know about American culture. The difficulties students face are also relevant to the speaking rules of society. According to Okushi (1990), several Japanese-English textbooks for junior high school students are prepared in grammar-oriented sequences, and the dialogues in the textbooks are often artificial. That is, the social rules and context in which the language is used are ignored. Students study English without understanding how to interact effectively in an English-speaking society because class lessons do not include in sociocultural rules of speaking. Therefore, it is hard or impossible to understand interactions with native English speakers in an English-speaking society because students
do not know much about English-speaking cultures. For example, if someone says, “you speak perfect English,” Japanese students may answer “No. No. I don’t think so.” On the other hand, native-speakers reply just “Thank you.” Japanese students transfer the speaking rules of Japanese society into English. Japanese usually deny a compliment, especially in the case which someone praises performance or skills. In short, students need to know the culture of a target language and the interaction with people in the society of a target language when they learn the language because language and culture are closely linked (Kitao, 1978). Students need not only individual vocabulary words, but effective holistic phrases that convey sociocultural competence.

Lack of Motivation to Acquire New Words

The last problem is the need for self-managed and self-motivated vocabulary acquisition for learning English in Japan. English is offered in almost all junior high and high schools. The purpose of studying English for most Japanese students is to pass the entrance examinations or get better grades. However, English is also used for international communication. Students do not need to focus solely on passing examinations. They need to learn English as a tool in order to communicate with other people all over the world. Unfortunately, English is still used to assess the abilities of students on the entrance examinations in Japan. Therefore, communicative competence is totally ignored; the English curriculum emphasizes test-focused spelling, grammar, translation, and reading comprehension. Students will need far more vocabulary than they can learn directly. They need the capacity to learn new words from independent reading and conversation.
Summary: Pedagogical Challenges in EFL in Japan

In summary, Japanese students face difficulties in learning vocabulary because they spend too much time in rote learning. To build vocabulary in English is hard for the Japanese because they need to memorize thousands of words without having effective strategies that develop vocabulary. Another difficulty is vocabulary acquisition within decontextualized grammar. Japanese grammar is totally different from English. Students confuse the structural rules in English. Vocabulary needs to be learned in the context of grammar, but students cannot learn vocabulary effectively through current grammar textbooks. Another problem is vocabulary acquisition without sociolinguistic competence. English textbooks ignore social rules and the context in which English is used. Students need knowledge about English-speaking cultures and opportunities to interact with people in English-speaking societies when they learn the language. A knowledge of the target culture is necessary for successful communication because language and culture are closely linked. The last difficulty is the problem of the dependent learner. Most students study English just for passing the entrance examinations, but teachers need to indicate how important learning English is and how useful mastering English is in their future. If students have good motivation for learning English, they can develop vocabulary above and beyond classroom learning.

The Purpose of the Study

Many teachers pay little or no attention to vocabulary development because they assume students will learn words incidentally. However, this project is predicated on the belief that teaching vocabulary is important in order to master English. In a survey,
second language (L2) students desired to build their vocabulary knowledge to reach higher academic levels. According to Allen (1983), teachers who have experienced teaching English as a Second Language knew very well how important it is to teach vocabulary. Although teachers and students agree about the importance of vocabulary development, prepared programs for learning English do not include techniques for helping students learn vocabulary. Interactive vocabulary activities are needed, adapted to the purpose of EFL instruction.

English teaching in Japan seems effective for Japanese students who wish to pass entrance examinations, but the method of instruction does not seem to promote long-term learning. Teaching in a juku, I can help my students to get improved grades and to pass the entrance examinations while developing communication skills. Speaking and listening activities will also promote vocabulary acquisition. I believe that if students had more time to practice speaking and listening in English, they would be able to understand English easily. The problem is that students do not use speaking and listening skills to learn English. Using these means, students can build their vocabulary and increase their comprehension in English. Students need clearly sequenced vocabulary development.

Content of the Study

The study focuses on strategies that develop vocabulary in English as a foreign language in Japan. My project will first seek solutions to the educational challenges I have identified by means of a review of current literature (Chapter Two). I will then formulate principles to summarize the literature in relation to these challenges, in Chapter Three. Then in Chapter Four, I explain how curriculum units incorporate these principles. In
Chapter Five, I propose an assessment schemata for evaluating the success of the proposed units. Finally, I will include teaching units in the appendix. In this way, teachers can view examples of strategy-based vocabulary instruction.

I hope to show how teachers can support students in learning strategies for vocabulary development. Of course, each student may need to have a distinct strategy for learning vocabulary. However, students can have many choices of ways to develop vocabulary depending on the items which they have to memorize. Teachers can provide students with many different strategies so they can choose the most effective ones for various types of vocabulary. This project offers many strategies embedded within actual EFL units.

**The Significance of the Study**

As I mentioned, most teachers pay little attention to teaching vocabulary even though they know students obviously require vocabulary instruction to master English. Unfortunately, teachers still focus not on vocabulary, but other skills, such as reading, grammar, listening, and speaking. I believe students need to build their vocabulary as well as other skills. Actually it is true that there are not much time to spend developing vocabulary in class because of time limitations. However, I believe teachers can introduce strategies for vocabulary development and occasionally interact with students to develop vocabulary.

Few teachers know how to teach ways to develop vocabulary effectively. Students need to memorize thousands of words in order to master a target language. The capacity of memory has limits. Therefore, teachers need to interact with students to
instruct them about strategies for memorizing words. In my study, I will introduce
effective strategies for vocabulary instruction that enhance memory function. Students
need to learn strategies for keeping words in long-term memory. I would like to focus on
teaching vocabulary by means of memory systems and memory strategies. In my study, I
will introduce multiple means to develop vocabulary. I will use my teaching units to give
teachers and their students new ideas for vocabulary instruction.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

There is no best way to teach vocabulary. The purpose of this literature review is to explore a variety of approaches to teach and learn vocabulary. In addition, this review will examine the connection of memory with vocabulary instruction. Through this study, I am seeking a way by which students can retain vocabulary in long-term memory provided that teachers give students appropriate instruction. Moreover, I am pursuing specific strategies for memorization that involve cooperative learning.

The Need for Vocabulary Development

Zimmerman (1997) pointed out that many teachers pay little or no attention to developing vocabulary because they assumed that students will learn words incidentally. However, he finds students desire to learn effective strategies for vocabulary development to reach higher academic levels. But why is vocabulary instruction ignored? What needs exist in this area?

The Reasons for Neglecting Vocabulary in the Past

There are some reasons why teaching vocabulary has been neglected. One reason is that vocabulary had been emphasized too much for ESL classrooms before the period 1940-1970. People believed vocabulary was the only key to learning a foreign language. Therefore, people mastered the language by memorizing thousands of words, translating the meaning of the words and sentences into their native language (Allen, 1983). However, results were disappointing.

Another reason vocabulary teaching has been neglected is that teaching vocabulary is not a simple matter from the view of methodology specialists. In the 1950s, people
noticed that the meanings of words could not be taught adequately. Even though people use a dictionary, the meaning of words is not exactly the same as what can be translated into their native language (Allen, 1983).

A third reason for the neglect of vocabulary teaching is that it is time-intensive. Therefore, teachers preferred not to emphasize vocabulary. Instead of teaching vocabulary, experienced teachers felt they should emphasize grammar because of limited class time. As a result, pronunciation and grammar were emphasized, but vocabulary was neglected (Allen, 1983). Specialists in methodology believed students should not be taught too many words before the basic grammar had been mastered. They were afraid students might fail to learn how words were used in sentences unless teachers spent time on grammar (Allen, 1983). Moreover, Zimmerman (1997) pointed out that most teacher preparation programs rarely included vocabulary-teaching methods in the curriculum, so they had no training how to teach it. Teachers assumed that students would enhance their vocabulary through other activities automatically.

**Why Is Vocabulary Instruction Required Today?**

Today, teachers pay more attention to the teaching of vocabulary. One reason is that vocabulary instruction is required to learn a target language. According to the survey of Leki and Carson (1994), second language (L2) students who took university courses in English-speaking countries identified vocabulary as a major factor that constrained their success in academic writing. According to experienced teachers, communication breaks down when learners lack the necessary or right words (Allen, 1983). As Yashiro (1988) pointed out, “Pronunciation is no less important than vocabulary and grammar in
achieving intelligibility" (p. 30). It is necessary for students to build up vocabulary to communicate with other people. Especially, many teachers want more help with vocabulary instruction in countries where English is not used for communication (Allen, 1983). Teachers and students agree on the need of vocabulary instruction in order to master a target language. Therefore, teachers need guidance about how to help students develop vocabulary. Because each student has a different capacity for memorization, teachers need to know many different approaches to offer various learning strategies.

**From Rote Memorization to Meaningful Learning**

**The Study of Memory**

First, how is information from the outside world retained in the human brain? According to Woolfolk (1996), the mind takes in, stores, and uses information which it receives from the outside world. In other words, information processing involves gathering and representing information, or encoding; storage, which means holding information; and retrieval, which means bringing forward the information when needed. There are three stages of information processing: sensory register, short-term memory (STM), and long-term memory (LTM).

Klatzky (1975) used the idea of carpenter's workbench to explain the notion of STM and LTM. According to his metaphor, information in STM can be stored and worked in the carpenter's workbench. LTM can be thought of as a huge shelf full of tools and supplies ready to be brought the workbench of STM (also called working memory) in order to accomplish a task. When people try to find the needed information, they may be hard to find it quickly because this huge shelf stores an incredible amount of
information. The workbench itself (STM) is small, but anything on it is immediately available. However, tools and supplies (bits of information) are sometimes lost when the workbench overflows because it is so small. The information in LTM is often brought working memory and combined with new information to help people make sense of a current situation. The executive control system focuses people’s attention on new information on the working memory workbench, decides what is needed from the LTM storage shelves in order to solve the current problem on the workbench, and guides people to search the necessary information. In other words, the control system monitors the whole process, whether the task is focusing attention at the moment or finding information learned long ago.

The information processed may be held and transformed in the human brain. The whole process is controlled by programs that determine how and when information will work in the system (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968; R. Gagné, 1985).

Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) proposed that memory could be classified into three levels of storage: sensory register, short-term memory, and long-term memory. This view of the entire memory system is now accepted. Craik and Lockhart (1972) presented the following chart to identify characteristics of the three store memory system described by Atkinson and Shiffrin (see Table 1).
Table 1. Three-store memory system (Adapted from Craik & Lockhart, 1972, p. 672)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of memory</th>
<th>Sensory registers</th>
<th>Short-term memory</th>
<th>Long-term memory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Entry of information</td>
<td>Preattentive, automatic</td>
<td>Selective attention</td>
<td>Rehearsal and recoding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of information</td>
<td>Impossible</td>
<td>Continued attention (rehearsal)</td>
<td>Coding, organization integration with existing units</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Format of information</td>
<td>Literal copy</td>
<td>Mainly phonetic/articulatory, sometimes visual or semantic</td>
<td>Mainly semantic in organization with auditory &amp; visual perceptual codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Small (5 to 9 items)</td>
<td>No known limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information loss</td>
<td>Decay or masking by new input</td>
<td>Displacement or decay</td>
<td>Possibly no loss only reduction of accessibility by interference from other codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information duration</td>
<td>1/4 to 2 seconds</td>
<td>Indefinite with rehearsal up to 30 seconds</td>
<td>Minutes to years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieval</td>
<td>Readout through selective attention</td>
<td>Automatic (consciousness)</td>
<td>Search process influenced by retrieval cues—direct access for content-addressable input</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Atkinson and Shiffrin's model (called the 'box model'), incoming information flows from the sensory register to short-term memory and from short-term memory to permanent storage in long-term memory. A schematic view of the model is presented in Figure 1.
The first step in the information processing model begins when people receive stimulus through their senses (hearing, seeing, etc.) from the outside world. Then the items which people pay attention to and recognize with their existing knowledge are transferred to a storage area called short-term memory (STM), which has very limited capacity. STM holds information, which is activated at any give time. The final step in the information processing model is long-term memory (LTM). To enter information from STM to LTM, people rehearse and recode. Once information is transferred from STM to LTM, the information is organized and stored in the mind for a long time even though it may be misplaced. When people need the information from LTM, they search it. The information can be retrieved from LTM to STM by activation. Therefore, people can respond the information stored in LTM automatically and unconsciously at any time.

The Sensory Register

Ellis and Hunt (1993) stated, “The sensory register is characterized by a very brief trace, stored in a veridical form in a large-capacity system” (p. 79). When information
processing begins, senses (hearing, seeing, etc.) receive stimuli from the outside world in the sensory register or sensory memory. There are three important characteristics of the sensory register, according to Ellis and Hunt (1993). First, the information is stored in veridical form, which means that the stored information reflects what happened at the sensory receptor. Second, the sensory register needs to be large enough to store all the information impinging on the receptor. Because the sensory trace is precategorical, both characteristics are necessary. The main function of the sensory register is to hold information for processing. Third, the sensory register retains the information for a brief time. Craik and Lockhart (1972) stated the entry of information as follows:

> Stimuli can be entered into the sensory stores regardless of whether or not the subject is paying attention to that source; that is, sensory stores are “preattentive” (In Neisser, 1967, p. 672).

The entry of information in the sensory register is preattentive and automatic because the information is taken from receptors, which are the body’s mechanisms for seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, and feeling. Information continually enters automatically through the receptors. The capacity of the sensory registers is huge because they receive unlimited information. The register can handle more information than people can handle at once because the system holds every bit of information briefly, for 1/4 to 2 seconds only (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). Therefore, it is impossible to maintain all the information which receptors receive. If the sensory register organized the information, it would be lost or delayed. On the other hand, the information is retained longer if the sensory register contains meaningful information. Thus, Lindsay and Norman (1977) believed it necessary
to organize the information which it receives from the sensory register in order to store and transform the information to STM. According to Smith (1975), people use their basic existing knowledge when they organize information. New information is organized by connecting it with previous knowledge and old information.

The content of the sensory register is similar to the sensations from the original stimulus (Woolfark, 1993). Visual sensations, like photographs, are coded briefly by the sensory register as images. Likewise, auditory sensations are coded sounds (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). Both visual and auditory sensations are important in retaining the information and transferring it to STM. Vision takes in a lot of information simultaneously and integrates it spatially. On the other hand, hearing needs integration over time. Some researchers have conducted experiments in comparing the effectiveness of auditory and vision (Watkins & Watkins, 1980). From the findings of Watkins and Watkins' study (1980), those who hear words can recall more than those who see them. Also, people who read aloud recall better than the people who read silently. The effect is modality specific. Watkins and Watkins' research present an interpretation of the modality effect in terms of echoic memory.

Attention to information in a sensory register is equivalent to reading and transferring it to STM. There are some suggestions from Emmer and Millett (1970) in order to focus attention. Primarily, teachers need to tell students the purpose of a lesson. They should explain how the learning material will be useful and meaningful. Second, teachers should ask students why learning the material will be important for themselves. Third, teachers need to keep students curious with questions such as "What would happen
Fourth, they should give students lessons that stimulate students’ sensory receptors such as touch, smell, or taste. Finally, teachers should have students use movements, gestures, and voice inflection.

**Short-Term Memory (STM)**

When information is transferred from the sensory register, it enters the STM system which is then transformed into patterns of images or sounds (Woolfolk, 1993). Short-term memory, which also serves working memory, holds a limited amount of information briefly. Working memory holds what people are thinking about all the time. Baddeley (1986, 1990) developed the concepts in working memory, which describes the content of current conscious thought. According to Anderson (1990), information in STM must be kept activated and retained because it is fragile and easily lost. Activation is high when people are focusing on information; however, activation may decay or fade quickly if attention shifts away.

Rehearsal is the most important control process to retain information. According to Craik and Lockart (1972), there are two types of rehearsal: maintenance and elaborative rehearsal. Maintenance rehearsal maintains information in STM and elaborative rehearsal transfers information from STM to LTM. In short, rehearsal is useful not only to retain information in STM but also to move it from STM to LTM.

Maintenance rehearsal is effective in retaining information that people use and forget in a short period of time. For example, if someone does not have a pen to write down a phone number, he or she might repeat the number and call the number immediately. But if the person does not rehearse the phone number, the number will fade from consciousness.
(McCormick & Pressley, 1997). Maintenance rehearsal is the repetition of information in one’s mind to keep it in STM. This is useful when people hold information for a short time and then forget it. However, maintenance rehearsal is not effective in retaining the information for a long period. Elaborative rehearsal is more effective in retaining information than maintenance rehearsal.

The information is controlled by attention to be retained when it is transferred from the sensory register to STM. According to Kahneman’s Capacity Models of Attention (1973), people have a certain amount of cognitive capacity which they devote to accomplishing various tasks. Different tasks need different capacities, and the number of activities that can be done simultaneously is determined by the limit of the capacity. Attention is important in determining which tasks are accomplished and how well they are performed (Anderson, 1990).

Atkinson and Shiffrin’s box model suggests incoming information moves from the sensory register to STM and from STM to LTM. On the other hand, Craik and Lockhart (1972) denied Atkinson and Shiffrin’s box model, and they wrote that rehearsal is effective in retaining information and transferring it from STM to LTM. Their depth-of-processing theory holds that the durability of memory traces depends on the depth of processing. People repeat information to themselves to preserve information in STM. As long as they repeat the information, it can be retained in STM indefinitely.

Compared with the capacity of sensory register and LTM, STM capacity is very limited. According to Miller (1956), people can only hold from five to nine separate new items at one time. The average number of items which people can remember at once
according to his experiment, is seven. Ellis and Hunt (1993) found that the standard
telephone number is seven digits because the telephone company applied Miller’s estimate
to reduce the number of digits.

The duration of information held in STM is short, about 20 to 30 seconds at the
most. Information can be held for a long time only if people keep the information
activated. The activated information expresses what people are thinking about at the
moment. STM must be activated to retain the information because it is lost easily
(Anderson, 1990). To retain the information, most people rehearse it mentally.

Also people might use an effective technique (which groups ideas in small amounts
individually) called chunking. For example, it is easier to divide a social security number
into two or three chunks of digits to remember when people need to remember it.
Chunking helps people remember a phone number or social security number (Woolfolk,
1993).

Even though people rehearse the information and remember it for a while, they
forget it easily. Woolfolk (1993) explained why people lose the information. Short-term
memory may be lost through interference or decay. Interference is when people forget old
information as they receive new information. Also, people might lose or weaken the
information when they do not pay attention to it for a while.

Long-Term Memory (LTM)

The information which transfers through STM is stored permanently in LTM.
According to Anderson (1990), well-learned information holds in LTM. It is more
durable if well learned. It takes time and effort to move the information from STM to
LTM. The capacity of LTM is practically unlimited. LTM can keep information permanently once it is stored in LTM. Elaborative rehearsal is the way one associates information with previous knowledge. For example, when a person meets someone at a party whose name is exactly same as a familiar person, people do not have to repeat the name of the person in order to keep it. They can make the association of the existing information with the new information.

Paivio (1971, 1986; Clark & Paivio, 1991) suggested people receive information in LTM from either visual images or verbal units, or sometimes both. Also, some psychologists believe that it is the easiest way to remember when information is to code it visually and verbally. That is, people can keep the information for a long time when they have visual or verbal aids.

In summary, memory traces stay more permanently when people receive information from the strong impacts on visual images or verbal units. Also, well-learned information can be retained in people’s mind for a long period of time.

**Depth-of-Processing Theory**

Craik and Lockhart (1972) denied the three-store memory system of Atkinson and Shiffrin. They believe that there is no barrier to separate STM from LTM. Their theory, depth-of-processing theory, states that retention is dependent upon the level at which information is processed. Their conception of processing stages implies greater depth reflects a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis. According to the depth-of-processing theory, memory traces stay more permanently when people move from the shallow sensory level of processing to the deeper semantic level. In other words,
information becomes more permanent as people pay special attention to retain it. Also, meaningful stimuli are compatible with existing cognitive structures by the definition. For example, pictures and sentences will be processed to a deep level more rapidly than less meaningful stimuli and will be retained well (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). According to their theory, retention is a function of depth and various factors such as the amount of attention devoted to a stimulus. In addition, retention is compatible with the analyzing structures and the processing time available. These factors determine the depth to which it is processed (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). According to Craik and Lockhart’s experiment, people can make great use of learned rules and past knowledge at deep levels. Also, material can be efficiently handled and retained.

Craik and Tulving (1975) expanded the depth-of-processing theory arguing that retrieval is reinforced by elaboration. According to their theory, additional acoustical or visual processing must occur to trace a memory at the sensory level. They explain the elaboration hypothesis as:

... a process relating the to-be-remembered event to other information that may be known about the event. Elaboration serves to broaden the stored information of the to-be-remembered event. (pp. 111-112)

In addition, Craik and Tulving stated information is remembered better if it is related to other known facts or existing knowledge.

In summary, a memory trace is better explained in terms of the depth of processing or the degree of stimulus elaboration. People can maintain memory traces more permanently when they pay special attention to retaining it or if the information has a
strong image itself. Deeper analysis leads to a more persistent trace.

Semantic, Episodic, and Procedural Memory

Tulving (1972) distinguished between two types of declarative memory: semantic and episodic memory. Martindale (1991) stated the distinction between semantic memory and episodic memory as follows:

Semantic memory contains the basic elements of knowledge, and episodic memory is made up from these elements. Semantic memory is like a dictionary containing the meanings of all of the words and images you know. Episodic memory is like a novel or movie that puts these concepts together in particular ways. (p. 181)

Semantic memory is memory for meaning. It is organized knowledge of the world, independent of specific experiences. Semantic memory refers to general world knowledge that is not specially time marked. On the other hand, episodic memory is LTM for information which is tied to a particular time and place, especially the memory of events in a person’s own life (Woolfolk, 1993). Many people remember very clearly personal events such as David’s birthday party, last year’s Christmas, etc. That is, the coding of time and place is involved. Ellis and Hunt (1993) stated, “Unlike the semantic system, the operation of episodic memory is accompanied by the conscious feeling of remembering” (p. 141). For instance, semantic memory contains an image of a cat, whereas episodic memory holds the memory of a specific cat. Squire (1987) categorized three types of memory: semantic, episodic, and procedural (see Figure 2).
According to his classification, memory can be divided into two types: declarative and procedural. Semantic and episodic memory belong to the declarative memory. Squire (1987) stated the difference between declarative memory and procedural memory as follows:

Declarative memory includes what can be declared or brought to mind as a proposition or an image. Procedural memory includes motor skills, cognitive skills, simple classical conditioning, as well as habituation, sensitization, various perceptual after-effects, and other instances where the facility for engaging specific cognitive operations is improved by experience. (p. 170)

Procedural memory remembers how to do things such as ride a bike, make a phone call, and so on. Skills are learned through procedures of doing things. Procedural memory refers to the memory processes required to hold information underlying skilled performance (Ellis & Hunt, 1993). It is characterized by absence of thought. Once people learned the procedure, these memories tend to be retained strongly in people's
Propositions, networks, and schemata exist to store semantic memories. A propositional network can store and represent. When people want to recall information, they may translate its meaning into some familiar phrases, sentences, or pictures in their mind. This information can trigger recall of other information (Anderson, 1990). To organize information, people need to have data structures called schemata. A schema represents an event, concept, or skill.

Tulving (1983) proposed that vocabulary acquisition must begin in episodic memory because an on-the-spot experience can become part of a students’ episodic memory. Simpson and Dwyer (1991) stated, “The experience-based approach is that students can best understand and remember new vocabulary after they have developed or enhanced their background for the concept the word represents” (pp. 13-14).

In summary, when people use episodic memory for vocabulary acquisition, they remember new vocabulary effectively with less effort because their experiences with strong impacts stay permanently in their mind.

**Mnemonics**

There is another way to keep information for a long period of time, which is called mnemonics, techniques for remembering, systematic procedures to improve people’s memory. Many mnemonic strategies use imagery (Levin, 1985; McCormick & Levin, 1987).

The loci method is a way to use the technique of associating items with particular locations. Peg-type mnemonics are the techniques of associating with cue words. Chain
Mnemonics (or linking mnemonics) are strategies for relating one element in a series with another element. In this method, each item on a list is related to the next by visual association. The most-applied technique in teaching in a foreign language is the keyword method introduced by Atkinson (1975). A keyword is acoustically close to the new word, and assists in remembering the new word's definition. People associate the meaning of the foreign word with the English word through a visual image or a sentence.

Meara (1980) criticized the use of mnemonic strategies for learning vocabulary. The disadvantage is that it encourages learners to learn only one meaning of the word. It matches only the meaning with its translation equivalent in their native language. Therefore, some educators suggest that using a picture is better than translating into the native language. Even though a word is linked to a picture to remember, it may cause the same result; that is, learners may remember only one meaning of the word.

Herrmann (1987) found there are some techniques that work best with some types of material. According to his study, imagery mediation works well for paired associate learning, story mnemonics are superior for free-recall learning, and the loci method works well for serial learning.

In summary, according to the depth-of-processing theory which Craik and Lockhart (1972) developed, the durability of memory traces depends on the depth of processing when new words or some features of those words are input by the learner. Information is retained better if it is related to other known facts or previous knowledge. Information in semantic, episodic, or procedural memory is retained more permanently with less effort for a long period if processed deeply upon input. Therefore, teachers are
advised to lead students to enhance the depth of processing for vocabulary development if they wish to enhance long-term retention.

Difficulties that Lead to Overreliance on Rote Learning

There are many different systems between the Japanese language and English. Those differences give Japanese students difficulties in developing vocabulary, with a tendency to rely on rote memorization. I will mainly focus on three distinctions: alphabet, pronunciation, and phonics.

The Alphabet Problem. There are many differences between Japanese and English in terms of the writing system. English uses an alphabet; the Japanese language does not. Japanese is composed of Chinese characters called *kanji* and Japanese original characters called *hiragana* and *katakana*. Japanese language is divided into logographic writing (*kanji*) and syllabic writings, *hiragana* and *katakana*. Each *kanji* character represents a separate morpheme. The written symbols of a logographic system are equivalent to words because the structural elements represent concepts. A logographic system has the disadvantage of a huge number of symbols which must be memorized because each word has its own equivalent symbol. When people need to learn about 5,000 characters to read a newspaper, and students are required 10,000 characters at the college level. People must spend years of schooling to learn such a large number of characters (Jannedy, Poletto, & Weldon, 1994). On the other hand, a logographic system has a great advantage, since it is unnecessary to know how to pronounce the words represented by the writing system. Because each character represents a concept directly, it has little or nothing to do with its pronunciation. Therefore, the Japanese can communicate with the
Chinese in writing (Jannedy, et. al., 1994).

The Japanese writing system, hiragana and katakana, are called syllabic because each symbol represents a syllable which is used in composing words. The total set of characters used in a given language is referred to as a syllabary. Here is an example that Japanese that illustrates the way words are represented in the syllabary and Chinese characters used (see Figure 3).

Figure 3. The sentence This is a book written in Japanese (Jannedy, et. al., 1994, p. 431)

これ は 本 で す。

Kore wa hon desu.

これは ほん で す。

Kore wa hon desu.

In the example, the symbols spell out the sentence This is a book. Each syllable is represented by a character in a syllabary. The difference between the first and the second example is that the first uses the syllabic symbols mixed with the Chinese character for the word book. Chinese characters are used in Japanese for content morphemes: nouns, verbs, and adjectives. The second example uses only the syllabic characters.

The Pronunciation Problem. There is another difference between Japanese and English in terms of pronunciation. Each syllable in Japanese is either a vowel sound or a combination of consonants with a vowel sound. Because the pronunciation of each word in Japanese consists of a single syllable or a sequence of syllables, it does not require
memorizing and learning (Jannedy, et al., 1994). While the English writing system requires fewer characters than Japanese writing system, it composes unique speech sounds which the Japanese language does not have. A character or combination of characters represents speech sounds in alphabetic writing system (Jannedy, et al., 1994). Therefore, Japanese students have difficulty spelling English words correctly and pronouncing them properly.

The Phonics Problem. Another difficulty for Japanese students in spelling English words correctly is that English is not consistent. According to Heilman (1981), the English alphabet contains twenty-six letters which represent more than forty speech sounds. Many letter combinations create a number of different sounds. Moreover, English words do not follow regular spelling patterns. A large number of the English words people use most, frequently even in the simplest sentences, have irregular spellings. For example, words such as some, of, bird, once, said (pronounced sum, ov, burd, wunz, sed) are spelled irregularly. In addition, a large number of English words contain one or more letters that are not sounded. For example, in words beginning with kn, the /k/ is usually not sounded such as know, knee, knit (pronounced no, nee, nit). Even though the words contain one or more letters that are sounded, they must reveal in spelling.

Therefore, Japanese students have a hard time developing vocabulary because they are not taught the rules of spelling. The problem is that teachers just ask students to memorize thousands of words without having any strategies. Teachers need to explain the concept that some letters in words may not represent a sound.
Solutions to Overcome Language Difficulties. Japanese students have difficulties acquiring a vocabulary because the Japanese language is totally different from English in terms of alphabet, pronunciation, and phonics. There are, however, some ways to overcome language difficulties for EFL students. Wong (1986) points out the importance of having word knowledge such as the individual sounds (phonemes) in words, relations between phonemes within the words, orthographic or spelling patterns, and syntactic and semantic knowledge of the words. Wong (1986) suggested that learners learn how each speech sound is symbolized in the English alphabet. And then, to learn letter-sound associations, learners must understand that letters are symbols for specific phonological components in words (Ehri, 1980). Attending to parts of words (e.g. the word base or root, prefixes, and suffixes) helps students predict the meanings of unknown words (Yorkey, 1970; Martin, McChesney, Whalley, & Devlin, 1977). Barron (1980) declaimed the necessity of specific information about visual-orthographic structures of particular words in order to conquer the spelling of irregular words. Also, syntactic and semantic properties of words may help learners learn spelling irregular words (Ehri, 1980).

Learners need useful strategies to overcome language difficulties. Therefore, teachers should give students some clues to help predict unknown words by using word knowledge.

Vocabulary Acquisition via Provision of Syntactic Context

The syntactic context. English grammar is different from Japanese grammar. For example, word order in a declarative sentence in English usually features the subject before the verb, with the object following. On the other hand, word order in Japanese
language features the subject preceding the object and the verb coming at the end of the sentence. Therefore, it is difficult for Japanese students to figure out the meaning of new vocabulary terms without understanding the structural rules of English (Jannedy, et. al., 1994). Students are required to identify elements of a sentence when they learn new vocabulary.

The decontextualization process. Elshout-Mohr and van Daalen-Kapteijns (1987) claimed all students use one of three levels of decontextualization in dealing with each sentence:

- **Level 0:** Kolpers are much asked for during a heat wave.
- **Level 1:** Kolpers in some respects resemble sun-blinds.
- **Level 2:** Kolpers have a cooling effect.


Elshout-Mohr and van Daalen-Kapteijns (1987) explain as follows:

At level 0, the sentence structure was transformed so that the new word came first, but the meaning stayed the same. At level 1, a minor transformation of the sentence content was made. At level 2, a real aspect of meaning was derived from the sentence content. (p. 61)

The decontextualization process depends on the use of a model. Analytic model use, which means handling the sentence as a bundle of separable components of meaning, tends to control and further the decontextualization process by providing the reader with a plan to encode the information given in the sentences. In contrast, holistic model use, which means new compatible information leads to adjustment of the ongoing meaning,
tends to decontextualize at a lower level. Elshout-Mohr and van Daalen-Kapteijns (1983) explained this as follows:

The main purpose of using a model is to delimit the domain within which the new word’s meaning belongs. The readers’ hypotheses about the word’s meaning, derived from the sentences, are often sentence-bound and sometimes idiosyncratic. This lack of conventional aspects of meaning proved to be a disadvantage when readers were asked for a description of the meaning unit. (p. 62)

In summary, the decontextualized process depends on the model. The main purpose is to describe the element in which new words’ meanings fit.

**Grammar textbooks in Japan.** The textbooks used in English classes in junior high schools must be approved by the Ministry of Education officials (Kitao, 1983). According to Education’s Course of Study (Shido Yoryo), the purpose of English education is to provide students a practical command of written and spoken English and to promote the understanding of the cultural and social backgrounds of English-speaking countries (Kimizuka, 1968). The Course of Study determines minimum and maximum standards in terms of what sounds, sentence patterns, vocabulary, and grammatical categories should be taught in junior high English classes each year. Textbooks for junior high schools are chosen by a District Board of Education. Individual teachers in public junior high schools cannot control the texts used in their classes (Imura, 1978). Okushi (1990) criticized the Japanese-English textbooks for junior high schools. First, materials are prepared in grammar-oriented sequences. Japanese-English textbooks consist of content that explains
grammatical rules in English. Students have difficulty learning vocabulary through these
textbooks because they emphasize grammar and do not use interesting content (Imura,
1978). Second, the dialogues used in textbooks are often artificial. Okushi (1990)
pointed out, “that there is an underlying humorous intent which is difficult to ascertain
since the outcome is rude in the extreme” (p. 67). The following dialogue is from the
first-year English text used in junior high schools.

Boy: Hello.
Lady: Oh, hello. But why do you look at me so hard? Why don’t you go and
play with other children?
Boy: I don’t want to go away.
Lady: Why? Are you ill?
Boy: No, I am not. Is your dress new?
Lady: Yes. Do you like it?
Boy: I don’t know, but it’s beautiful.
Lady: Thank you. Come here. Sit down with me.
Boy: No.
Lady: Why?
Boy: Don’t you see the sign here? It says, “Wet Paint.”

(Yokokawa, Miyazaki, Watanabe, Murata, & Matsubara, 1985)

The dialogue is not an example of natural conversation because the topic is frequently
changed and the two speakers do not interact with each other. It is hard to imagine what
the writer’s motivation can be in creating the dialogue.

High school English classes are controlled in a manner similar to those in junior
high schools by the guidelines in the Ministry of Education’s Course of Study. According
to Monbusho (1979), a maximum of 1,900 new words may be introduced each year, so
high school graduate students have learned almost 5,700 in their school years. The
content of high school courses is influenced by the content of university entrance
examinations. Most students' motivation for learning English is only to pass the entrance examinations. High school teachers prepare student lessons for the examinations (Kitao, 1983). Teaching English is focused on reading and grammar comprehension, but it does not emphasize language for communication. English instruction in Japan is still based on traditional academism, that is, learning English is to read literature (Kitao, 1983). Vocabulary instruction has been ignored, but students need to develop vocabulary in order to understand grammatical structure in sentences.

**Sociolinguistic and Sociocultural Competence**

**What Is Sociolinguistic Analysis?**

According to Wolfson (1990), one purpose of sociolinguistic analysis is to learn how speech behavior is patterned in different societies. Researchers can investigate the use of speech in specific societies or speech communities because each society has different rules and patterns of speech behavior. These differ depending upon sex, age, region, social level, ethnic background, and educational background. Investigators collect data from natural speech in a certain speech community and analyze the rules and patterns of speech behavior.

**The Importance of Intertwining Culture and Communication**

Culture and communication cannot be separated; they are reciprocal. Therefore, knowing about culture in English-speaking countries is important for Japanese students who want to master English. Because cultures differ, the communication practices and behaviors of individuals in those cultures are in large part unconscious (McGroarty & Galvan, 1985; Wolfson, 1989). Therefore, it is necessary to have knowledge of cultural
backgrounds because lack of knowledge can break down communication (Wolfson, 1990). If students do not learn how native speakers interact with each other, they may easily misinterpret the meanings of what they read or hear in English. In addition, misunderstandings are bound to occur unless people learn rules of speaking (Okushi, 1990). Therefore, it is important to develop vocabulary within specific sociolinguistic contexts to prevent misinterpreting what speakers say and also to avoid violations of conversational rules. In order to master English, Japanese students need to learn the rules and patterns of speech within English-speaking countries.

According to EFL students, communicating in English is difficult not only because the language has its own vocabulary, syntax, idioms, slang, and dialects, but also because it has complex conventions which are different from the language of their native cultures (Richards & Sukwiwat, 1985; Pennycook, 1985; Lono, 1987). Japanese students face difficulties learning English because they do not have knowledge about culture and society in English-speaking countries. Okushi (1990) criticized some English texts for junior high students in Japan which are prepared in grammar-oriented sequences. The dialogues used in these textbooks are often artificial and reflect ignorance of social rules and the context for dialogues. Students cannot learn sociocultural rules through these grammar textbooks. In addition, students do not have many opportunities to learn about cultural and social differences in English-speaking countries in current English texts. Therefore, students sometimes misunderstand the meaning of the content. Japanese students need to learn the social rules in English-speaking communities. That is, they ought to know how English-speaking people talk and behave in social situations. Students need to learn the cultural
and social background in English-speaking countries through English lessons because they do not have many opportunities to know how native speakers communicate with each other in their daily lives. Teachers should be required to have experience teaching sociolinguistic and sociocultural concepts.

**Problems in the Teaching of Culture**

Teachers often neglect the teaching of culture when they teach a target language. Why do many language courses today ignore the systematic study of culture? According to Galloway (1985), one reason is that teachers do not have enough time for the study of culture in an overcrowded curriculum. Teachers believe students will be exposed to cultural materials after they learn the basic grammar and vocabulary of the language (Seelye, 1984). However, the teaching of language and culture are intertwined, so teachers should not miss teaching the target culture when they teach the language. Another reason for neglecting the teaching of culture is that many teachers do not know enough about the target culture. Most teachers of English in Japan do not have experience living in English-speaking countries to understand the target culture. Seelye (1984) insisted teachers help students attain the skills for achieving cross-cultural understanding without personal experience. The third reason that the teaching of culture is neglected is that it involves student attitudes. Students often react in negative ways when cultural phenomena differ from what they expect. They may characterize the target culture as strange or weird (Nostrand, 1989). Crawford-Lange and Lange (1984) considered that most teachers may not have been trained to teach a target culture; therefore, they do not have effective strategies for integrating cultural study with language
Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary in Cultural Contexts

Lafayette (1978, 1988) suggested the study of language and culture are integrated. He proposed strategies for teaching culture with vocabulary development. Primarily, teachers need to use a variety of techniques for teaching a target culture that involves speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills. Second, teachers should use as many pictures, photos, and realia as possible to provide effective visual aids. Third, cultural information should be used when teaching vocabulary. Teachers can teach students about the connotative meaning of new words and ask them to group vocabulary into culture-related clusters. Finally, teachers can use small-group techniques for discussions, brainstorming, and role-plays for cultural instruction.

Spinelli and Siskin (1992) suggested teachers present vocabulary and have students practice it as follows:

(1) within culturally-authentic semantic groupings; (2) in ways that allow students to see differences between the native and target culture; (3) through the use of visuals where native-culture/target-culture referents differ; and (4) in ways that will reinforce appropriate conventional target-culture behavior. (p. 313)

In summary, teachers need to provide new vocabulary presentations by making good use of cross-cultural differences between the native and target culture.

Multiple Approaches to Teaching Sociocultural Concepts

Experts have approached the teaching of sociolinguistic and cultural concepts by
means of the academic, observational, media, experiential, and cognitive approaches (McGroarty & Galvan, 1985; Bhawuk, 1990; Albert & Triandis, 1991).

**Academic approach.** This approach emphasizes the informational aspect of learning (Bhawuk, 1990). A target culture can be learned in a classroom through formal instruction. In this approach, teachers lecture and read assignments about the target culture. Stories help students understand some social meanings through stories that provide indirect connection with native speakers of the language (Allen, 1983). Teachers can help students notice what certain words mean to English speakers. However, there are some disadvantages to the academic approach. One is that students tend not to learn how to develop their own network for collecting information about the target culture because the necessary information is provided by teachers and textbooks. Another disadvantage is that this approach tends to provide cognitive knowledge rather than sociolinguistic awareness and intercultural skills. Also, students do not have much chance to develop the "emotional strengths" they need to become intercultural persons. Another problem is that classroom activities tend to develop written communication rather than speaking skills. Students need more speaking skills, with a good sense of nonverbal communication and active listening.

**Observational approach.** Students can learn another culture by observing how people in the target culture behave. The teaching approach used in the classroom can involve observations of people from the target culture, discussion, and role-playing. Students can learn the differences and similarities between their own culture and a target culture by observation.
Media approach. According to Steele (1990), media (e.g. television, radio, newspapers, magazines, etc.) reflect and describe the existing conditions of the target culture. McGroarty and Galvan (1985) state the reason for proposing this approach:

Teachers can have the class engaged in discussions on relevant intercultural topics and enhance their understanding of the concepts. This data-based topic of discussion can add an important dimension to the cultural-concepts teaching-learning process. (p. 62)

Experiential approach. This approach is based on learning culture through experiencing either a real-life situation or its simulated form (Bhawuk, 1990; Kim, 1991). Bhawuk (1990) compared the academic approach with the experiential approach as follows:

Unlike the academic approach that stresses cognitive learning and intellectual processing of informational content of the target cultures, the experiential approach emphasizes affective learning and doing. (p. 62)

Class activities may include role-playing, simulation games, and cross-cultural exercises (McGroarty & Galvan, 1985).

Cognitive approach. According to McGroarty and Galvan (1985), this approach is based on cognitive psychology, and pursues a rational basis for choice among alternative behaviors. It emphasizes facts and information on cultural acts. Four teaching techniques are used: *culture assimilators, culture capsules, culturegrams, and culture asides.* Cultural assimilators consist of a set of short descriptions of situations from which learners choose the correct response (McGroarty & Galvan, 1985). A culture capsule is a
paragraph to explain minimal difference between two cultures with several illustrative photos or relevant realia in order to demonstrate the difference (McGroarty & Galvan, 1985). A culturegram is a set of condensed descriptions of major aspects of target cultures. A “culture aside” is an activity that responds to intercultural aspects of interest that occur in the classroom.

Each approach shares the goal of teaching sociolinguistic and cultural concepts to EFL learners. Through various activities such as role-plays, discussions, and cross-cultural exercises, students can enhance their vocabulary development while understanding the target culture more deeply.

**Motivation to Acquire New Words**

Fillmore (1985) pointed out that those who learn a foreign language are more successful if they feel they need to learn it. In other words, students must have strong motivation for learning a target language. Some researchers propose that a learner’s vocabulary increases more when the motivation for acquiring new words is intrinsic than when it is extrinsic (Goodman, 1976; Haggard, 1980, 1984; Herber, 1978). According to Haggard’s research (1980), elementary and secondary students want to learn new words that had some immediate usefulness or particular significance. In addition, Haggard (1984) pointed out that college students learn new words to use them immediately for class assignments. She found that the process of collecting words can definitely enhance a college student’s interest in expanding vocabulary. In other words, students can enhance vocabulary development depending upon their needs.
The Need for Self-Motivated and Self-Managed Vocabulary Acquisition

Zimmerman (1997) supported, “Interactive vocabulary instruction accompanied by moderate amounts of self-selected and course-related reading led to gains in vocabulary knowledge” (p. 121). Especially, self-selected reading helps students learn new words because students can enjoy reading with high motivation. In addition, Stewner-Manzanares, Chamot, O’Malley, Kupper, and Russo (1983) suggest the strategy of self-management, in which teachers have students identify learning preferences such as listening to and speaking on favorite topics, and then direct conversations to their own areas of interest. Here is a comment from a student:

I try to choose the topic of conversation. For instance, I know a lot about football, so I choose this as a topic for conversation with friends. I can have a friendly conversation when I initiate the theme of it. (Stewner-Manzanares et. al., 1983, p 5)

Students seem to enjoy the topics they choose by themselves from their areas of interest. Ruddell (1986) declared, “Establishing motivation and desire to acquire new vocabulary is at the very heart of vocabulary acquisition” (p. 587). Teachers should take responsibility for instilling in students how they can have high motivation for learning vocabulary. Teachers should create effective curriculum to tie new information with students’ prior knowledge and interests in enhancing vocabulary development.
**Strategic Learning of Vocabulary**

**Helping Students Become Strategic Learners**

The typical strategy to increase vocabulary is rote memorization. In rote memorization, people remember by repetition without understanding the meaning. Rote memorization includes part learning. For instance, when students memorize all the states and their capitals, they might break the items which they are supposed to memorize into short parts or lists. Also, sometimes students might make flashcards to memorize the information. The important point for this method is that students need to concentrate on a limited number of items because they might confuse meaningless vocabulary items (Woolfolk, 1993). The disadvantage of rote memorization is that it only works temporarily because people just memorize without understanding the meaning of information or finding any connection with their knowledge. People may forget information memorized without elaborate rehearsals because the depth of processing is not deep enough to retain the information for a long period.

Students need to understand the meaning of information before retaining it. Teachers need to give students clear instruction for understanding. There is good evidence to prove how important understanding the meaning of the information is to students. According to Craik and Lockhart (1972), semantic information lasts longer than nonsemantic information; students can keep the information for a long period of time if they understand the meaning of the information and organize it by connecting with their existing knowledge and experience. Therefore, rote memorization is a less effective way for students to memorize vocabulary for entrance examinations than deep processing. So
students should not rely on rote memorization too much, as there are many effective ways to enhance vocabulary development. I will propose some alternative approaches to learning vocabulary that are not based upon rote learning.

Knowledge-Based Approaches to Vocabulary Instruction

According to Pearson & Gallagher (1983), a knowledge-based approach for vocabulary development helps learners enhance reading comprehension. Swaby (1977) found that instruction which fits a new concept into prior knowledge was more effective than a definition-based approach. Also instruction that integrates word meanings with story context was superior to definition drill (Kameenui, Carnine, & Freschi, 1982). Nagy and Herman (1987) declared that vocabulary instruction must be knowledge-based if the purpose of developing vocabulary is especially focused on reading comprehension. They also suggested the instruction must aim to tie new words with prior knowledge and present new words and concepts in the context of larger elements of knowledge.

Different Approaches According to Learners’ Level

EFL students need different approaches for vocabulary acquisition depending on language proficiency because although some students learn the meaning of words quickly, most of them learn words slowly. According to Allen (1983), the reason why students have less motivation for vocabulary acquisition is that they already know words in their own language. From the students’ point of view, words in English do not seem necessary because they can tell the words for familiar objects and persons in their mother tongue. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to be motivated to learn a target language.

Beginning level. For the first stage of ESL/EFL learning, teachers can start by
naming things and persons in the classroom (Allen, 1983). According to Allen (1983), there are three ways to show the meaning of vocabulary words: 1) pictures, 2) explanations in the students' mother tongue, and 3) definition in simple English words which students already know. Vocabulary instruction for the first stage needs to incorporate pictures to show many meanings. Using real objects is also effective to gain the attention of students. Visual aids are useful because students can understand the meanings of words without explanation. Students can draw pictures and mime actions to imagine acts. It is important to use students as helpers in order to reinforce their vocabulary development. Visual aids have strong impact on teaching vocabulary when they involve game-like activities in class.

What is important for learning vocabulary for beginners is that teachers let students understand the meanings of words easily and create activities to use new words for real communication.

**Intermediate level.** There are some similarities and differences between beginning- and intermediate-level students. Intermediate students can learn the same kinds of words that beginning-level students learn, such as words for common areas of living, words related to food, clothing, and so on (Allen, 1983). However, intermediate students can attempt to learn different categories like buildings, parts of a house, furniture, occupations, transportation, weather, health, and so on. These words are important and useful in daily life. In addition, intermediate students can learn vocabulary that cannot be demonstrated through actions or shown through pictures. Teachers at the intermediate level are required to define words through other simple words which students already
know. Teachers can introduce the dictionary as an excellent source of help (Allen, 1983).

Both students in intermediate and advanced levels can work together in small
groups. Beginning-level students, however, may not have enough English ability to work
together without teachers. Many teachers believe group work is useful to learn a target
language, and there are many advantages for working together in small groups. One
advantage is that small groups give the individual learner a personal interest. Another
advantage is that students can share their ideas so poor learners can participate in work
activities. Also, as compared with class lessons, students have more opportunity to
answer in small groups or pairs (Allen, 1983). According to Allen (1983), keeping the
intermediate students' minds alert is important for teachers. Compared with beginning-
level students, intermediate students have more experience and sometimes they might lose
interest in learning a target language. Teachers need to encourage students to develop
more vocabulary for the next step. Activities help motivate students learn more. For
instance, teachers give students crossword puzzles which depend upon their abilities, or
simplified readings, and so on.

**Advanced level.** Advanced students understand most of what they hear and read
in class, but they still need help with material intended for native speakers of English
(Allen, 1983). Their special purpose in lessons is to use English as well as native
speakers. Advanced students can move independent study, so they need to use the
dictionary as often as possible as an effective tool. Students need to know which
dictionaries are appropriate for them (Graves, 1987). Therefore, Graves (1987) suggested
teachers instruct directly on how to use specific dictionaries. In addition, advanced
students need direct instruction in using the thesaurus.

Instructors are required to teach students how to deal with unknown words. First, teachers have students think about the entire sentence in which the unfamiliar word appears. Students have to figure out which definition fits in the content of the sentence. Second, teachers ask students the function of the unknown words and whether they need to know them to understand the content. What kind of word is it? Is it a noun or a verb? They need to learn how to guess unknown words by using word knowledge such as the use of prefixes, suffixes, or root words.

**Dictionary and Thesaurus**

Neubach and Cohen (1988) pointed out nonnative readers overuse the dictionary. Especially, EFL students tend to use bilingual dictionaries, but the dictionaries can be misleading because languages often do not have direct equivalents. Therefore, monolingual dictionaries are better to understand word meanings. Students need to know how to use specific dictionaries. Also, they need direct instruction in using the thesaurus. The thesaurus helps them find a new way of the word. Using a thesaurus is a step toward getting students to enlarge their active vocabularies (Graves, 1987). Therefore, the dictionary and thesaurus are useful tools for vocabulary development.

**Word Analysis**

Analyzing unknown words into word parts (suffixes, prefixes, and root words) is an effective approach to aid students in learning many words (White, Power, & White, 1989). Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1983) also suggest teaching ESL/EFL students as follows:
Working with your ESL/EFL students on the meanings of some common prefixes (e.g. anti-, bi-, inter-, pre-) and common suffixes (e.g. -able, -er, -ish, -less, -ness) can help them to expand their productive and receptive vocabularies. It is also worthwhile spending some time on the common suffixes whose major function is to signal part of speech. -ous, -ly, -ary, and -ful, which transform nouns into adjectives (famous, friendly, customary, successful), would be examples of these. (pp. 51-52)

EFL students need to know the meanings of prefixes and suffixes in order to figure out unknown words and predict their meanings without using a dictionary. Teachers should teach how to figure out unknown words simply by applying knowledge students already possess (Kitchens, 1989). For example, Kitchens (1989) indicated how to figure out an unknown word by drawing a line separating the major parts of the word, like this: infanticide. Then he will write the word “suicide” below infanticide. Then he will give the next clue, “homicide” below suicide. And then, he pronounces “suicide” and tells what it means; pronounces “homicide” and tells what it means; then pronounces “infanticide.” Finally, he asks students to figure out the word “infanticide.” This procedure can help students think of words with endings similar to the word being analyzed. He reports that students enjoy the process of figuring out words and also improve their ability to analyze words by breaking them down.

Suffixes and prefixes usually have a clear lexical meaning which is attached to the base in a straightforward way. Therefore, this knowledge of suffixes and prefixes leads students to figure out and unlock the meanings of unknown words. Knowing and being
able to predict unknown words can be a powerful aid in enhancing vocabulary development (Graves, 1989).

**Group Activities Using Pictures**

Wallerstein (1983) suggested use of pictures in teaching because they provide endless possibilities for learning vocabulary. If teachers are not good at drawing pictures, they can ask students to draw them. There are some benefits for teachers who use pictures which students draw (Allen, 1983). Primarily, such pictures cost little or nothing. Students’ pictures are available even though teachers cannot find any other places to store them. The pictures do not have to be stored or filed with other resources. Second, students can reply to the pictures with their own feelings and opinions. Pictures help students express their experiences. In other words, pictures can help students bring back their own experiences vividly. This is effective for memorizing vocabulary because students can increase their experience through pictures and retain the events in LTM. In the beginner’s class, teachers can ask students to draw their own pictures in response to lessons. In addition, it will be a good motivation for students who are poor language-learners to start learning English. Students can imagine the meaning of words from their own pictures (Allen, 1983).

Pictures are more effective with group activities. One advantage of having students teach words in groups is that it gives the individual a personal interest in English words. Another advantage is that students who are poor language-learners can participate in class activities with other class members. The advantage of working with a small group is that each member has more opportunities to answer, and also it is good for establishing
the leadership roles. Also, group work might increase students’ interest in English and keep their minds alert (Allen, 1983).

The Value of Games for Vocabulary Learning

According to Helgesen (1987), there are several reasons why games work well in EFL classrooms. First, the structure of games gives a great opportunity for learners to practice vocabulary. In order to play the games, students are required to have constant and meaningful interaction. Secondly, games help students relax. They can focus learners’ attention immediately on their goals. Whether or not the game is competitive, students need to cooperate with each other. Finally, games offer a strategy for dealing with problems that may arise from code simplification, which is used by teachers to provide communication. Learners bring their own experiences to the class. It is an effective way for learners to retain vocabulary because game activities help them to transfer information from STM to LTM. During game playing, because students are invigorated and entertained, they are likely to remember more of what happens than they would if they were simply memorizing or repeating the lesson. Through this experience, students can retain information strongly in their mind. Well-chosen game activities are valuable for learners to acquire English words. Sometimes game activities are required to remember the game procedures (Allen, 1983). Therefore, game-like activities for teaching vocabulary are useful in classrooms.

Active techniques are based on body movements, gestures and rhythms. Learning by doing places the new vocabulary more easily in students’ long-term memory (Wallerstein, 1983). Active techniques work well with simple methods for beginners.
Games like *Simon Says* are fun and appealing. According to Allen (1983), children have many experiences in obeying commands during learning their mother tongue. This game works well to enforce students' motivation for learning vocabulary. Physical action helps students retain words for a long period of time.

**Written Dialogues and Role-plays**

Wallerstein (1983) introduced the benefit of using written dialogues and role-plays in class lessons. These are excellent tools for broadening students' ability to converse in unfamiliar situations. Written dialogues encourage students to participate in class lessons. Also, they can introduce the vocabulary and structures which will be used in the contents. Students can repeat after their teachers to learn intonation and pronunciation. When students feel comfortable, they can act out the dialogue with partners. Acting out parts reinforces vocabulary development. Both written dialogues and oral activities appear to assist the word-learning process, according to Nation (1990).

**The Importance of Reading and Writing**

According to Parry (1991), reading provides opportunities for students to encounter academic vocabulary in meaningful contexts. Parry confirmed that people who read less learn fewer new words. According to Zimmerman (1997), it is obvious that self-selected reading is helpful for word learning. Self-selected materials are enjoyable for students. Students should be encouraged to adopt the habit of reading self-selected materials. Incremental knowledge of words may be gained from reading because written contexts provide useful lexical information that assists decoding (Huckin & Bloch, 1993; Parry, 1993). Teachers need to explain to students the benefits of reading, and help
students locate reading materials depending on their own reading comprehension (Pilgreen & Krashen, 1994).

Wallerstein (1983) pointed out the importance of writing exercises for learning vocabulary. In-class writing or homework assignments in writing can reinforce dialogue vocabulary and allow for more exploration of the subject. Students can recall their own experiences by writing essays.

In summary, there are many strategies that might help teachers design the curriculum consistent with students' levels and needs. Teachers can provide techniques for word analysis. In addition, they should interact with students by using written dialogues and role-plays, group activities with pictures, and reading and writing. In Chapter Three, we have seen and will further explore the connection between meaningful learning, sociolinguistic and sociocultural competence, motivation to acquire new words, strategic learning of vocabulary, and interactive strategies for learning a target language.

Interactive Strategies for Learning Vocabulary

Cooperative Learning

What is cooperative learning? Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1994) defined cooperative learning as "the instructional use of small groups through which students work together to maximize their own and each other's learning" (p. 4). Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991) demonstrate, “Cooperative learning results in higher achievement, more positive relationship among students, and healthier psychological adjustment than does competitive or individualistic experiences” (p. 1). According to Johnson and Johnson (1991), cooperative learning is a basic instructional strategy which should be fitted in.
every grade level and subject area. The aim of cooperative learning is that students work together collaboratively to accomplish their learning goals (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Students work in small groups and learn assigned materials together. The instructions for cooperative learning ensure that all members of their group learn the assigned materials together. Cooperative learning situations are designed so they become interdependent to attain their goals. The main idea is that students achieve their learning goals together with their peers in cooperative learning (Deutsch, 1962; Johnson & Johnson, 1991).

**Student-student interaction.** According to Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1991), student-student interaction can be identified in three ways: competitively, individualistically, and cooperatively. Cooperative learning is the most important learning situation of the three, but it is the least used in classrooms (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Cooperative learning has proven its effectiveness when compared with competitive learning and individualistic learning.

Competitive learning involves a negative interdependence to achieve goals (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Students perceive they can accomplish their goals if and only if other students in the class fail. Therefore, students work hard to get better grades than other classmates, or they give up working hard, perceiving less chance of winning.

In individualistic learning situations students work individually for their goal achievement (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Students do not relate to other students, so they do not know what other students are doing. There is no interdependence.
Students can be evaluated only on the basis of their own efforts.

Cooperative learning is different from individualistic learning and competitive learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991). Cooperation does not mean teachers have students sit side-by-side to talk with each other during their individual assignments. Cooperation means working together to achieve shared goals. Students discuss the material with each other, help one another understand it, and encourage each other to work hard. Cooperative learning involves a positive interdependence in order to achieve goals. Students can reach their learning goals if and only if other students in the learning group also reach their goals (Deutsch, 1962; Johnson & Johnson, 1991). A cooperative learning classroom gives students flexibility in the flow of information (Slavin, 1991).

**Basic elements of cooperative learning.** There are five basic elements that comprise cooperative learning (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1990). The first is positive interdependence, which means students must depend positively on other group members. Students need to believe they are linked. Everyone must succeed in the learning group. Second, cooperative learning requires face-to-face interaction among students. They need to help, assist, encourage, and support each other to achieve their learning goals. Third, students are held to individual accountability for mastering assigned materials. Every member of a small group has responsibilities to learn materials. Fourth, interpersonal and small group skills must be used appropriately by students. Teachers caution, and managing conflict as well as academic skills; students need to practice these small-group skills in order to work cooperatively. Finally, teachers must evaluate the process of group performance. They need to give students the time and procedures for processing to attain
Cooperative learning and EFL classrooms. The use of small groups in the ESL classroom has been supported by pedagogical and psycholinguistic arguments (Pica & Doughty, 1985; Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long & Porter, 1985; Bejarano, 1987). Learning in small groups increases opportunities for meaningful practice and language use, improves the quality of student talk, creates a positive affective climate in the classroom, and increases students' motivation (Long & Porter, 1985; Sharan & Shachar, 1988; Sharan & Shaulov, 1990). Seliger (1983) reports that learners receive more comprehensible input as a result of communicating with their peers.

In summary, cooperative learning is a good way for students to accomplish their learning goals together with peers because it involves positive interdependence. Students help, assist, encourage, and support each other to accomplish goals in cooperative learning situations. By using cooperative learning in EFL classrooms in Japan, students will have more opportunities for meaningful practice and language use, and can improve their speaking skills. Learning in small groups also creates a positive climate in the classroom and increases students' motivation for learning vocabulary.

Interactive Techniques for EFL Students

According to Zimmerman (1997), interactive vocabulary activities vary according to academic purpose. Some activities describe word meanings and illustrate appropriate usage. For example, a group discussion can be used for a brief explanation in a unit on the history of food. Other activities are designed to practice the use of the appropriate word in context. Students may create sentences by looking at a graph or chart. Other activities
also provide students opportunities to demonstrate word knowledge in either oral or written their own expression by using new words. Zimmerman (1997) also proposed some activities for enhancing vocabulary development. First, students memorize lists of new words. Second, they participate in lessons in which the teacher provides opportunities to use new words in class. Third, students study Greek and Latin roots and affixes.

Interactive learning styles are not familiar in the Japanese instruction system. According to Grasha (1996), interactive instruction characterizes the facilitator teaching style. The advantage of this learning style is that students can learn by sharing their ideas and talents with their teachers and classmates. Teachers must have good relationships with students because they need to consult with students and suggest alternative approaches to handle their problems.

Knowles (1984) had some suggestions for teachers to keep in mind when designing an andragogical (adult) learning experience. First, Knowles (1984) proposed that teachers create distinct physical and psychological environments. For instance, classrooms should be arranged to facilitate small-group interaction. The classroom should be open and supportive, and create an atmosphere of collaboration between teachers and students. Second, teachers can offer several options for learning activities and let students select from the options. Third, teachers need to be involved in understanding and interpreting the tests even if individuals have taken individualized assessment tests. Finally, teachers are required to evaluate not only the achievement of their learning objectives but also the quality and content of the training program or learning experience.
In summary, the interactive learning style has the advantage that students can share their ideas and talents with their teachers and classmates. Teachers need to create curriculum featuring facilitative physical and psychological environments to bring out the hidden talents in students.
CHAPTER THREE: A FRAMEWORK THAT SUPPORTS VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT

The purpose of this project is to propose teaching methods that enhance vocabulary development for EFL students in Japan. Students face many of those difficulties which have been analyzed in Chapter One. This project is based on Craik and Lockhart’s depth-of-processing theory (1972), in which retention is dependent upon the level at which information is processed. Greater depth implies a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis. The learning activities represented in two curriculum units are designed to consider vocabulary using a deeper degree of semantic or cognitive analysis (see Appendix). Strategic learning will be the key to meeting current pedagogical drawbacks in teaching and learning vocabulary in Japan.

From Rote Memorization to Meaningful Learning

Most students rely on maintenance rehearsal too much for vocabulary development because they do not have much vocabulary instruction in English classes. Students who use rote memorization do not know more effective ways to develop their vocabulary; therefore, they spend too much time rehearsing unknown words. In Chapter Two, we discovered that rote memorization only works well for temporary language learning and is ineffective over a long period. Therefore, I propose the application of depth-of-processing techniques to enhance vocabulary development not only for entrance examinations but also for further goals. I will focus on how students can enhance vocabulary development with less effort.

People are required to learn thousands of words to become proficient in English.
The functions of memory system and vocabulary development go hand in hand. Craik and Lockhart (1972) claimed memory traces stay more permanently when people process information in deeper semantic levels. Special attention and meaningful stimuli are needed to retain words for a long period. Thus, students should learn unknown words in ways that are meaningful. In this way, they can retain words for a long period.

I applied the strategies with the depth-of-processing theory for initial processing more deeply. When students learn English, they need to have strong impact on their beginning of lessons for vocabulary development. To begin with, I focused on how effectively teachers can present unknown words to their students. One of the most effective ways is to use visual aids. Some psychologists believe it is easiest to remember information when it is coded both visually and verbally. Lindsay and Norman (1977) stated that visual input is effective in transferring information from STM to LTM, and enhances the retention of information for a long period. If students both see and hear words, they will remember them easily and vividly for a long period. That is, hearing the words, seeing them, and saying them are good aids to develop vocabulary. According to Allen (1983), using pictures helps students understand word meanings. Using visual aids will be a good motivation to start learning English for students who are poor language-learners. Students can imagine the meanings of words and relate them to their own pictures. Therefore, I plan to use many pictures and real objects as visual aids to associate unknown words with students' own knowledge. Handling real objects is even better than using pictures to demonstrate meaning. In addition, according to Steele (1990), media such as television, video, radio, newspapers, and magazines are useful to learn a target
language and culture. Therefore, I played a cooking video as a visual aid to develop students' English listening skills and enjoyment of learning this new, specialized vocabulary.

Craik and Lockhart (1972) distinguished two types of rehearsal: maintenance and elaborate rehearsal. Maintenance rehearsal involves repeating the information to keep it in STM. Elaborative rehearsal associates information with something people already know in LTM. Craik and Tulving's (1975) version of the depth-of-processing theory proposed that retrieval is reinforced by elaboration, associating the to-be-remembered event with other information considered relevant. Elaboration enlarges the stored information of the to-be-remembered event. They believe that elaborative rehearsal is more effective than maintenance rehearsal in retaining information.

Simpson and Dwyer (1991) proposed, "the experience-based approach is that students can best understand and remember new vocabulary after they have developed or enhanced their background for the concept the word represents" (pp. 13-14). I believe that episodic and procedural memory can work well to develop vocabulary when people connect these memories with words they ought to know. These memories can help people retain information they gain through experience, using less mental effort.

Expressing their feelings and impressions about their lives in writing also helps students recall events and associate these experiences with new vocabulary. I propose a teaching method to combine elaboration with cooperative learning to enhance vocabulary development. I assume students retain vocabulary for a long period when they associate unknown words with their existing knowledge or known events. This pedagogy requires
teachers to interact with students to assist students’ vocabulary development. In the unit “Health,” I propose writing assignments that describe about their own experiences when students get sick. Then they can share their experience with classmates, interacting with others to retain new vocabulary. In this way, vocabulary stays permanently as semantic memory. Shared information in cooperative learning situations is also retained in episodic memory for a long period, not only as an individual’s episode but also as others’ episodes. In addition to episodic memory, I proposed to use the strategy of procedural memory. Scrambled sentence exercises which put the procedures in proper order may work to enhance vocabulary development because they offer meaningful stimuli to students. I designed a lesson in my unit “The American Chef” that requires students to change procedures for cooking.

In summary, teachers need to teach students effective strategies for vocabulary development without using rote memorization too much. They can suggest elaboration strategies that associate words with existing knowledge and events. This makes the best use of episodic, semantic, and procedural memory functions for vocabulary instruction.

From Vocabulary Acquisition without Sociocultural Competence to Emphasis on Communicative Competence

Japanese students do not learn about the culture and society in English-speaking countries when they learn English. This is because Japanese-English textbooks are prepared in grammar-oriented sequences and the dialogues used in the textbooks are often artificial; therefore, Japanese students may misinterpret the meanings of the content because they do not know how native speakers interact with each other in an English-
speaking society. To understand English meanings from context of culture, students should know how English-speaking people think and act.

I created two instructional units to integrate the study of language and culture because culture cannot be separated from communication. I adopted Spinelli and Siskin's (1992) suggestions to enhance vocabulary development with the study of culture. My curriculum is designed to overcome the lack of cultural knowledge. Students need to get ideas about cultural differences and similarities between the United States and Japan as they learn English. If they have knowledge about the cultural differences between the United States and Japan, this will promote understanding. In the unit "The American Chef," I proposed to use many pictures and real objects as visual aids to show the cultural differences between the United States and Japan in cooking. Moreover, the knowledge of a target culture increases the meaning of vocabulary.

From Dependent Learners to Self-Motivated and Self-Managed Vocabulary Acquisition

Japanese instruction systems are unfamiliar with interactive learning styles. According to Grasha's categorization (1996), Japanese teaching style often demonstrates the director-type of teaching wherein teachers control students and classroom tasks with authority. This style works well with students who are dependants and participants. Harel (1992) labeled this classroom structure as "teacher-fronted" classrooms because teachers control students, tasks, and lessons with authority. Teachers are centered to control the flow of information and students study hard to please their teachers or gain attention from them. Students are dependent on their ability to understand the teacher's explanations and
directions; therefore, students have little or no control in negotiating lessons. Classroom structures emphasize individual performance by encouraging students to study very hard to compete with each other for entrance examinations. On the other hand, interactive instruction employs the facilitator-style approach to teaching. Students learn by sharing their ideas and talents with their teachers and classmates. Teachers must have non-threatening relationships with students, consulting with students and suggesting alternative approaches to handle their problems.

I adopt Knowles's suggestions for teachers to keep in mind when designing an andragogical learning experience (1984). Primarily, Knowles proposes that teachers need to create physical and psychological environments that are instrumental to language learning. I propose using game-like activities based on physical environments. Game activities can be enjoyable and make learning new vocabulary fun. I also propose working in small groups or pairs because classrooms should be open and supportive and create an atmosphere of collaboration between teachers and students. This structure increases students' opportunities to participate in discussion and group works and to learn new vocabulary with their peers. Secondly, teachers present several options for learning activities and allow students to select from these options. I suggest students select topics to write essays in English. Thirdly, teachers need to be involved in helping students understand and interpret the tests, even if individuals have taken individualized assessment tests. Finally, teachers should be required to evaluate not only the achievement of their learning objectives but also the quality and content of the training program or learning experience itself.
In the units I propose many interaction activities for vocabulary development. Many activities allow for students working in pairs or small groups. Teachers have responsibility not to control students but to facilitate them creating an enjoyable learning environment that uses game-activities, discussions, and role-plays. Students become self-managed and self-motivated learners by participating in interactive vocabulary activities.

From Inexperienced Learners to Strategic Learners

Students need effective strategies to enhance vocabulary development with less effort. Therefore, I employ a knowledge-based approach, which connects a new word with prior knowledge. This technique enhances vocabulary development, according to Pearson and Gallagher (1983). Also, I suggest teaching vocabulary through pictures, real objects, and group activities, because visual aids provide students with endless possibilities for developing vocabulary (Wallerstein, 1983). Working with small groups or pairs will increase students' interests and opportunities for participating in lessons (Allen, 1983). In addition, I propose to utilize game-like activities for EFL students to practice vocabulary and to learn the importance of cooperating with others for accurate memory retention. I employ written dialogues and role-plays to broaden students' ability to converse in unfamiliar situations. Acting out parts reinforces vocabulary development (Nation, 1990).

In summary, there are a variety of effective strategies which might help teachers create their curriculum according to students' levels and needs. Teachers are required to interact with students by using group activities with visual aids, game-like activities, and written dialogues and role-plays.
From Competitive and Individualized Learning to Cooperative Learning

As was described in Chapter One, the Japanese curriculum emphasizes competitive examinations and strict percentage-based grading. Japanese students have to study hard for grades and entrance examinations. Students study individually to compete with each other and pass entrance examinations (Goya, 1993). They work against each other to achieve their goals. Teachers instruct students with lessons that whip up competition between students. There is no collaboration in this learning situation. Japanese pedagogy situations often mix individualistic with competitive learning situations, resulting in a negative influence on students.

Cooperative learning may contribute to the Japanese education system because it promotes the learner’s peer interaction and helps the student develop communicative competence. In addition, cooperative learning increases a student’s motivation for developing vocabulary. Students work in small groups to achieve their learning goals together. Students discuss materials in groups or pairs to help one another understand assignments, and encourage each other to achieve their goals. It is a positive interdependence. Cooperatively working together in small groups or pairs accomplishes learning goals and enhances memory traces for vocabulary development. The curriculum involves many group activities such as game-like activities, discussions, role-plays, and so on.

In summary, by encouraging students to generate meaning, by emphasizing sociocultural competence, by promoting self-motivated and self-managed learning, by becoming strategic learners, and by having students work cooperatively, one can hope that
vocabulary retention for EFL students in Japan will be enhanced. Chapter Four demonstrates how units of instruction can incorporate these principles.
CHAPTER FOUR: INTRODUCTION OF LESSON PLANS

The aim of the two instructional units is to illustrate effective strategies based on depth-of-processing theory of vocabulary development for EFL students in Japan. If students deal with words using a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis, they will retain them for a long period. To acquire new words using a deeper degree of analysis, students need to rehearse them for memorization in a more elaborate way. Although most Japanese students use maintenance rehearsal which employs the method of rote memorization, they will need to use deeper rehearsal techniques that associate information with their existing knowledge. The activities for vocabulary development in the teaching units use cooperative learning approaches, visual aids, interactive vocabulary activities, and crosscultural content to enhance retention.

The Rationale for the Design

The units “The American Chef” and “Health” are designed for EFL students in high schools and college in Japan. These two units are developed to solve current pedagogical challenges for vocabulary development. The units involve strategies associated with meaningful learning and deep processing, sociocultural competence, self-motivated and self-managed vocabulary acquisition, use of strategic learning, and cooperative and interactive learning.

Cooking in the United States is popular with both men and women. Many cookbooks are sold in bookstores and many TV cooking shows introduce a wide range of food preparation. These shows allow EFL students to enhance their English skills because they demonstrate the process of cooking certain foods clearly by utilizing visual
Cooking shows provide students an opportunity to develop their listening comprehension skills. Students can also enjoy learning new specialized vocabulary by following recipe directions. This unit features several TV cooking shows that help students develop English listening skills. Visual images and sociocultural content help students enhance vocabulary development.

The depth-of-processing theory can be employed at the initial encoding stage of vocabulary development. Realia and pictures help to gain the attention of students and to support elaborative rehearsal. Visual aids help students understand easily how to say those words in English because knowing the names of objects can tap their existing knowledge in Japanese. At the beginning of a lesson, teachers can demonstrate cooking utensils which students may never have seen. I suggest that teachers bring empty containers such as milk cartons and ice cream containers to show students the difference in the Japanese and American weight measurements. In addition, I used a cooking video as an effective visual aid for developing students’ English listening skills and for teaching new, specialized vocabulary.

I also propose to use demonstration and miming to enhance vocabulary development. For example, in “The American Chef” teachers demonstrate how to set a table. I also suggest use of miming to memorize the cooking verbs.

Utilizing the experience-based approach, I employ essay writing assignments to associate new vocabulary with students’ experience. Students can write about unusual foods or their cooking experience in lessons. This helps them retain new words for a long time. In “The American Chef” students can enjoy writing about self-selected topics to
make their favorite recipes. This assignment encourages students’ self-motivated vocabulary acquisition. In this unit, I exploit crosscultural activities to learn the cultural differences between Japan and the United States. Students have lessons for comparing the difference between taboo foods in Japan and the United States, and they acquire some understanding of the cultural differences between the two countries.

The reason I designed the unit “Health” is that this is a familiar topic, and staying healthy is very important for everybody in daily life. When people get sick, they try to get well as quickly as possible by going to a doctor, buying over-the-counter medicine, or concocting home remedies. When students get sick and go to a doctor, they need to know how to explain their symptoms well in order to obtain good medical treatment. Even though they may not have to see a doctor, they still need to explain their symptoms to a pharmacist to get suitable medicine.

Teachers can also use pictures for introducing words for parts of the body in the unit “Health.” Each arrow indicates a part of body and is numbered. Students can understand easily which part is called what in English by simply looking at the pictures and arrows. Teachers can point to different parts of the body and ask students how to say it in English.

Physical movements can stimulate students to gain attention and concentrate on the activity. Therefore, the game activity, Simon Says works well to cooperate with others through game activities. In addition, I promote to compare the differences about treatments and medicine used for symptoms with others. Students can interact with classmates by discussing the differences and similarities with others. Through the unit
“Health” students can develop speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills while working vocabulary.

Vocabulary is retained better if it is related to other known facts or existing knowledge. Therefore, in the unit “Health” I propose writing assignments for students to tell about their own experience when they get sick. Then they can share these experiences with classmates. Students interact by sharing their experience and retaining new vocabulary. In this way vocabulary stays more permanently in semantic memory for a long period of time.

The Content of the Lesson Plans

Each unit is divided into six lessons. Each lesson contains specific objectives and many activities with which students can enhance vocabulary development without relying on rote memorization too much. Teachers begin with warm-up discussions to involve students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge. Students get a clear idea about what they are supposed to know in each lesson. They interact with others. Verbal/visual input, demonstration, and a variety of learning activities are effective strategies that teachers can apply to help students interact with each other to enhance vocabulary development. Teaching materials include focus sheets, worksheets, homework sheets, and assessment sheets. Also, I suggest that teachers use many pictures and real objects to increase visual impact. Teachers are required to use worksheets and assessment sheets to assess students’ performance. They need to utilize evaluation sheets for students’ evaluation.

In summary, the units, “The American Chef” and “Health” are designed for EFL
students to deal with current pedagogical problems in teaching and learning vocabulary in Japan. In these two units, I propose alternative strategies for vocabulary development such as essay writing using on the experience-based approach, group activities with visual aids, crosscultural lessons, game-like activities, and written dialogues and role-plays, in order to fit the principles which I mentioned in Chapter Three.
CHAPTER FIVE: EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF INSTRUCTION

Because the students' grades are dependent on their performance in a group cooperative setting, measuring individual achievement is problematic. Students will be graded by writing assignments (60%), group cooperation with peers (20%), and test grades (20%). Writing assignments include worksheets, homework sheets, and essay writing. Thus the lessons incorporate systematic assessment.

The purpose of these assessments is to develop vocabulary effectively. The assignments include matching exercises, multiple choices, categorized exercises, fill in the blanks, and scramble exercises. The purpose of these exercises is to evaluate each student's performance and monitor their degree of understanding in the lesson. Teachers can adjust how they can instruct students according to the results of their assignments. In addition, there are some essay writings to assess how students can describe actual scenes and express feelings and thoughts according to their experience and knowledge. By writing essays about their experiences, students can increase vocabulary because new words are connected with their own existing knowledge.

This project uses many cooperative learning approaches which can also be used as assessment. Teachers must lead students to cooperate with each other. They need to assign each student both an individual grade and a group grade. Test grades are followed by standard examinations. Students' performance is evaluated by the scores. However, teachers should monitor how each student cooperates with peers to achieve learning goals because the test scores do not always reflect the student's ability.

In summary, these two units help EFL students develop vocabulary because they
are based on the depth-of-processing theory in cooperative learning situations. Students can enjoy increasing vocabulary with interactive vocabulary activities such as role-plays and physical game-like activities with their teachers and peers. They can achieve their learning goals together without competing against each other.
APPENDIX A:

THE AMERICAN CHEF
UNIT OVERVIEW

Lesson One: Welcome to the American Chef's Kitchen

Objective: To learn the name of kitchen appliances, cooking utensils, and types of containers.

Vocabulary: dishwasher, dish drainer, steamer, can opener, bottle opener, colander, saucepan, frying pan, dish detergent, scouring pad, blender, lid, casserole dish, canister, toaster, roasting pan, dish towel, refrigerator, toaster, ice tray, cabinet, microwave oven, freezer, rolling pin, cutting board, counter, teakettle, burner, stove, coffee maker, oven, broiler, pot holder, grater, pancake turner, funnel, sifter, mixing bowl, spatula/scrapper, strainer, ladle, pie plate, loaf pan, cookie sheet, butcher knife, cup cake pan.

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1 and 1.1.2, WORKSHEET 1.1.3, 1.1.4, 1.1.5, 1.1.6, 1.1.7, 1.1.8 and 1.1.9, and unfamiliar cooking utensils (e.g. rolling pin, grater, sifter, colander, cup cake pan, etc.)

Involving students' backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Bring unfamiliar cooking utensils which students may never have seen before and ask students to guess how those cooking utensils are used.

Ask students the following questions:

3. What is the difference between the American kitchen and the Japanese? (See FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1)

2. Do you have anything which you don't know how to use in FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1)?

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual input: Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1 and 1.1.2, and imitate pronunciation.
Demonstration: Show students the cooking utensils which they may never have seen before as they pronounce the item.

Learning Activity:

1. Pair practice --- Have students look at the illustration of kitchen appliances and cooking utensils, and pronounce them correctly. (See FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1 and 1.1.2)

2. Pair work --- Have students answer the questions individually in WORKSHEET 1.5.1-A while looking at the picture in FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1 and then compare their answers in pairs.

3. Peer review --- Have students work together in pairs to recognize kitchen appliances and utensils orally by using the illustration of FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1. (See WORKSHEET 1.1.5-B)

4. Pair work --- Have students match each kind of container and quantity with the correct term, and pronounce them correctly. (See WORKSHEET 1.1.3 and 1.1.4)

Take-home: Fill out WORKSHEET 1.1.6 and 1.1.7 after the lesson as review.

Assessment

Check test: Have students do ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.1.8 and 1.1.9 independently and then compare their answers with their neighbors.
Lesson Two: Basic Knowledge of Cooking

Objective: To learn cooking verbs and weight measurement

Vocabulary: stir grate open pour peel carve break slice
chop steam broil bake fry boil beat
ounce pound cup pint quart gallon cut

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1 and 1.2.2, WORKSHEET 1.2.3 and 1.2.4, cookbook, measuring cups (Japanese and American), and empty containers

Involving students' backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. Do you use a cookbook or watch a cooking show when you cook? Why or why not?
2. When you cook, do you use a measuring cup or spoon? Why or why not?
3. What kinds of things does a measuring cup measure? (e.g. liquids, dry ingredients, etc)

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual input: Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1 and 1.2.2 and imitate pronunciation.

Demonstration: Bring the empty containers such as a milk carton and an ice cream container to show students how differences in the Japanese and American weight measurement.

Learning Activity:

1. Have students look at the action illustrations for cooking in FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1 and practice the motions corresponding the verbs in pantomime.

2. Pair practice (Charades) --- In pairs, have students ask their partners with motioning of a verb, “What am I doing?” And then, partners guess and answer, “You are ~ing now.” (See FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1)
3. Have students look at the weight measurement in FOCUS SHEET 1.2.2 and pronounce them correctly.

4. Have students work WORKSHEET 1.2.4 independently to answer the questions. And then compare their answers with their neighbors.

**Take-home:** Fill out WORKSHEET 1.2.3 as review.

**Assessment**

**Check test:** Have students look at the action illustrations for cooking and fill in the blanks to explain the actions with cooking utensils. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.2.5)
Lesson Three: Watching a Cooking Show (Main Dish)

Objectives: To develop listening and writing comprehension about cooking procedures.

Vocabulary: squid fry chop lemon anchovies olive oil parsley bread crumbs clove grind

Materials: The video Carlo Cooks Italian, WORKSHEET 1.3.1 and 1.3.2, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.3.3)

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. What do you need to know before you cook?
2. What is the most important thing for you to cook?
3. Should you take notes during the cooking show? Why?
4. Have you ever seen an American cooking show on TV?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Introduce the video by explaining what students need to do. Review how to take notes.

Visual: The cooking show video, Carlo Cooks Italian

Learning Activity:

1. Have students watch the video of the cooking show several times. They need to take a note for the recipe and procedure of the cooking process. Use WORKSHEET 1.3.1 to help students take notes.

2. Pair work--- Students compare notes from the video. They each complete their notes by adding information from their partners.

Take-home: Have students review the procedure of cooking process with WORKSHEET 1.3.2.
Assessment

**Essay writing** --- Have students rewrite the procedure of cooking process in correct order by their own words. (See WORKSHEET 1.3.2, ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.3.3 and EVALUATION SHEET -1-)
Lesson Four: Watching a Cooking Show (Dessert)

Objective: To develop speaking and writing skills about cooking procedures.

Vocabulary: egg yolk granulated whip stiff fold

Materials: The video Carlo Cooks Italian, WORKSHEET 1.4.1 and 1.4.2, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.4.3

Involving students' backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. What kind of desserts do you like?
2. Have you ever cooked desserts before? What are they? How was the taste?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Discuss note-taking experience from Lesson 3. Introduce the video by explaining what students need to do.

Visual: The cooking show video, Carlo Cooks Italian

Learning Activity:

1. Have students watch the video of the cooking show once. Then, erase the sounds, pause it at each scene, and ask them to explain about what the chef is doing.

2. Pair work --- Have students complete the instruction of cooking process in WORKSHEET 1.4.1 after second viewing and compare their answers with partners.

3. Pair work --- Have students answer the questions individually in WORKSHEET 1.4.2 and compare their answers in pairs or small groups.

4. Pair practice --- In pairs, have students ask their partners questions from WORKSHEET 1.4.1 and 1.4.2-B, “What does the chef do before adding the whipped egg white?” And then, partners answer, “Before adding the whipped egg white, the chef should add the
whipped cream.”

Assessment

**Essay writing** --- Have students write the procedure of cooking process in correct order by their own words. (See WORK SHEET 1.4.1, ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.4.3 and EVALUATION SHEET -1-).
Lesson Five: Table Setting and Manners

Objectives: To learn the table setting in the United States
To compare and contrast Japan with the United States in terms of the differences in foods and eating manners

Vocabulary: table cloth, silverware, place mat, taboo, saucer, salt and pepper shakers, fork, intestine, knife, spoon, entree, alligator, utensils, bowl, appetizer, paw, glass, cup, plate, liver, utensils, bowl, cup, liver, snails, tongue

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 1.5.1, WORKSHEET 1.5.2, 1.5.3, 1.5.4, and 1.5.5, ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.5.6 and 1.5.7, silverware, place mat, plate, and napkin

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. What are bad manners for eating in Japan?
2. Do you know how to set the table in Japanese style?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Describe students how to set the table in the United States. Compare and contrast table manners and taboo foods between Japan and the United States.

Demonstrations: Use the real silverware, place mat, plate, and napkin in order to learn the table setting in the United States.

Learning Activity:

1. Pair work--- Have students set the table by using real silverware, place mat, plate, and napkin in pairs. One student gives the partner the location of setting orally, and the partner needs to follow the direction by listening to the partner. (See FOCUS SHEET 1.5.1)

2. Pair work--- In pairs, have students compare and contrast the differences
between Japan and the United States by filling out WORKSHEET 1.5.2 and 1.5.3. And then, have them exchange their ideas with partners.

3. Class discussion --- Have students discuss cross-cultural differences between Japan and the United States about eating etiquette and typical foods in class.

Take-home: Fill out the handouts in advance in order to talk about the topic in class. (See WORKSHEET 1.5.2, 1.5.3, & 1.5.4)

Assessment

Check list --- Have students match the word with each action to review this lesson. (See WORKSHEET 1.5.5)

Essay writing

1. After discussion, students need to write an essay about what is the most unusual food and eating etiquette that they discover for each of them in order to review this lesson. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.5.6 and EVALUATION SHEET -2-)

2. Have students choose one of the good table manners in WORKSHEET 1.5.4. And then, ask them to write why it is important to do so. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.5.7 and EVALUATION SHEET -2-)
Lesson Six: Cooking Time!

Objectives: To read a recipe

Vocabulary: margarine butter vanilla extract flour
baking soda nuts stir cookie sheet

Materials: WORKSHEET 1.6.1 and their favorite recipe

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. Have you ever followed a recipe in English?
2. When you use a recipe, do you follow it exactly? Why or why not?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Have students make sugar nut cookies by following the directions in small groups.

Demonstrations: Show students the location of cooking utensils and ingredients.

Learning Activity:

1. Pair work — In pairs, have students fill in the missing information in the recipe. Have them ask their partners questions to complete their recipe. (See WORKSHEET 1.6.1-A and 1.6.1-B)
   Ex) Student A: How much margarine do you need to make the cookies? Student B: I need one cup.

2. Have students look at the recipe for sugar nut cookies. And then, have them make cookies by following the procedure of cooking process in WORKSHEET 1.6.1.

3. Class discussion — After cooking, students eat their cookies. They need to have their opinions or some comments.

Take-home: Have students write an essay about their cooking experience as review. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.6.2)
Work with a partner at home to translate into English in order to introduce the recipe of their favorite foods in class. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.6.3)

Assessment

1. **Essay writing** --- Have students write an essay about their cooking experience. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.6.2 and EVALUATION -3-)

2. **Writing a recipe** --- Have students write down a recipe of their favorite foods with the process of cooking and make a speech about it in class. After that, teachers can edit students' recipe to make an original cookbook. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.6.3. and EVALUATION -4-)
The American Kitchen

1. dishwasher
2. dish drainer
3. steamer
4. can opener
5. frying pan
6. bottle opener
7. can opener
8. ladle
9. lid
10. dish detergent
11. cleaning pad
12. blender
13. pet
14. casserole dish
15. canister
16. toaster
17. roasting pan
18. glass bowl
19. refrigerator
20. freezer
21. ice tray
22. cabinet
23. microwave oven
24. mixing bowl
25. rolling pin
26. cutting board
27. counter
28. teatowel
29. burner
30. stove
31. teapot
32. oven
33. broiler
34. pot holder

Parnwell, 1989, p. 30
FOCUS SHEET 1.1.2  
Kitchen Utensils

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. grater</th>
<th>2. rolling pin</th>
<th>3. pancake turner</th>
<th>4. funnel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><img src="image1" alt="Grater" /></td>
<td><img src="image2" alt="Rolling pin" /></td>
<td><img src="image3" alt="Pancake turner" /></td>
<td><img src="image4" alt="Funnel" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. sifter</td>
<td>6. mixing bowl</td>
<td>7. frying pan</td>
<td>8. spatula/scraper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td><img src="image6" alt="Mixing bowl" /></td>
<td><img src="image7" alt="Frying pan" /></td>
<td><img src="image8" alt="Spatula/scraper" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. colander</td>
<td>10. strainer</td>
<td>11. ladle</td>
<td>12. butcher knife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td><img src="image10" alt="Strainer" /></td>
<td><img src="image11" alt="Ladle" /></td>
<td><img src="image12" alt="Butcher knife" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. pie plate</td>
<td>14. cup cake pan</td>
<td>15. loaf pan</td>
<td>16. cookie sheet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><img src="image13" alt="Pie plate" /></td>
<td><img src="image14" alt="Cup cake pan" /></td>
<td><img src="image15" alt="Loaf pan" /></td>
<td><img src="image16" alt="Cookie sheet" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cox, 1996.
Match the picture with the word by putting a number on each blank.

stick ___  roll ___  bottle ___
loaf ___  carton ___  jar ___
container ___  can ___  tub ___
package ___  bag ___

WORKSHEET 1.1.4

Containers and Quantities

Match the picture with the word by putting a number on each blank.

slice ___ pump ___ glass ___
box ___ tube ___ book ___
six-pack ___ piece ___ bar ___
bowl ___ pack ___ spray can ___

A. Where’s the Coffee Maker?

♦Look at the picture in FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1.
♦Underline the correct answer.
♦Write the sentence.

1. The coffee maker is on the (ceiling, counter, stove).

2. The rolling pin is on the (shelf, counter, stove).

3. The pots and pans are on the (shelf, counter, wall).

4. The casserole dish is in the (stove, cabinet, refrigerator).

5. The casserole dish is in the (stove, cabinet, refrigerator).

6. The blender is on the (counter, shelf, stove).

7. The dishes are in the (freezer, stove, dishwasher).

8. The ice tray is in the (freezer, cabinet, dishwasher).

B. Peer review

♦Work together in pairs to recognize kitchen appliances and utensils orally by using the illustration of FOCUS SHEET 1.1.1.

Ex) Student A: Where is the dish towel?  
    Student B: It is on the refrigerator.

WORKSHEET 1.1.6
- Cooking Chicken

- What recipe will you use to cook chicken?
- Enter on the chart the necessary items. Then add few more items that are not pictured.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kitchen appliances</th>
<th>Cooking utensils</th>
<th>Cooking ingredients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


- bread crumbs
- butter
- flour
- a frying pan
- oil
- a stove
- salt
- a knife
- a (sauce) pan
- an oven
WORKSHEET 1.1.7
The American Kitchen

What Do You See?

♦ Look at the picture.
♦ Write the word.

1. cutting board
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 
6. 
7. 
8. 
9. 

ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.1.8

Containers and Quantities

What Is It?

◆ Look at the picture.

◆ Write the word on the blank.

jar  bag  loaf  package
can  bar  box  carton

1. a ___________ of potato chips
2. a ___________ of peanut butter
3. a ___________ of crackers
4. a ___________ of hot dogs
5. a ___________ of eggs
6. a ___________ of soap
7. a ___________ of bread
8. a ___________ of tuna

**ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.1.9**

Containers and Quantities

**B. Matching**

- Match the Container and the Item by putting a letter on each blank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Container</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>____ 1.</td>
<td>a tube</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 2.</td>
<td>a six-pack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 3.</td>
<td>a glass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 4.</td>
<td>a slice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 5.</td>
<td>a piece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 6.</td>
<td>a cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>____ 7.</td>
<td>a bowl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Zevin, 1988, p. 15.
FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1

Cooking Verbs

Vocabulary
1. stir
2. grate
3. open
4. pour
5. peel
6. carve
7. break
8. beat
9. cut
10. slice
11. chop
12. steam
13. broil
14. bake
15. fry
16. boil

Parnwell, 1989, p. 31.
**FOCUS SHEET 1.2.2**

**Weight Measurement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8 oz.</th>
<th>8 oz.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>1 lb.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 pint</th>
<th>1 pint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 quart</th>
<th>1 quart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1/2 gallon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- oz. = ounce
- lb. = pound
- c. = cup
- pt. = pint
- qt. = quart
- gal. = gallon

**Liquid Measures**

- 1 cup = 8 ounces
- 1 pint = 2 cups = 16 ounces
- 1 quart = 2 pints = 4 cups = 32 ounces
- 1/2 gallon = 2 quarts = 4 pints = 8 cups = 64 ounces
- 1 gallon = 4 quarts = 8 pints = 16 cups = 128 ounces

- 1 c. = 8 oz.
- 1 pt. = 2 c. = 16 oz.
- 1 qt. = 2 pt. = 4 c. = 32 oz.
- 1/2 gal. = 2 qt. = 4 pt. = 8 c. = 64 oz.
- 1 gal. = 4 qt. = 8 pt. = 16 c. = 128 oz.

Cox, 1996.
How Can You Open a Can?

♦ Review the words about kitchen appliances and cooking utensils.
♦ Look at the pictures in FOCUS SHEET 1.2.1.
♦ Fill in the blanks.
♦ Write the sentences.

1. She ____________ the coffee with a spoon.

2. She ____________ the carrots with a grater.

3. He ____________ the turkey with a ________________.

4. He ____________ the can with a ________________.

5. She ____________ the eggs with an egg beater.

6. She ____________ the onions with a ________________.

7. She ____________ the milk in the ________________.

Zevin, 1988, p. 41.
WORKSHEET 1.2.4

Liquid Measures

Which holds more? Circle the correct answer.

A) 3 quarts or 1 gallon
B) 1 cup or 1 pint
C) 3 pints or 2 quarts

Write in the correct amount.

G) 2 cups = ___ pint
H) ___ pints = 1 quart
I) ___ quarts = 1 gallon
J) 2 pints = ___ quart
K) ___ cups = 1 pint
L) 4 quarts = ___ gallon

Cox, 1996.
ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.2.5

Cooking Verbs

Look at the action illustrations for cooking and fill in the blanks to explain the actions with cooking utensils.

1. She ________ the coffee with a spoon.
2. She ________ the potato with a ________.
3. He ________ the onion with a ________ on the ________.
4. She ________ the tea in the ________.
5. He ________ the onion with a ________ on the ________.
6. He ________ the carrots with a ________.

Take a note during watching the video and fill in the blanks with words below.

**Vocabulary:**
- take
- medium
- remove
- 1 ½
- 1
- 15
  - fry
  - parsley
  - egg
  - fillings
  - toothpick
  - anchovies
  - 1/3
  - cloves
  - mix
  - stick
  - casserole
  - cutting
  - 375
  - chop
  - bowl

1. Turn oven to ____ degrees.
2. Peel out the skins of 18 ______ squids and ______ out the arms from their bodies, and ______ the cuttle bone and inside of bodies.
3. ______ squids’ arms about ___ to ___ minutes with 1 juice of lemon into ______.
4. Take out the squids from the pan and _____ them out on a _______ board.
5. ______ out ___ whole salted ________.
6. Put chopped squids and anchovies into a ________.
7. Add _____ cup bread crumbs, _____ cup chopped _________, 2 large _______ chopped garlic, a bit of ____ salt, 5 or 6 _______ fresh black pepper, and 1 large ____.
8. _____ it all together well.
9. Fill the _______ into the bodies of squids.
10. ______ the arms and bodies with ________.
11. Put the squids into a ______________ pan and sprinkle salt and pepper to taste.
12. Brush extra virgin oil on them.
13. Bake about ___ minutes.

WORKSHEET 1.3.2

Main Dish

Stuffed Squid

Circle the verbs and put the instructions in order.

1. Turn oven to 375 degrees.
2. Chop out 3 whole salted anchovies.
3. Mix it all together well.
4. Take out the squids from the pan and chop them out on a cutting board.
5. Add 1/3 cup bread crumbs, 1/3 cup chopped parsley, 2 large cloves chopped garlic, a bit of sea salt, 5 or 6 grindings fresh black pepper, and 1 large egg.
6. Peel out the skins of 18 medium squids and take out the arms from their bodies, and remove the cuttle bone and inside of the bodies.
7. Put chopped squids and anchovies into a bowl.
8. Brush extra virgin oil on them.
9. Stick the arms and bodies with toothpick.
10. Fry squids’ arms about 1 to 1 ½ minutes with 1 juice of lemon into pan.
11. Fill the fillings into the bodies of squids.
12. Put the squids into a casserole pan and sprinkle salt and pepper to taste.
13. Bake about 15 minutes.

Using WORKSHEET 1.3.2, write the procedure of cooking process in today’s cooking show in a paragraph using the correct procedure order, verb tenses, and vocabulary by your own words.
Dessert

Strawberry Semifreddo

Recipe:

| 4 large egg yolks     |
| ½ cup granulated sugar |
| 3 large egg whites    |
| 1 cup heavy whipping cream |
| ½ basket of strawberries (2 cups) |

Circle the verbs and put the instructions in order.

1. Chop strawberries in small pieces.

2. Take part of the whipped cream and add it into the bowl.

3. Mix the mixtures with strawberries together.

4. Add the rest of the whipped cream into the bowl.

5. Put the mixtures into small cups.

6. Mix all together.

7. Take these mixtures and put into the refrigerator.

8. Mix egg yolks and sugar together until it becomes creamy.

9. Whip cream until it gets stiff.

10. Take the mixtures from the refrigerator and add whipped egg whites in the bowl.

11. Whip egg whites.

12. Put small cups into the refrigerator.

WORKSHEET 1.4.2

Dessert

A) Answer the following questions.

1. Why did the chef whip the cream until it got stiff?

2. What did the chef call the technique that dig the cream and turn it around with 12 strokes?

3. Why did the chef suggest putting the mixtures into the refrigerator before he whipped egg whites?

B) Make a sentence with using conjunction words.

Ex) When Tom called me, I was talking to my friend outside of my house.

1. Before ________________________________, the chef should ____________________________.

2. After ________________________________, the chef should ____________________________.

3. During ________________________________, the chef should ____________________________.

Dessert

Strawberry Semifreddo

Recipe:

| 4 large egg yolks          |
| ½ cup granulated sugar    |
| 3 large egg whites         |
| 1 cup heavy whipping cream |
| ½ basket of strawberries (2 cups) |

Using WORKSHEET 1.4.1, write the procedure of cooking process in today's cooking show in a paragraph using the correct procedure order, verb tenses, and vocabulary by your own words.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

FOCUS SHEET 1.5.1

Table Setting

Vocabulary

1. table cloth  
2. silverware  
3. place mat  
4. bowl  
5. plate  
6. glass  
7. cup  
8. saucer  
9. salt and pepper shakers  
10. napkin  
11. fork  
12. knife  
13. spoon  

**WORKSHEET 1.5.2**

**Food Taboos**

Fill in the chart below and then share your answers with your classmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are some foods that are...</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>The United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Taboo foods?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Not taboo but not often eaten?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Popular main dishes?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Popular desserts?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Popular snacks?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Popular breakfast foods?</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Foods:**
- dog meat
- horse meat
- snails
- raw fish
- alligator
- hot dogs
- milk
- pizza
- sheep’s eye
- Raw tomato
- frog’s legs
- bear’s paw
- calf’s liver
- animal intestine
- oyster
- beef
- brains
- ants
- beef tongue
- snake
- pork

**WORKSHEET 1.5.3**

**Table Manners**

Fill in the chart below and then share your answers with your partner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In a restaurant...</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>The United States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What foods can be eaten with fingers?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What utensils do people use?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do people express appreciation for the meal? (Sounds? Words?)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What words do people say to make a toast?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are taboo manners in your culture?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do people ever split the check?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vocabulary**

make a toast— To drink and wish out loud for success and happiness

utensils— a tool or implement, esp. for eating

taboo— a forbidden act

split the check— To divide the bill equally among the people eating, or each person

Dresser, 1993, p. 36.
Words in context
Read the following passage and do the exercises.

Before John and Susie Barker went to visit their grandmother, their mother told them that their grandmother thought children should have good table manners. So she wrote out this list of instructions.

Exercise 1
Look at these pictures and write down the number of the rule that has been broken.

1. Do not put your arms and elbows on the table while you are eating.
2. Use your knife to cut your food. Put the food into your mouth with your fork.
3. Chew your food very slowly. Keep your mouth closed while you are chewing. Never talk while you have food in your mouth.
4. Do not put too much food in your mouth at one time. Take small bites only.
5. Drink slowly from your glass or cup. When you drink, fill your cup with the liquid and put it down on the saucer. Always drink a large mug of tea or coffee.
6. When you eat soup, move the spoon away from your mouth. Eat your soup quietly.
7. While you are eating, your napkin should be folded in your lap. When you finish eating, place your napkin on your mouth and your plate on the table. Put your knife and fork on the tablecloth.
8. When you are drinking from a straw, do not make a loud noise when you reach the end of your drink.
9. Never lick your knife. You might cut your tongue. And never bite your plate!

Worksheet 1.5.5

Table Setting

Match each action on the left with the right noun on the right.

1. You take a bite with __________ A) a spoon.
2. You lick with __________ B) a saucer.
3. You eat soup with a __________ C) a mug.
4. You cover your lap with __________ D) your plate.
5. You cover the table with __________ E) your front teeth.
6. You place a cup on __________ F) your back teeth.
7. You drink through __________ G) a bowl.
8. You cut your food with __________ H) a napkin.
9. You put your knife and fork together on __________ I) a knife.
10. You drink hot chocolate out of __________ J) a tablecloth
11. You put your breakfast cereal in __________ K) your tongue.
12. You chew with __________ L) a straw.

1. Write an essay in the first person about the most unusual food and eating etiquette for you. Use three paragraphs to describe where you have seen or used the eating etiquette, and seen or eaten the unusual food.
2. In the first paragraph, choose one of the good manners in WORKSHEET 1.5.4 and rewrite it in your own words. And in second paragraph, write the reason why it is so important for you.
WORKSHEET 1.6.1-A

Read a Recipe

Sugar Nut Cookies

Work with your partner to fill in the missing information in the recipe.

EXERCISE

First read the recipe card above. Then put these illustrations in the correct order.

1.  
2.  
3.  
4.  
5.  
6.  

1. sugar  
2. eggs  
3. vanilla extract  
4. flour  
5. baking soda  
6. Anything else?

WORKSHEET 1.6.1-B

Read a Recipe

Sugar Nut Cookies

Work with your partner to fill in the missing information in the recipe.

EXERCISE

First read the recipe card above. Then put these illustrations in the correct order:

1. __ 2. __ 3. __ 4. __ 5. __ 6. __

1. sugar
2. eggs
3. vanilla extract
4. flour
5. baking soda
6. Anything else?

ASSESSMENT SHEET 1.6.2

1. Using three paragraphs, write an essay in the first person about today’s cooking experience. What is the most difficult part of making cookies? What is the easiest part of making cookies? What part did you take charge of cooking? Tell me more about your comments or opinions.
2. Write down a recipe of your favorite foods with the process of cooking.

Title: _______________________________

Ingredients

Illustration

Procedure

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________

________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX B:

HEALTH
UNIT OVERVIEW

Lesson One: The Body

Objective: To learn the names of the parts of the body.

Vocabulary: head, neck, finger, toe, eyes, arm, chest, side, ear, shoulder, leg, back, mouth, elbow, knee, tooth (teeth), nose, wrist, ankle, foot (feet), hand, stand up, sit down, nod, shake, raise, touch, put, bend

Materials: WORKSHEET 2.1.1-A, 2.1.1-B, 2.1.2, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.1.3.

Involving students' backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. Which parts of body can you say in English?
2. If you could change one part of your body, what would you change?

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual input: Have students look at the WORKSHEET 2.1.1-A and 2.1.1-B and imitate pronunciation while touching their part of body.

Demonstration: Point to different parts of the body and ask students, "What is this?"

Learning Activity:

1. Class game "Simon Says"— Have all students stand. Explain that students must follow commands only when a leader first says "Simon says." Demonstrate by giving a command (e.g. Simon says shake your right hand) and by following the command when the leader says it. Then repeat the command without the "Simon says," and without following it. When the students follow the command without "Simon says," or they cannot follow the commands accurately, they have to be out of the circle or sit down.
Have the last remaining student (the winner) be the next leader.

2. Pair practice— In pairs, have students ask their partners some 20 possible yes/no questions (e.g. Is it part of the face? Is it part of a leg?). When the partners guess the correct words, have students change their role.

**Take-home:** Fill out WORKSHEET 2.1.2 after the lesson as review.

**Assessment**

**Check test:** Have students do ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.1.3 independently and then compare their answers with their neighbors.
Lesson Two: What’s the Problem?

Objective: To integrate new vocabulary into the context of students’ experiences.

Vocabulary:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symptom</th>
<th>Allergy</th>
<th>Fever</th>
<th>Nauseous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>toothache</td>
<td>chills</td>
<td>vomiting</td>
<td>nausea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>backache</td>
<td>flu</td>
<td>sneeze</td>
<td>runny nose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cough</td>
<td>headache</td>
<td>sore throat</td>
<td>sleeplessness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dizzy</td>
<td>indigestion</td>
<td>stiff neck</td>
<td>numb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>earache</td>
<td>laryngitis</td>
<td>stomachache</td>
<td>unconscious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pain</td>
<td>diarrhea</td>
<td>constipation</td>
<td>redness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sore</td>
<td>swelling</td>
<td>rash</td>
<td>hoarse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sweating</td>
<td>nervous</td>
<td>sprain</td>
<td>pale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flushed</td>
<td>cramps</td>
<td>cut, gash</td>
<td>numb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abrasion</td>
<td>sting</td>
<td>bruise</td>
<td>stuffy head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tingle</td>
<td>concussion</td>
<td>splinter</td>
<td>avoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>expose</td>
<td>ease</td>
<td>catch</td>
<td>infect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get over</td>
<td>virus</td>
<td>spread</td>
<td>cure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 2.2.2-A, 2.2.2-B, and WORKSHEET 2.2.1, 2.2.3, 2.2.4, 2.2.5 and 2.2.6, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.2.7.

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. How many of you ever get sick? With what?
2. What do you do to feel better?
3. How many of you ever take aspirin?
4. Do you like to take medicine when you get sick? Why or why not?

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual inputs: Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 2.2.1 and imitate pronunciation.

Explain (or mime) the words of the each person’s symptom in WORKSHEET 2.2.1.
Learning Activity:

1. Pair work--- Have students look at the illustrations in WORKSHEET 2.2.1 and think about the each person’s symptom in pairs.

2. Group activity--- Have students look at the symptoms in FOCUS SHEET 2.2.2-A and 2.2.2-B and practice the motions corresponding to the symptoms in pantomime. Then divide class into groups of four or five students. Have each group choose one students to mime one of the illness/injuries in FOCUS SHEET 2.2.2-A and 2.2.2-B. Whoever guesses first in each group will go next.

3. Pair practice--- Have students ask their partners, “What’s the problem?” And then, partners answer, “I have a headache.” When they finish it, have students change their parts and practice it with each other. (See WORKSHEET 2.2.3)

4. Pair work--- Have students read the reading article independently and then work together in pairs to answer the questions in WORKSHEET 2.2.4.

5. Class discussion--- Have students discuss the differences about treatments and medicine used for symptoms in WORKSHEET 2.2.6 in class.

Take-home: Have students circle the correct answers in WORKSHEET 2.2.5 as review.

Have students fill out WORKSHEET 2.2.6 for the class discussion.

Assessment:

Check test: Have students do ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.2.7 independently and then compare their answers with their neighbors.

Have students submit WORKSHEET 2.2.5.
Lesson Three: Going to a doctor

Objective: To figure out to which doctor students should go according to their symptoms. To learn making an appointment to see a doctor. To fill out an information form at the doctor’s office.

Vocabulary: allergy, cardiology, dermatology, ear, nose & throat, general practice, internal medicine, family practice, neurology, obstetrics/gynecology, oncology, ophthalmology, pediatrics, psychiatry, pulmonology, radiology, pulse.

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 2.3.2, 2.3.3, and WORKSHEET 2.3.1, 2.3.4, 2.3.5, 2.3.6, and 2.3.7.

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. Where or how do you find doctors?
2. Do you ever use a telephone directory to find a doctor?
3. What kinds of doctors can you find in the directories? Write it down on the notebook.

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual input: Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 2.3.2 and imitate pronunciation with explaining medical terms.

Learning Activity:

1. Group decision--- Have students look at WORKSHEET 2.3.1 and FOCUS SHEET 2.3.2 and list the possible physicians to visit for each of the health problems in small groups.

2. Role play--- Have students work together with partners to make a doctor’s appointment. One partner is the patient. The other is the secretary of the doctor’s answering service. (See FOCUS SHEET 2.3.3)
3. Have students complete sentences in WORKSHEET 2.3.5.

4. Pair work--- Have students fill out the patient information form independently. Then have students decide who will be the doctor and who will be the patient. The student who is the patient will use the patient information form for this role play. (See WORKSHEET 2.3.7)

Take-home: Have students solve the crossword puzzle about medical specialists. (See WORKSHEET 2.3.4)

Have students explain the illustrations at the doctor’s office in WORKSHEET 2.3.6.

Assessment

Check test: Have students submit WORKSHEET 2.3.7 to evaluate the understanding in this lesson.
Lesson Four: Hospital

Objective: To know where you should go in a hospital. To understand hospital signs.

Vocabulary: blood transfusion, broken leg, coma, get well card, hospital card, information desk, intravenous (IV), nurse’s station, intensive care unit (ICU), orderly, semi-private, patient, unconscious, visitor, operating room, private, main entrance, waiting room, maternity, emergency, admitting, gift shop, cafeteria, corridor, outpatients.

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 2.4.1, WORKSHEET 2.4.2, 2.4.3, 2.4.4, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.4.5.

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. Why do people go to the hospital?

2. Have you ever stayed overnight in a hospital? How many days did you stay?

3. Have you ever visited anyone in the hospital? Tell the class about the situation if you don’t mind.

Teaching with variety

Verbal/visual input: Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 2.4.1 and imitate pronunciation.

Learning Activity:

1. Group work—Have students work in small groups of five. Write a story about the hospital scene in FOCUS SHEET 2.4.1. Everyone should contribute at least two sentences. Then put all sentences together and read the story in class.

2. Pair work—Have students do WORKSHEET 2.4.2 independently.
and then compare their answers with their partners.

3. **Group discussion**— Have students do WORKSHEET 2.4.3 independently and then compare their answers with their groups. Then share the answers in class.

4. **Role play**— Have students create role plays to ask for and give directions for each of the situation in WORKSHEET 2.4.4. Then have present their dialogue in class.

**Take-home:** Have students write an essay about their hospital experience. If students do not seem willing to tell their hospital experience, have them write the teacher a get well card instead. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.4.5)

**Assessment**

**Essay writing:** Have students write an essay about their hospital experience, but be careful with this essay because they may be too personal for some students. Therefore, have them choose the topic to write an essay instead of their experience. (See ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.4.5 and EVALUATION SHEET -5-)
Lesson Five: Going to a drugstore

Objective:  
To read drug labels.
To explain the pharmacist about students’ symptoms.

Vocabulary: 
- over-the-counter drug
- prescription
- dosage
- overdose
- abrasions
- persist
- discontinue
- external
- antiseptic
- decongestant

Materials: 
FOCUS SHEET 2.5.1, 2.5.3, 2.5.5 and WORKSHEET 2.5.2, 2.5.4, 2.5.6, and ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.5.7.

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. What drugstore do you go to?
2. What over-the-counter medicines do you have at home?
3. Do you need a prescription for medicine in Japan?
4. Are you allergic to anything?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Have students read the directions for using medicine and understand the usage of it.

Visual input: Have students look at the real coupons about medicines.

Learning Activity:

1. Pair work—- Have students look at FOCUS SHEET 2.5.1 and answer the questions in WORKSHEET 2.5.2. Then compare their answers with partners.

2. Pair practice—- In pairs, have students practice the dialogue between a pharmacist and a patient in FOCUS SHEET 2.5.3.

3. Group decision—- Have students work in small groups to organize which products they should choose for getting over the symptoms in
WORKSHEET 2.5.4. (See FOCUS SHEET 2.5.5)

**Take-home:** Have students do WORK SHEET 2.5.6 independently and then compare their answers with their neighbors. Also, have students write a conversation between a pharmacist and a customer, order a prescription, and present their dialogue to the class with partners.

**Assessment**

**Essay writing:** Have students write an essay about their home remedies by choosing one of the problems such as the common cold, hiccups, sunburn, bee sting, sore throat, and so on in ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.5.7 and EVALUATION SHEET -5-.
Lesson Six: Staying healthy

Objective: To think about what students should do to stay healthy.
To understand the main idea through reading newspaper articles.

Vocabulary: AID test, blood pressure, blood test, check up, cholesterol check, blood test, eye examination, height, measure, needle (syringe), pregnancy check up, urine sample, vaccination, weigh, weight, nutritious, mammogram, raspy, flu, para-influenza, rhinovirus, entervirus, wallop, copycat, ailments, unisance, pneumonia, vaccine, infection, hacking, fatigue.

Materials: FOCUS SHEET 2.6.4, 2.6.5 and WORKSHEET 2.6.1, 2.6.2, 2.6.3 and ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.6.6.

Involving students’ backgrounds, interests, and prior knowledge (warm up)

Ask students the following questions:

1. What do you do to stay healthy?
2. How many hours of sleep do you need to be healthy?

Teaching with variety

Verbal input: Without using a dictionary, students need to recognize or guess the meaning of words from contexts of the passages.

Learning Activity:

1. Group activity--- Have students work in small groups of four or five. Then have them contribute at least one answer to each question in WORKSHEET 2.6.1.
2. Pair work--- Have students discuss what is happening in the pictures in WORKSHEET 2.6.2 and then fill out the words below the each picture.
3. Pair work--- Have students work in pairs to think about the definition of a mammogram without looking at a dictionary. Also, talk about whether
each statement in WORKSHEET 2.6.3 is true or false. Think about why these answers are true or false.

4. Group decision---Have students work in small groups to think of the best time for having a flu shot after reading a news article in FOCUS SHEET 2.6.4.

Take-home: Have students read the newspaper article and highlight the information which is important in FOCUS SHEET 2.6.5. Then summarize the article in a paragraph.

Assessment

Essay writing: Have students write about three things what they do to stay healthy in ASSESSMENT SHEET 2.6.6 and EVALUATION SHEET -6-.
WORKSHEET 2.1.1-A

The Names of the Parts of the Body

Fill in the blanks to tell the names of the parts of the body by using the vocabulary list below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>head</th>
<th>neck</th>
<th>finger</th>
<th>toe</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eyes</td>
<td>arm</td>
<td>chest</td>
<td>side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ear</td>
<td>shoulder</td>
<td>leg</td>
<td>back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mouth</td>
<td>elbow</td>
<td>knee</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nose</td>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>ankle</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tooth (teeth)</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>foot (feet)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Foley & Pomann, 1992, p. 56.
WORKSHEET 2.1.1-B

The Names of the Parts of the Body

Fill in the blanks to tell the names of the parts of the body by using the vocabulary list below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>hair</th>
<th>forehead</th>
<th>eyebrow</th>
<th>eyelashes</th>
<th>eye</th>
<th>little finger</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cheek</td>
<td>nose</td>
<td>lips</td>
<td>teeth</td>
<td>chin</td>
<td>index finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>head</td>
<td>fingernails</td>
<td>fingers</td>
<td>thumb</td>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>ring finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand</td>
<td>neck</td>
<td>ear</td>
<td>ankle</td>
<td>heel</td>
<td>middle finger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>toes</td>
<td>foot</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cox, 1996.
WORKSHEET 2.1.2

The Body

Point the names of the parts of the body with arrows and numbers.

vocabulary

1. ankle  8. chin  15. forehead
2. arm  9. ear  16. hand
3. back 10. elbow  17. head
4. buttock 11. eye  18. heel
5. calf  12. face  19. hip
6. cheek 13. finger  20. jaw
7. chest 14. fingernail  21. knee
22. leg  29. thigh
23. lip  30. thumb
24. mouth  31. toe
25. neck  32. tooth
26. nose  33. waist
27. shin  34. wrist
28. shoulder

Write

Fill in this crossword puzzle. • Check your answers with your partner.

ACROSS

10.  

14.  

1.  

6.  

11.  

15.  

2.  

7.  

12.  

16.  

3.  

8.  

13.  

17.  

4.  

9.  

WORKSHEET 2.2.1

Getting Sick

What is wrong with these people? Tell the each person’s symptom below each illustration.

vocabulary

1. allergy  5. earache  9. indigestion  13. sore throat
2. backache  6. fever  10. laryngitis  14. stiff neck
3. cough  7. flu  11. nauseous  15. stomachache
4. dizzy  8. headache  12. sneeze  16. toothache

FOCUS SHEET 2.2.2-A

Symptom Definitions

1. temperature: a degree of heat or coldness.
2. fever: body temperature that is higher than usual.
3. chills: feeling cold.
4. vomiting: throwing up what has been eaten.
5. nausea: a feeling that you are about to vomit. (nauseous)
6. pain: something that hurts.
7. ache: a continuous pain.
8. diarrhea: too many and too loose movements of the bowels.
9. constipation: inactivity of the bowels. (constipated)
10. redness: the skin is unusually red.
11. sore: the skin hurts when it is touched. Also, it can be a place where the skin has been broken.
12. swelling: when an area underneath the skin becomes larger. (swollen)
13. rash: the skin is red, or blotchy-looking (red and white), and itches.
14. runny nose: mucus comes out of your nose.
15. sore throat: your throat hurts.
16. hoarse: your voice does not sound right.
17. sweating: your skin is moist.
18. nervous: you cannot rest, you feel agitated.
19. sprain: twisting a joint.
20. stiff: does not move easily, not flexible.
21. pale: the face is whiter than usual.
22. flushed: the face is redder than usual.
23. dizzy: you feel unbalanced, you need to sit down.

Cox, 1996.
FOCUS SHEET 2.2.2-B

Symptom Definitions

24. indigestion: the stomach cannot digest the food as usual.
25. sleeplessness: cannot sleep.
27. cut, gash: deep cut.
28. numb: no sensation, no feeling
29. unconscious: not conscious.
30. abrasion: scraped skin, skinned knee.
31. sting: an insect (bee, wasp) bite.
32. bruise: black and blue mark from a bump.
33. stuffy head: congestion.
34. tingle: feels like ants are crawling on your skin.
35. concussion: damage the brain by hitting the head.
36. splinter: a small piece of wood gets under your skin.
37. coughing:

38. sneezing:

Cox, 1996.
WORKSHEET 2.2.3

Practice this model with the problems below with partners.

A: What's the problem?
B: I have ___ a headache ___.

1. a headache 2. a stomachache 3. a toothache 4. a backache 5. an earache

Practice this model with the problems below with partners.

A: What's the matter?
B: He has ___ a cough ___.

A: What's the matter?
B: He has ___ a fever ___.

1. a cough 2. a fever 3. a cold 4. a rash 5. a sore throat

Foley & Pomann, 1992, p. 54.
Read the article about colds.

The Cold Facts

Winter is coming. It's time again for coughing and sneezing. You can't avoid colds completely. But by knowing more about how they're caught and spread, you can make your winter healthier. Here's a quiz to test your cold knowledge.

5 To avoid colds, stay inside as much as possible during cold weather.

False. Cold weather does not cause colds—but viruses do. There are more than 100 different cold viruses. Children are more likely than adults to catch colds because they are exposed to more cold viruses in school.

When you sneeze, cover your nose and mouth with your hand.

False. This usually helps spread colds. When you sneeze, cold viruses are carried through the air and can infect other people around you. Colds may also be spread by indirect contact. A person who sneezes covers his mouth, touches an object (such as a glass or telephone), another person handles the object and then touches her mouth, nose, or eyes.

It's better to sneeze into a tissue and then throw the tissue away. If you don't have a tissue, sneeze into your sleeve, or turn your head toward the floor. Then wash your hands.

Chicken soup helps you feel better when you have a cold.

True. Studies have shown that hot drinks can relieve a stuffy nose. Liquids can also help relieve a dry throat, and aspirin will temporarily ease headaches and other aches and pains.

Although these methods often relieve cold symptoms, you won't get over a cold faster. Your body's natural defenses, along with time and rest, are the only known cure, but you can help prevent colds by eating lots of fruits and vegetables.

The following statements were made by worried parents. Check (✓) the statements that are correct.

1. "It's cold outside. If you go out, you'll catch a cold." □
2. "You're worried about your daughter catching a cold? Well, if a lot of children at her school have a cold, maybe she should stay at home." □
3. "You used your tissue only once. Keep it in your pocket and use it again." □
4. "You don't have a tissue? Well, cover your nose and mouth and sneeze with your head toward the floor." □
5. "Your sore throat will feel better if you have this soup." □
6. "Your cold will go away faster if you take some aspirin." □

Eckstut & Sorensen, 1992, p. 46-47.
Look at the words in *italics* in the sentences below. Circle the correct answers.

1. You can *avoid* getting fat if you don’t eat too much and you exercise often.
   A. do something about.
   B. keep away from.

2. If you *catch* a cold on Monday, you will still have the cold on Tuesday.
   A. get.
   B. have.

3. The illness *spread* throughout the town. Many people became ill.
   A. leave an area.
   B. move over an area.

4. You may get the *virus* if you are with people who already have it.
   A. goes from one person’s body to another and causes illness.
   B. cannot be seen but may live on food or dirt.

5. Children are *exposed* to more cold viruses in a classroom than they are at home.
   A. unprotected from.
   B. safe from.

6. If one child at school has the illness, she can *infect* many other children.
   A. put disease into the body of someone.
   B. touch someone.

7. Take some aspirin. It will help to *ease* the pain.
   A. worse.
   B. less.

8. A sore throat and a runny nose are *symptoms* of a cold.
   A. sign that you have an illness.
   B. sign that you are getting better.

9. When you *get over* a cold, you feel fine.
   A. become ill again after an illness.
   B. become healthy again after an illness.

10. There is no *cure* for the disease yet, but scientists are looking for one. However, a doctor can give you something to help you feel a little better.
    A. a way of making someone healthy when they are ill.
    B. medicine to give someone when they are ill.

WORKSHEET 2.2.6

Filling the chart below, and then share your answers with your classmates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In your family, what kinds of treatments or medicine are used for the following:</th>
<th>treatments or medicine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fever?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Catching cold?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cough?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diarrhea?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itching?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Back pain?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toothache?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burns?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using these words, write the correct word for each explanation.

- chills
- ache
- dizzy
- hoarse
- flushed
- nausea
- sore
- rash
- diarrhea
- fever
- runny nose
- swelling
- weak
- pale
- sneezing
- sweating

1. Your voice does not sound right. _________________
2. A continuous pain. _________________
3. A feeling that you are about to vomit. _________________
4. Your skin is red and itches. _________________
5. Body temperature that is higher than normal. _________________
6. The face is whiter than usual. _________________
7. Feeling cold. _________________
8. When an area underneath the skin becomes larger. _________________
9. The face is redder than usual. _________________
10. You feel unbalanced, you need to sit down. _________________
11. Too many and too loose movements of the bowels. _________________
12. Mucus comes out of your nose. _________________
13. You don’t have any strength. _________________
14. A place where the skin has been broken. _________________
15. Achoo! _________________
16. Your skin is moist. _________________

Cox, 1996.
WORKSHEET 2.3.1

1. You have rash and your skin is itchy.  
2. You get headaches when you read.  
3. You think you are pregnant.  
4. You sneeze a lot when you are outdoors.  
5. Your baby has a fever and won’t eat.  
6. You need a medical check-up as a requirement for your health insurance.

Carver & Fotinos, 1995, p. 156.

152
FOCUS SHEET 2.3.2

Medical Specialists

1. cardiologist: a doctor who treats or studies the heart and its disease

2. dentist: a person who qualifies in dentistry

3. dermatologist: a doctor who deals with disorders and diseases of the skin

4. neurologist: a doctor who specializes nervous system and its disorders

5. ophthalmologist: a person who specializes in diseases of the human eye

6. orthopedist: a person who specializes in the correction and prevention of injuries in bones

7. pediatrician: a doctor who treats children

8. psychiatrist: a doctor who cures mental diseases

9. radiologist: a doctor who uses X-rays to analyze and treat illnesses

10. surgeon: a doctor who performs surgery

11. urologist: a doctor who treats urinary organs

12. obstetrician/gynecologist: a doctor who deals with pregnancy and childbirth

Cox, 1996.
Do You Want to Make an Appointment?

A. Doctor’s Office.
B. Hello. This is John Stevens. I’m not feeling very well.

A. What’s the problem?
B. My right foot hurts very badly.

A. I see. Do you want to make an appointment?
B. Yes, please.

A. Can you come in tomorrow morning at 9:15?
B. Tomorrow morning at 9:15? Yes. That’s fine. Thank you.

1. Karen Fuller isn’t feeling very well.
2. Sally Wilson’s son isn’t feeling very well.
3. Mr. Beck’s daughter isn’t feeling very well.
4. Ms. Wong isn’t feeling very well.
5. Charlie Green’s parrot, Willy, isn’t feeling very well.

* 9:15 = nine fifteen
† 11:45 = eleven forty-five

Molinsky & Bliss, 1988, p. 52.
WORKSHEET 2.3.4

Solve this crossword puzzle about medical specialists with words from the list below.

- cardiologist
- dentist
- dermatologist
- neurologist
- ophthalmologist
- orthopedist
- pediatrician
- psychiatrist
- radiologist
- surgeon
- urologist
- obstetrician

Across
2. If your baby is sick, call a(n) ...
7. If you break your arm
9. If you have to have your appendix removed
10. If you have a heart attack
11. If you have a rash
12. If you're going to have a baby

Down
1. If you are having trouble seeing, call a(n) ...
2. If you need X-rays
4. If you have headaches
5. If you have a toothache
6. If you have trouble urinating
8. If you have emotional problems

Dresser, 1995, p. 22.
WORKSHEET 2.3.5

At the Doctor's Office

Directions: Choose one of the sentences below to write under each picture.

The doctor takes your temperature.
She looks at your tongue.
She looks at your throat.
She looks in your ears.
She listens to your heart.
She takes your pulse.
She looks at your eyes.

1. 
2. 
3. 

4. 
5. 
6. 

7. 

WORKSHEET 2.3.6

At the Doctor's Office

Look at each picture below and explain the each scene clearly.

Action English pictures, 1985, p. 22.
# WORKSHEET 2.3.7

Patient Information Form

Fill out this form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Mo</th>
<th>Day</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Name:** ____________________________  **Age:** ____________  **Sex:** ____________  **Date:** ____________  **Mo**  **Day**  **Year**  **Sex:** ____________  **Address:** ____________________________  **Birthdate:** ____________  **Insurance:** YES: ______ NO: ______  **Phone number:** (_____ ) ____________________________  **Name of Insurer:** ____________________________  **Medical Problem:** ____________________________  **(describe)** ____________________________  **How long have you had this problem?:** ____________________________  **Is it the result of an accident? YES: ______ NO: ______**  **(Describe the accident)** ____________________________  **Do you have a fever?: YES: ______ NO: ______**  **Do you have pain?: YES: ______ NO: ______**  **Where?:** ____________________________

FOCUS SHEET 2.4.1

Hospital

Look at the illustration at a hospital. Then write a story about the hospital scene. Work in small groups and combine each person’s sentence to make a story.

1. blood transfusion 7. intensive care unit (ICU) 13. semi-private
2. broken leg 8. intravenous (IV) 14. unconscious
3. coma 9. nurse’s station 15. visiting hours
4. get well card 10. orderly 16. visitor
5. hospital bed 11. patient
6. information desk 12. private

WORKSHEET 2.4.2

Hospital

Decide which sign to follow.

1. You want to buy a gift for your friend. ________________________
2. You are hungry and want to get some lunch after your visit. ________________________
3. You need to get a chest x-ray. ________________________
4. Your sister is having a baby and you need a place to wait. ________________________
5. You have to have a blood test. ________________________

WORKSHEET 2.4.3

Hospital

Match the statements below with what they identify in the picture. Find the number or numbers in the picture that go with each statement. Write the numbers on the line next to the statement.

(Note: Some statements may be matched with more than one person, and a person may be matched with more than one statement.)

_______ a. They are injured.  _______ e. She is filling out forms.
_______ b. She is pregnant.  _______ f. She is being measured.
_______ c. They are busy.  _______ g. She is answering the phone.
_______ d. They are at work.  _______ h. It means "no smoking."

Look again pictures, 1984, p. 40.
WORKSHEET 2.4.4

Hospital

Create role plays to ask for and give directions for each of the situations.

Here is a model conversation.

(A) Excuse me, I'm looking for the gift shop. Could you tell me how to get there?

(B) Sure. Go to the end of this corridor and turn right.

(A) Go to the end of this corridor and turn right.

(B) That's it.

(A) Thank you.

(B) No problem.

(A) ____________________________

(B) ____________________________

(A) ____________________________

(B) ____________________________

(A) ____________________________

(B) ____________________________

Using three paragraphs, write an essay in the first person about your hospital experience. If you are not willing to tell your hospital experience, write me a get well card. (Suppose, I need to stay overnight in a hospital because I broke my leg.)
READ the drug labels below.
NOTICE there are two kinds of drugs.
NOTICE the kinds of information on each.

**OVER THE COUNTER DRUG**
(You can buy it at any drugstore)

**SOOTHEX**
DECONGESTANT COUGH SYRUP
FOR TEMPORARY RELIEF OF
Coughing and Nasal Stuffy

**WHAT IT DOES**

**HOW MUCH ADULTS SHOULD TAKE**

**HOW MUCH CHILDREN SHOULD TAKE**

**SOME REASONS NOT TO TAKE IT AND SOME THINGS TO BE CAREFUL OF**

**INGREDIENTS**

---

**WORDS AND MEANINGS**

dosage—how much of a drug to take and how often to take it
overdose—taking too much of a drug
symptoms—signs of sickness, such as a headache and fever
abrasions—places where skin is rubbed away

---

**MULLINS, 1987, p. 12.**

Answer the following questions.

1. Look at the cough medicine on the last page. Where can you find how much to take?
   - Dosage
   - Warnings

2. You must see a doctor before getting
   - over-the-counter drugs
   - prescription drugs

3. How many teaspoons of cough medicine should an 8 year old child take?
   - 1 every 4 hours
   - 2 every 4 hours

4. Scot Lewis is taking the penicillin from Elm Chemists. He took a tablet at 12:00. When should he take the next tablet?
   - 1:00
   - 4:00
   - call Dr. Vernon to find out

5. Which symptom is a decongestant good for?
   - headache
   - stuffy nose

6. A label says SEE PHYSICIAN IN CASE OF OVERDOSE. What is an overdose?
   - needing more of a drug
   - taking more of the drug than directed

7. Who can take Soothex cough syrup without asking a doctor?
   - Mrs. Lopez, who has high blood pressure and a cold
   - Mrs. Mosconi, who woke up with a cough and a stuffy nose
   - Mrs. Skofic, who coughs and coughs from smoking too much

8. Read the label on the VR-29 bottle (right). What should you do if you use VR-29 for several days and your cut still hurts?
   - use more of it
   - call a doctor

9. What does an antiseptic do?
   - kills germs
   - stops pain

10. Which is an abrasion?
    - deep cut
    - scrape

11. FOR EXTERNAL USE ONLY means don't
    - put it on your skin
    - swallow it

Practice this dialogue with your partners.

Pharmacist: Can I help you?
Lee: I have an upset stomach.
What do you recommend?
Pharmacist: Why don't you try this?
Lee: How often should I take it?
Pharmacist: Four times a day.
Lee: Thank you.

Practice this model with the problems below.

My son has _a runny nose_.

My children have _allergies_.

1. my son a runny nose
2. my children allergies
3. I heartburn
4. my son diarrhea
5. my daughter an ear infection
6. my wife an upset stomach
7. I hay fever
8. my husband dandruff
9. my daughter a sunburn
10. my daughter a stiff neck
11. my children poison ivy
12. I a burn

WORK SHEET 2.5.4

Talk to other students in your group. Describe each health problem. Your members will suggest a product to try by looking for coupons which fit in your symptoms. Fill in the names of the products in the chart below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROBLEM</th>
<th>PRODUCT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. a headache</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. a stomachache</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. a fever</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. a runny nose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. a burn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. diarrhea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. a cold</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. a cough</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. a sore throat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. a sunburn</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Foley & Pomann, 1992, p. 60.
Look at these coupons below and then think about which one you need to relieve your symptoms in WORKSHEET 2.5.4.

**SAVE 25¢ on**

**HALLS PLUS**

Good towards the purchase of 2 large or 3 pieces of any flavor of Halls, Halls Plus, Halls Vitamin-C, or Soothers

---

**SAVE $1.00/2**

On two MOTT'S Apple Juice any variety 32 oz. or larger

Look for the New 64 oz. Plastic Bottle!

---

**SAVE $1.00**

When you buy ONE any size ALEVE*

---

**SAVE 50¢**

Any size or formula (except trial size) SPRAY OR POWDER PRODUCT

---

**SAVE 50¢**

Any ODOR DESTROYING INSOLE

---

WORKSHEET 2.5.6

THE DRUGSTORE

Talk about this drugstore. Who are the people? Where are they? What are they doing? Write the new vocabulary words on the picture.

Match these short conversations between a customer and a pharmacist. Practice them with a partner.

Please fill this prescription. Why don’t you try Tylenol?
How often should I take this? Three times a day.
Do I take this before or after meals? That’ll take about twenty minutes.
I’d like to renew a prescription. What’s the prescription number?
I have a bad headache. What do you recommend? Before you eat.

With another student, write and practice a conversation between a pharmacist and a customer. Order a prescription. Present your dialogue to the class.

Using three paragraphs, write an essay in the first person about your home remedies. Some examples are eating chicken soup to cure a cold, or putting vinegar on sunburn to stop the pain. Choose the problems as follows: common cold, hiccups, sunburn, bee sting, and sore throat.
WORKSHEET 2.6.1

Work in small groups. Everyone in the group should contribute at least one answer to each question. Compare your answers with the rest of the class.

What is a nutritious meal?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student’s name</th>
<th>Advice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What is the best kind of exercise?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student’s name</th>
<th>Advice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How many hours of sleep do you need each night?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student’s name</th>
<th>Advice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WORKSHEET 2.6.2
STAYING HEALTHY

Look at the pictures with your partners and then discuss what is happening in the picture.
Write down the answers below the each picture.

1. AIDS test
2. blood pressure
3. blood test
4. check up
5. cholesterol check
6. eye examination
7. height
8. measure
9. needle (syringe)
10. pregnancy check up
11. urine sample
12. vaccination
13. weigh
14. weight

Mammogram still underused tool

The number of women who have had at least one mammogram has risen sharply over the past several years, but the majority are still not getting breast x-rays as often as they should, according to a 1990 survey by the Jacobs Institute of Women's Health and the National Cancer Institute.

Breast cancer is second only to lung cancer as the leading cause of cancer death in women. Studies indicate that mammography is the most effective method for detecting breast cancer in its earliest and most curable stages.

Read the following statements. In pairs, talk about why you think each statement is true or false. What are the reasons for your answers?

1. One out of five women in Hawaii gets breast cancer.
2. One out of nine women in America gets breast cancer.
3. Some women can get mammograms at their workplaces.
4. "Mammovans" are vehicles equipped to take breast x-rays.
5. Companies can save money by allowing employees to get mammograms.
6. Some women can get mammograms at hospitals.
7. It takes a long time to get a mammogram.

James, 1993, p. 65.
One of the most common immunizations given these days is a flu shot. Read the following news article. Find out when is the best time for getting a flu shot.

What you’re sick with is probably not flu—not yet

If you have a raspy voice and a runny nose today, relax. The flu season has not arrived ahead of schedule. What you probably are suffering from is para-influenza or a rhinovirus or an enterovirus, which somewhat mimic symptoms of the real flu, or influenza, but do not pack the same wallop.

While the copycat ailments can be uncomfortable and something of a nuisance for a few days, unlike influenza, they simply do not develop into pneumonia, which in many cases leads to death, experts say.

“The only thing to help prevent the flu is to get a shot,” said Dr. Joanna Buffington, a physician in the flu branch of the Center for Disease Control in Atlanta.

“People seem to be afraid of adverse reactions,” she said. “But let me tell you, the most common side effect is a sore arm and the second, which is not very common, is a slight fever.”

“The vaccine is a killed virus strain so that it is no longer capable of causing infection but it still holds onto its immune system-stimulating properties, which is why it works to prevent infection from the live virus.”

Buffington stressed that the boost to the immune system takes about two weeks to work. Often, however, a person has not gotten a flu shot by January and then discovers everyone in his office has influenza, so he rushes out and gets a shot. Then, the next day in the office someone coughs on him and he soon comes down with the flu.

“Then, that person is apt to say, ‘The shot didn’t work’ or ‘The shot gave me the flu’,” she said. “But actually, they didn’t get the shot in time. They were exposed to influenza and were infected before the shot had a chance to work.”

The time frame for influenza shots is October and November, and, unfortunately for us in the business, October and November are peak seasons for other viruses, like para-influenza, a virus that causes respiratory, coldlike symptoms; hundreds of rhinoviruses, which cause the common cold, or many enteroviruses, which like influenza, cause headaches and muscle aches.”

“The problem is that a lot of people call anything flu,” Buffington said. “But influenza is a very specific virus.”

Influenza usually strikes suddenly and produces fever—and it can cause a pretty good fever, as well as muscle aches, fatigue and a dry, hacking cough, she said.

The ideal time for flu shots is long before the appearance, usually in December, of the first cases. Glozon suggests being vaccinated by Thanksgiving at the latest.

James, 1993, p. 71.
Look at the following newspaper article and accompanying graphs about breast cancer in the U.S. According to the article, what kind of people are at risk for getting the disease? Highlight that information. Then summarize the article in a paragraph.

Breast Cancer in the U.S.

Breast cancer is the cancer most commonly diagnosed in women, and kills more than any but lung cancer. Last year, it killed 300 men and 44,000 women, striking a body part at once intimate and obvious, sexual and maternal, one that more than any other symbolizes femininity.

In 1940, 1 in 20 American women got the disease in their lifetimes. Today, it is estimated that 1 in 9 women will. Better detection through wider mammography screening explains the rapid increase in the last decade, but not the longer trend, some women want it declared an epidemic.

"Five women are dying every hour of this disease," says Virginia Soffa, 40, who in February founded the Breast Cancer Action Group in Burlington, Vt. "If there was a mass murderer killing five women every hour we would be doing a heck of a lot more."

They are angry that the number of women stricken by the disease keeps rising, that there remains no known cause or cure.

The experts have theories. A family history of breast cancer increases a woman’s chances of getting the disease. So does having children after the age of 30, or never having children. So does early menstruation or late menopause, obesity or being over the age of 50. Oral contraceptives or estrogen replacement may increase the odds. Perhaps the greatest risk is a high-fat diet.

But any woman who attempts to calculate her risks and alter her lifestyle accordingly must consider this number: Almost 60 percent of women who get breast cancer have no obvious risk factors.

The first step toward solving the puzzle, the activists say, is simple: spend more money. Breast cancer activists contend that the federal government spends too little on the disease, and too much of what it does spend supports tired approaches to surgery, radiation and chemotherapy—treatments they have dubbed "slash, burn and poison." More is needed, they say, for innovative therapies and basic research into the possible cause of the disease.

James, 1993, p. 67.
Using three paragraphs, write an essay in the first person about what you do to stay healthy. List three things which you care for your health and explain them well.
APPENDIX C:

EVALUATION SHEET
Lesson 3: Written Assessment

Student’s Name ____________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Point</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write a paragraph</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct procedure order</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocabulary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewrite it by their own words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50</td>
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</tbody>
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Lesson 4: Written Assessment

Student’s Name ____________________________

<table>
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<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write a paragraph</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct procedure order</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vocabulary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewrite it by their own words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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Lesson 5-1: Written Assessment

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
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<th>Point</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>describe an unusual food</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe an unusual eating etiquette</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write 3 paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use the first person as a concept</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

Lesson 5-2: Written Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>choose one of the good manners</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rewrite it by their own words</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write 2 paragraphs</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use the first person</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strong reasons to support your choice</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
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Lesson 6-1: Written Assessment

<table>
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<th>Task</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write 3 paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe the most difficult part</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe the easiest part</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe taking charge of cooking</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comments or opinions</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>50</td>
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Lesson 6-2: Written Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Point</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write a title clearly</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write all ingredients which you need</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>draw a good illustration</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct procedure order</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
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Lesson 6-2: Oral Assessment

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<th></th>
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<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>explain about the food clearly</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell all ingredients which you need</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good posture and volume</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correct procedure order</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
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### Lesson 4: Written Assessment

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write 3 paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe a hospital experience</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use the first person as a concept</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the context of the essay</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>TOTAL</td>
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### Lesson 5: Written Assessment

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<th>Task</th>
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<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write 3 paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe a home remedy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>use the first person as a concept</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the context of the essay</td>
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Lesson 6: Written Assessment

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Point</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>write 3 paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe a home remedy</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verb tenses</td>
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<tr>
<td>use the first person as a concept</td>
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<tr>
<td>the context of the essay</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
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