Incorporating crosscultural learning strategies to reduce English language learning stresses on Hong Kong's secondary students

Samuel Sungchoon Pak

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INCORPORATING CROSSCULTURAL LEARNING STRATEGIES TO REDUCE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING STRESSES ON HONG KONG'S SECONDARY STUDENTS

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
Samuel Sungchoon Pak
March 1999
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Approved by:

Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Dr. Samuel Crowell, Second Reader
ABSTRACT

Hong Kong's educational system is presented from its past to its uncertain future as a one-country, two-educational-system arrangement with mainland China, featuring the changes that have happened already and to the possibilities that will arise in the future. This project delves into the areas of language learning stresses on secondary students in postcolonial Hong Kong. It addresses the language anxiety and stress that comes with learning two languages along with the native language, Cantonese. Students' motivation in learning English is covered along with the effect of cultural values' on learning. The project then moves into curriculum development presenting learning strategies combined with cooperative learning techniques.

A model of students' learning behaviors is presented, starting with the individual factors that students bring with them to the classroom to the classroom techniques that are used to teach the students. The outcomes; test performance, language proficiency, and language enjoyment are presented in this model.

A unit on health is introduced that takes the model and puts it into the context of the classroom. This unit shows how the model can be introduced into the classroom setting to provide a learner-friendly environment for the student. This unit covers health, fitness, stress, and nutrition and how it affects the students, offering ways to deal with their stresses in a non-threatening environment.
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Many thanks to Dr Lynne Diaz-Rico for her help in opening my eyes to the world of the master's thesis. I have grown in many ways going through this time-consuming process. Thanks to Dr Sam Crowell for enhancing my outlook on education and for agreeing to be my second reader. I share my joy with my many classmates who struggled along with me in this program. My greatest thanks goes to the woman who stood by me through the ups and downs and was there when I needed her. This is dedicated to my wife Charlene, whose love has carried me through.
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

The Social / Educational Context of English in Hong Kong

In Hong Kong, there is a new sun rising in the East and it is called "change."

There will be many changes stemming from the merger of Hong Kong and Mainland China. Part of the change will be changes in the educational system as we know it today.

There were two different systems in use before the July, 1997 change in government. Approximately ninety percent of the schools used the Chinese system, in which the books were in Chinese and the teachers taught in Cantonese. The other ten percent used the English system which used English textbooks and pedagogy both in English and Cantonese.

Since the changeover, classes have been changing to the Chinese system of education, and the Mandarin (Putonghua) dialect has been pushed as an optional third language. All these changes have brought English away from the forefront of education. English will be on the back burner in most of the schools except for the prestigious private schools, in which students will still be taught in English. The dilemma will be how to motivate these students to learn English when the focus is no longer on the English language.

The goal of this project is to design a curriculum which takes the cultural, social, psychological and philosophical backgrounds of Hong Kong students into consideration, a curriculum which will enhance the methods being used today and instill a desire to learn on the part of the students.
Description of the Classroom

The EFL classroom in Hong Kong is a crowded homogeneous environment. The Hong Kong Sam Yuk Secondary School where I will be teaching has 40 to 50 students in each classroom. They are from a variety of backgrounds, of which the majority is Cantonese-speaking Chinese. The students in secondary Form 1 to Form 6 are from 12 to 20 years of age, with both genders represented. The school is a private Christian institution rated at a 4 / 5 band (banding in the secondary level is set by test scores from the primary level form 6 with band 1 to 5 representing the top to bottom scoring). Therefore the students at this school represent the bottom 40% academically in Hong Kong. This presents a variety of problems for the teacher. The students will have a lot of anxieties about their future and languages in general. They may not be highly motivated, because most of them may not be able to get into any of Hong Kong's universities. Their study habits are probably not very refined, which is reflected in their banding.

The majority of classes are taught in Cantonese with only the English class taught in English. This will make it harder for the students to learn the English language; they have little access to practice outside of the classroom because Cantonese is the main language of the culture.

One of the dominant philosophies represented in Hong Kong society is that of the Confucius philosophy and background. The Confucian believes that life is a continual lifelong education and if the students are from this background, they will be culturally motivated to learn. The majority of parents believes in education as a way up the economic ladder of success and will be supportive of the school and its teachers.
Hong Kong Background

Hong Kong's population is approximately 98% Chinese. With the advent of a compulsory nine years of education in 1978, the majority of students have had great difficulty learning through English. Immigrants' children in Hong Kong schools have had a difficult time adjusting to instructions in English and Cantonese, having been schooled entirely in Mandarin (Putonghua). Many English-medium schools actually teach in Cantonese or in a mixed code. Many officials have sought to encourage schools to shift from English to the Chinese-medium of instruction to take some of the pressure off the students.

Another complication is the discussion of the relative status of Cantonese vis-à-vis Mandarin, the official language of the People's Republic of China (PRC). Mandarin is to be offered as an examination subject (subject to be tested for the purpose of academic tracking) from 1998 onwards. Preliminary steps have also been taken to introduce simplified Chinese characters into Hong Kong schools in order to bring Chinese language teaching closer aligned to that of the mainland. The current emphasis on developing a greater awareness of Chinese history, culture and national identity will likely lead to a gradual devaluation of the role of English in Hong Kong. The major question in Hong Kong concerns the extent that it will be possible to have one country with two systems of education.

Future in Hong Kong

Before I left Hong Kong in July of 1997, I was offered a teaching position in a private high school. This position was to teach four classes of English per quarter and to
help out in remedial classes and other areas where possible. Each of these classes would have about forty to fifty students. The difficulty comes in the form of the students themselves. The diversity of the students themselves causes a teaching challenge. Most of the students come from a poor background, economically and also educationally. The cultural diversity of the neighborhood comes from the fact that Hong Kong itself is very diverse. There are many immigrants from mainland China and other parts of the world who enter schooling with no background in English. Then there are students who grew up in Hong Kong and have a firm grasp of English grammar but cannot speak a word of English. Add to this a varied background in social and religious beliefs and one comes up with a mixture which is a challenge to teach.

The second difficulty comes because I have no knowledge of Chinese (Mandarin or Cantonese). I will be the only native speaker of English in the whole school. There are only a few teachers who speak both languages. This will affect the way that I will be able to teach.

Educational Experience

Most of my previous teaching experience has been at the university level and adult students. I spent the last eighteen months teaching English as a second language in Seoul, Korea. The conversational ability level of the students was low, because all of their learning in English had been in reading and writing and grammar. Students in Korea start learning English in middle school and continue in high school. The national entrance examination into college also tests their English abilities. This test indicates which schools one can enter and what fields one can major in. If one does not score high
enough, college is out of the question. It is common for students to take the test several times, trying to get a higher score to get into the college of their choice.

After graduating from college, English becomes very important in the job search. Companies are looking for graduates who were bilingual or even trilingual, with English as their second language. If one is able to speak fluent English, one is guaranteed a good future even if one's major does not fit the job description.

Students who came to my school varied in age from eighteen to seventy, with varied language abilities. The classes were limited to twenty students per class. Each class met for one hour, five days a week for two months at a time. These classes followed a strict schedule of what was to be covered each day and what was to be tested each day. My dilemma was to make the material interesting and keep up their interest and motivation. There were six different levels the students had to attain in order to graduate from the institute. Each level had its prerequisite level of grammar, vocabulary, comprehension and speaking ability.

Even though the emphasis was on speaking ability, my students were required to write letters, make phone calls, interview people and socialize outside their realm of influence. The emphasis was for them to be able to communicate on a social level and to participate in the communication of everyday life. Interactive conversation was part of each daily lesson plan and instant feedback on errors helped reinforce each day’s lesson.

Seven classes a day was the average during my stay in Korea; this helped me realize the weaknesses in my teaching methods and methodologies. The background of most of the students was in the areas of grammar and writing and reading, but the
educational system of Korea had not prepared them for the cultural shock of using a different language, especially a Western language.

**Importance of Culture in a New Language**

One of the lessons I learned from my experience is the importance of culture in learning a new language. Language has to be put into context in order for it to make sense to the listener. Teaching a language through direct example and reinforcing it through repetition helps the students fix in their minds the lesson that is being taught. When cultural significance is added to a lesson, it helps infuse the lesson with new meaning. Therefore a teacher must know as much as possible about the cultural background of the students in order to find out what is significant for them. Do they relate to the language and understand the significance of words, phrases and expressions? When language is put into context which relates to the students' own culture, it will help them to remember more vividly what they are being taught.

**Attitudes about Learning**

In Hong Kong, secondary forms one to six, which follow the British system of education, parallel the American junior high and senior high school. The attitudes and learning practices in junior high are not always the same as in the senior high. More emphasis must be made to focus students' attention, and teaching methods must be more innovative to hold the attention of the students in the lower grades. While in the higher grades, personal attention and productive student-teacher relationships determine the success of a teacher.
Academic tracking, or "banding" of students takes place after testing in primary forms 3 and 6. This determines what schools are available to each student. Band 1 to 5 (scoring from top to bottom) is what determines students standing in the educational system. The top-scoring students have the first choice of schools and so on, down to the lowest-scoring students. This system of banding students separates them into the "have's" and the "have not's." Because of this situation, there is a lot of competition for band 1 and 2 schools, but not for schools in the 4 to 5 bands. When students are put in the lower bands it is difficult for them to move up to higher bands or to the better schools. This can be a cause of anguish for both students and parents.

In the lower forms, discipline requires more attention and less emphasis is placed on content than in the higher forms. Because of my limited experience with younger students, this may become a problem for me in the future, depending on how I decide to handle problem areas. With class sizes in the forty to fifty range, classroom discipline will have to be a priority in order to attain a high level of student achievement.

Research Problem

The basis for this project comes from my previous experience in teaching EFL students in South Korea. Motivation in keeping students in class and preventing drop outs, other than for personal reasons, became a concern for me. I saw a trend developing within my classes, as well as in the classes of other teachers in my school. This trend was that the dropout rate increased as the level of English increased. Language anxiety was another problem, which manifested itself in the students whenever they were called upon to answer in class. Finding out how they cope with this stress can result in benefit in the
classroom. Finally, I seek to explore the influence of culture on the students' learning strategies.

**Content of the Project**

This project has five parts. The first part has consisted of an introduction to the origin of language learning stress on secondary students in Hong Kong. The second part reviews the literature on language anxiety and stress, motivation and self-esteem, learning strategies geared towards test-taking, cooperative learning as an effective teaching technique, and the effect of cultural values on learning.

The third part presents a theoretical model and its applications. The fourth part applies the model to the lessons that are introduced and describes how the theory fits the design of the curriculum. The final section proposes an assessment of the proposed strategies that are introduced in this project.

**Significance of the Project**

The variety of students and their experiences and background will offer a challenge in keeping the students motivated in a second language acquisition class. There are many factors involved in the teaching of English as a second language.

The cultural background of the students must be taken into consideration when planning a curriculum. What value is placed on education by society and can it be used to motivate the students? With the current emphasis away from the English language taking place in Hong Kong, it will become more important for students to learn English in the English class because the other classes with be strictly in Chinese.
Making English interesting enough to hold the attention of the students and motivating them to want to learn is the goal of this project. Getting past the problems of discipline and communication and being able to communicate the essence of the English language is the final goal.

Programs setup for the EFL student stress the importance of teaching skills and competencies that everyone must have to function effectively in society. Various learning goals and needs must be met in order for a program to be successful. Students must use English to improve their employability and to gain employment, improve job skills, or complete their academic education. If we can focus on the students' needs, then teaching can be more effective.
CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Language Anxiety and Stress

Test Anxiety

One of the factors that impede the success of schoolchildren is test anxiety. This appears to be very stressful to some children. It is believed that students perform very poorly on examinations if they are highly stressed because their attention is divided between the cognitive needs of the test and their worry about the consequences of their performance. Their doubts about their own abilities can have a negative effect on their performance on tests (Dweck & Wortman, 1982). The effects of exam fear are well known and can be seen in this illustration of students.

As the examinations approached and as students' anxiety increased, various changes occurred in behavior. Joking increased, and, while students still sought social support and talked a great deal about the examination, they began specifically to avoid people who aroused their anxiety. Stomachaches, asthma, and a general feeling of weariness became common complaints, and other psychosomatic symptoms appeared. The use of tranquilizers and sleeping pills became more frequent. (Mechanic, 1962, p. 142)

Language Anxiety

It is known that stress can impair information processing, storage, and recall. The creative process of language production can be blocked by excessive arousal of the brain cortex. It is known that creative thinking is most effective at low levels of cortical arousal. The free flow of ideas can be stifled by the pressures of too much concentration. The painful silence that many individuals experience in foreign language classes can be explained by this phenomenon. The pressure that comes from being asked to speak in a foreign language can block the creative forces necessary to generate thought and ideas.
Anxiety is one of many areas that are being researched to find relationships to language learning. "Currently, increased attention is being given to language learners and their perspectives, motivations, beliefs about language learning, learning styles, learning strategies, and language anxieties" (Young, 1991, p. 426).

Recent literature on foreign and second language learning anxiety upholds the idea of an anxiety that is particular to language learning. The literature on language learning anxiety lists at least six potential sources of language anxiety (Young, 1991): personal and interpersonal anxieties, learner beliefs about language learning, instructor beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures, and language testing.

These six sources of potential anxiety can all be managed to a certain extent, if the instructors and students involved are willing identify these sources and examine how anxiety affects the learning process.

Krashen (1991) suggests that an individual's degree of self-esteem is highly related to language anxiety. "The more I think about self-esteem, the more impressed I am with its impact. This is what causes anxiety in a lot of people. People with low self-esteem worry about what their peers think; they are concerned with pleasing others. And that I think has to do a great degree with anxiety" (p. 15).

The relationship between ability and anxiety is that the lower the student's ability level, the higher the test anxiety. It would seem that students with a self-perceived low-ability level are the likeliest candidates for language anxiety. There is a theory that anxiety is lower is the student feels part of a group and can share experiences with the
group. "Krashen posits that anxiety in the language learning context is wrapped up in the phenomenon he refers to as "club membership." He argues that the affective filter is down when you consider yourself a member of the group-- in this context a member of the Spanish, French, German "club" or whatever the target language is" (Young, 1996, p. 428).

While Terrell (1991) suggests that "children acquire their first language and a second language in order to identify and be a member of the group that speaks that language and that this strong motivation for identification or assimilation forces them to attend to the input very carefully, so that their output will match the input" (p. 423). The affective filter is down when students experience "target language group identification."

What a learner believes about language learning is a major contribution to language anxiety. Many language learners express great concern over the correctness of their utterances; place a great deal of stress on speaking with "an excellent accent"; support the notion that language learning is translating the language; believe that two years is enough time to become fluent in another language; and believe that some people are more able to learn a foreign language than others (Young, 1991).

Because several of these beliefs are unrealistic, they could lead to anxiety. Anxiety manifests itself when students "squirm in their seats, fidget, play with their hair, clothes, or other manipulable object, stutter and stammer as they talk, and generally appear jittery and nervous" (Young, 1991, p. 429).

Obvious manifestations of anxiety in the foreign or second language classroom surface in other forms: distortion of sounds, inability to reproduce intonation and rhythm,
unable to perform when called upon, forgetting words and phrases, refusing to speak, and keeping silent. Language learners may actually be resisting the learning of the language. It is suggested that "students are anxious when they avoid trying to convey difficult or personal messages in the foreign language; freeze up in role-play activities; report that they "knew" a certain grammar point but "forgot" it during a test or an oral exercise when many grammar points must be remembered; complain of difficulties discriminating the sounds and structures of a foreign language message; confess they know the correct answer on a test but put down the wrong one due to nervousness or carelessness; and over-study without any improvement in grades" (Young, 1991, p. 430). Journal writing is suggested as a way to recognize their feelings of inadequacy and change to more realistic expectations.

Instructors must be able to recognize the signs when there is too much competition among language learners, because this leads to higher states of anxiety. "Classroom anxiety includes nervous laughter, avoiding eye contact, joking, short answer responses, avoiding activities in class, coming unprepared to class, acting indifferent, cutting class, putting off taking the foreign language until the last year, crouching in the last row, and avoiding having to speak in the foreign language in class" (Young, 1991, p. 430).

Classroom Approaches

A common denominator among current foreign language methods or approaches in reducing foreign and second language anxiety is the emphasis on creating a low-anxiety classroom atmosphere. "One of the current challenges in second and foreign
language learning teaching is to provide students with a learner-centered, low-anxiety classroom environment" (Young, 1991, p. 426).

Instructors need to be sensitive to their role as language teachers to decrease anxieties. "Some current communicative approaches allow the instructor to be seen as more of a facilitator whose responsibility is to provide students with input and opportunities to communicate in the language in authentic situations with authentic materials" (Young, 1991, p. 431). "Instructors who had a good sense of humor and were friendly, relaxed and patient, who made students feel comfortable, and who encouraged students to speak out were cited as helpful in reducing foreign language class anxiety" (Young, 1991, p. 432).

The most frequent suggestion for alleviating language anxiety was that students would feel more comfortable if the instructor were more like a friend helping to learn, and less like an authority figure making them perform in class. "To decrease anxieties associated with classroom procedures, instructors can do more pairwork, play more games, and tailor their activities to the affective needs of the learner" (Horowitz & Young, 1991).

Young (1991) suggests that "language anxiety is alleviated when students work in small groups, do pairwork, and experience personalized language instruction. Group work not only addresses the affective concerns of the students, it also increases the amount of student talk and comprehensible input." In addition, "Examples of personalized instruction include using pictures to present vocabulary and associating the
vocabulary with students and objects in class; personalizing grammar; and pairing student
to work with another student or other students" (p. 433).

Krashen (1991) suggests that the best way to reduce language anxiety is to make
the message so interesting that students forget that it is in another language. According to
him, when the teacher drops the book and starts talking about something really important,
students listen.

Daly (1991) advises us that certain classroom procedures such as: seating students
alphabetically, requiring presentations from students such as oral reports and oral
readings, and calling on students at random fail to respond to the affective needs of the
learner. These procedures are typical in classrooms with high levels of language anxiety.

The main objective in getting rid of unnecessary anxiety in language learning is to
instill in students increased interest and motivation to learn another language and to
utilize more effective language learning techniques. "Second language learners
experience unnecessary levels of anxiety and resulting unpleasant emotions and stress as
they learn the second language. Our task as foreign and second language teachers is to
create an atmosphere in our classes for effective language learning and an attitude in our
learners that reflects genuine interest and motivation to learn the language" (Young,

In the field of speech communication, there is a tendency for people to avoid or
even fear oral communication. Rubrics of stage fright, speech anxiety, communication
apprehension, reticence and social anxiety describe the phenomena. Communication
apprehension is the fear or anxiety an individual feels about orally communicating.
Classroom strategies for dealing with apprehensive students include the following: Do not seat students alphabetically, do not require oral performances, do not call on students randomly, and do not punish classroom talk (Horowitz & Young, 1991).

The fear of giving a public speech is the single biggest fear of the American people (Bruskin, 1973, cited in Horowitz & Young, 1991). Situational characteristics such as evaluation, novelty, ambiguity, conspicuousness, and prior history contribute to public speaking anxiety. The fear of public speaking is not the only fear that Americans have, foreign languages have also created anxieties in many learners.

For years, scholars have considered the anxiety-provoking potential of learning a foreign language. Learners have taken defensive stances in coping with a foreign language. Anxiety can affect the communication strategies that students use in language classes. The foreign language learner experiences apprehension, worry, even dread. They have difficulty concentrating, become forgetful, sweaty, and have heart palpitations. They exhibit avoidance behavior such as missing class and postponing homework." (Horowitz & Young, 1991, p. 29)

Two personality variables that are associated with foreign language anxiety are perfectionism and fear of public speaking. Stressful classroom experiences can be considered a third. Prior experience can cause a negative response to the language experience (Horowitz & Young, 1991).

The role of the instructor has a significant role in whether students are relaxed or suffer anxiety in the classroom. The beliefs of the instructor and the procedures used in the classroom can be used to enhance or defeat the learning process.

With their limited communication competence, they (second language learners) may have difficulties in relating to others and presenting their own selves adequately. For example, making casual conversation or expressing spontaneous reactions may be difficult, and attempts to do so may result in misunderstanding and laborious efforts to explain. Unless they have firm confidence in themselves, they may come to feel that they project a silly, boring image, and become
withdrawn. Their sense of alienation may be increased by the fact that they have to re-learn the conventions which surround single daily events, such as eating in a restaurant or approaching an acquaintance. To use two terms commonly applied to this kind of experience: they may develop a sense of "reduced personality" and experience various degrees of "culture shock." (Littlewood, 1984, cited in Horowitz & Young, 1991)

In learner training, learners can focus their attention on the factors that affect their learning and on the process of learning itself so that the emphasis is on how to learn rather than on what to learn. "One of the aims of learner training is to help learners discover the learning strategies that suit them best so that they may become more effective learners and take on more responsibility for their own learning. Strategy training is thus an important part of learner training. And a broad conception of learner training should also include dealing with anxiety" (Horowitz & Young, 1991, p. 145).

Language anxiety and stress has created many problems for learners. This factor has been the topic of many studies. Because it is so well known, it must be dealt with in order to create a better learning environment for the language learner. Being able to identify the causes of stresses and anxiety can be the first step in overcoming these obstacles.
Motivation in Learning

Motivation

A review of the literature on the psychology of motivation suggests that motivation is a multifaceted concept. Motivation comes in many shapes and sizes and is seen as the driving force in doing many things. In the field of education, the lack of motivation can be seen as a sign of failure.

Winner's model of motivation is the idea that people seek to explain success and failure events by making attributions to particular causes. Attribution theory thus starts with an examination of how individuals explain their past. The theory then attempts to make predictions about how they might react to their future. Causes of success can be seen as stable or unstable, internal or external and controllable or uncontrollable. "A success attributed to a stable cause is seen as being more likely to re-occur" (Roger, 1998, p. 275). This model takes the attitude that success has a cause and an affect by things inside and outside a person's proximity of control. Environment can affect ones success and can be predicted from ones past. This model is the one that most Western students relate to when asked about motivation and success.

"Covington's self-worth theory links motivation to ideas about the nature of the self in an academic context. In particular, he considers the perception of a relatively high level of academic ability to be central to the possession of a relatively high level of self-esteem" (Roger, 1998, p. 275). This model seeks to link ability to self-esteem and motivation. These two theories go in different directions in finding the source of
motivation. This can be compared to Western and Asian approaches to motivation in the educational setting. Two views of the same idea come from different backgrounds.

Theorists have determined that there is a key difference between task or learning goals on the one hand and ability or ego goals on the other. Task goals are concerned with learning itself. Comparative performance is the focus of ego or ability goals. "A growing body of research supports that task goals are associated with more effective study and learning habits and thereby can be considered to be motivationally superior" (Roger, 1998, p. 275). Goals in education maybe the key in producing higher motivation and better learning.

Chinese Learner

What underlies Asian people's positive attitude towards education, their motivation to achieve, and their willingness to spend most of their free time in the pursuit of study? Traditionally the Chinese culture has placed a high value on education. Modern schooling has been accompanied by changes in attitude but the Chinese people have not discarded traditional patterns of thinking and action. Education has a special significance in the Confucian tradition that rests upon the Confucian presumption that everyone is educable. "By nature men are nearly alike, but through experience they grow wide apart" (Lee, 1996, p. 29). Hence, there is the significance of environment and education in the process of personal development.

"The concept that everyone is educable, everyone can become a sage, and everyone is perfectible forms the basic optimism and dynamism towards education in the Confucian tradition. And this explains why education is viewed to be wholly significant
in such a tradition" (Lee, 1996, p. 30). A Confucianist saying that exemplifies the thinking among traditional students today says: "Sincerely put forth your efforts, and finally you will progress. Study until death and do not stop before. For the art of study occupies the whole of life; to arrive at its purpose, you cannot stop for an instant. To do that is to be a man; to stop is to be a bird or a beast" (Lee, 1996, p. 32). Society's belief that educational success is important in upward social mobility became a significant driving force for many ordinary people to study hard for a better future. The family ethics of developing your fame and glorifying your family created a strong motivation for pursuing excellence in education.

Education is conceived as important not only for personal development, but also as a movement toward perfection. Externally, education is important for upward social mobility, which is believed to be achievable by anyone who aims to do so. The Confucian tradition emphasizes effort, willpower or concentration of the mind. There is a strong belief in attainability by all, depending upon one's effort and willpower. Confucian tradition has influenced many among modern Asian learners.

"Numerous studies have drawn attention to the fact that Asian cultures attribute success to effort, and failure to lack of effort, whereas Westerners tend to attribute success and failure to ability and lack of ability ... Hong Kong secondary students attribute success to, in order: effort, interest in study, study skill, mood, and only fifth, ability" (Biggs, 1996, p. 59). The first four are more or less controllable; the fifth, which Western students see as most important for success, is not.
Chinese students can control their performance by putting in more effort, learning how to study and creating a better mood for learning. Western students believe they cannot control their abilities; they therefore relinquish control of their learning. What happens when the task is beyond the abilities of the student? It can be devastating for the student involved. There is enormous stress presented by parents and teachers, which has contributed to a higher suicide rate among students in Hong Kong.

Collaboration is a feature of Chinese culture. Whenever students have difficulty they seek out other's views and perceptions on how to handle the situation. "In Hong Kong, the cultural supports for learning appear to overtake the classroom structures" (Biggs, 1996, p. 61). This implies that the cultural bias of learning takes control whenever the situation is more than the classroom strategies can handle. Learning-related factors are initiated in the culture and transmitted through socialization.

Asian teachers and students are more task-oriented and students spend more time on tasks and homework than Western students. Teachers are allowed more time on preparation of lessons and have more direct contact with students outside of the classroom. "Teacher and student are specifically shown here as sharing learning-related beliefs and values that arise in the general social milieu. In Confucian-heritage cultures (CHC) countries it seems likely that these beliefs, values, and practices lead children to internalize dispositions that enhance teachability or docility" (Biggs, 1996, p. 61). Western children are generally raised to be assertive, independent, curious, and to explore on their own terms while Asian children are raised to obey, conform to group norms, and persist in the absence of feedback at essentially boring tasks. Socialization procedures
have produced "internalized dispositions" that ease children into the world of school by making them more docile and teachable (Biggs, 1996).

The CHC environment of large classes, external examinations, cold-learning climates and expository teaching hide the components that foster good learning that is inherent in the culture. That CHC students are rote-learners is a Western misperception of repetitive effort. There is no evidence that they learn by rote any more than do Western students. "CHC students are subjected to fierce assessment demands in a highly competitive environment, eliciting obviously "surface" motives and strategies, yet typically CHC students operate with less surface, and more deep, approaches than Westerners" (Biggs, 1996, p. 64).

Many studies Ho, 1986 and Yong, 1988 cited in Lee (1996) discovered that "these Asian students are not only diligent, but they also have high achievement motivation, invariably they have a high regard for education" (p. 25). Research results suggest that students in Hong Kong and a range of other Asian countries are more oriented to deep learning and less oriented to surface learning than Australian students at corresponding levels (Marton, Dall'Alba, & Kum, 1996).

Culture's Effect on Motivation

The differences in motivation among Hong Kong Chinese and American students may depend on the values attached to success. For the most part, the Chinese place a particularly strong emphasis on academic, educational success and relatively less emphasis on career success. The fierce competition for university places among Chinese students is enormous since only the top 20% make it into the universities in Hong Kong.
Because of this the Chinese students are less certain of finding an education within a university in Hong Kong, while the Americans have greater certainty of an university education, but the Chinese are more certain of a good career once they do obtain a degree.

Americans see effort as being more important in determining success and not in determining failure, while the Asian students see effort as a cause of success and not enough effort as the cause of failure. Chinese students respond more favorably to comments that, positively emphasizes their ability levels. This feedback emphasizes the Chinese students' belief in their possession of effective study skills (Roger, 1998).

The importance of attributing success to strategy or study skills shows that such attributions are associated with a removal of guilt, a reduced sense of shame for being stupid and the development of a search for yet better strategies. There is less loss of face when ability is removed and effort is the key to success in learning. "To the Confucianist, education and learning are always associated with effort" (Lee, 1996, p. 31). This emphasis on effort as a precursor to success gives students an incentive to try harder to reach their goals. Educational goals are always within their reach.

Praise is rarely given in Hong Kong classrooms, therefore Chinese students learn to work hard without expecting much praise for their effort. The Chinese believe that almost anything can be achieved through hard work and effort. In addition, effort as a way of gaining knowledge has moral value so in that sense it is very important. For the Chinese, effort and ability attributions are more positively correlated. The collectivist
Chinese student then, is more likely to believe that sufficient effort will ultimately bring rewards (Roger, 1998).

This type of thinking suggests that there is a positive motivational orientation towards education among the Chinese students. The Chinese are more oriented towards learning goals and are less concerned with ability or ego goals. Clearly the whole question of self-concept and self-esteem within the Chinese community with its collectivist culture needs careful consideration in determining the correct manner of motivating students.

Chinese students see learning strategies as important causes of both success and failure. They are more likely to be dismissive of the possible contribution of bad luck to failure. Chinese students show a tendency to rate effort and, even more so, strategy as important causes of both success and failure. Indeed the variation in the perceived importance of strategy over success and failure conditions between the two cultures is the most striking aspect of the cultural differences in education (Roger, 1998).

For the Chinese, there is a positive correlation with strategy and success. Strategy is the sum cause of success and a lack of strategy as the cause of failure. Within the Chinese culture, there is stress on improvement through strategic effort, bringing a growing sense of self-esteem with success that in turn promotes greater confidence to seek out new challenges. For the Chinese student, ability is clearly important, but they see strategies as the key to their successes and failures. Strategy is also largely independent of self-esteem for the Chinese student.
A culture's attitudes and values are reflected in the educational system maintained by that culture; so too is the educational system itself interpreted and made sense of through the filter provided by the national culture (Roger, 1998). Culture is seen as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group from another.

Approaches to Learning

"Students undertake learning for a variety of reasons; those reasons determine how they go about their learning, and how they go about their learning will determine the quality of the outcome" (Wong, Lin & Walkins, 1996, p. 317). Students use strategies that are consistent with their motivation. The combination of motive and strategy is called an approach to learning. According to Wong, Lin & Walkin, there are three approaches to learning: surface, deep, and achieving. The surface approach to learning is based on fear or other extrinsic motivation. This approach is used as a means to an end, such as a job. The deep approach to learning is based on intrinsic motivation, interest in the subject matter, and the need to satisfy their curiosity about the topic. The strategy is to maximize understanding of the subject. The achieving approach is based on "the ego-enhancement that comes out of visibly achieving, and in particular through high grades" (p. 317). This strategy is to do whatever the students believe is necessary to get the highest marks possible.

There is a high congruence between motive and strategy in the process of learning; therefore it is best to recognize the strategy that is consistent with that particular motive. Students tend to use whatever strategies, that are congruent with their
motivations. This is especially associated with higher academic achievement. Therefore students with higher academic aspirations have been found with strategies that fit their motivations. This finding can be used in the classroom to raise motivations.

Learning Processes

Wittrock (1977, p. 180) cited in Watkins and Biggs (1996) recognized that "... methods of teaching should be designed to stimulate students to construct meaning from their own experience rather than stimulating them to reproduce the knowledge of others" (p. 4). The way students learn depends on how they perceive the learning task and the learning environment. Teachers need to understand their students' conceptions of learning; that the focus of learning is conceptual change and its facilitation.

When students are given a reading, they either go into a surface or deep approach to the task. "Students who are only capable of conceiving a quantitative conception of learning can only achieve a surface approach to learning, and that awareness of a qualitative conception of learning is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the adoption of a deep-level approach" (Watkins & Biggs, 1996, p. 6).

Table 1 shows the differences between the strategies and the motivations that underlie each one. Each approach has its own merits and plays a role in the learning process. The surface approach is known for its superficial learning and lower standards while the deep approach is known for its higher motivation and deeper and more genuine interest in learning. The achievement approach is the model for the over-achieving student, who is interested in the highest grades possible. Each approach is used
depending upon the needs of the student. The correlation of deep and achieving approaches to academic grades is predictably higher than that of surface approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale of Learning</th>
<th>Study Process</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Surface Approach</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface motivation</td>
<td>Motivation is utilitarian; main aim is to gain qualifications at minimum allowable standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surface strategy</td>
<td>Strategy is to reproduce bare essentials often using rote learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Deep Approach</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep motivation</td>
<td>Motivation is interest in subject and its related areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deep strategy</td>
<td>Strategy is to understand what is to be learnt through inter-relating ideas and reading widely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Achieving Approach</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement motivation</td>
<td>Motivation is to obtain highest possible grades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement strategy</td>
<td>Strategy is to achieve high marks by being a &quot;model&quot; student, e.g., being punctual, doing extra readings, etc. or whatever else that is needed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Descriptions of scales of learning processes and study process (Watkins, 1996)

"Memorizing with prior understanding of a well-defined topic may be the only way to cope with the excessive demands made on Chinese students, in Hong Kong, but may not necessarily lead to surface learning" (Salili, 1996, p. 97). Elton and Laurillard, 1979 cited in Tang and Biggs (1996) have found what appeared to be surface learning among Hong Kong students but the learning went deeper than first realized. Their
method of coping with excessive demands was to memorize the notes, which made their understanding of the topic that much more. The memorizing reinforced their understanding on the topic.

Socialization in the Confucian culture may have given children disposition that can meet the demands of the classroom. Teachers may be instructing in ways that are more conducive to deep learning than Western eyes can perceive (Tang & Biggs, 1996).

The Paradox of the Asian Learner

In Hong Kong, problems with English as the language of instruction influence many students to learn by rote at least at the early secondary level (Watkins, 1996). "Memorizing, understanding, reflecting and questioning are the basic components of learning. They are inter-related, integrated and should be repeated for further and deeper learning" (Lee, 1996, p. 36). The use of memorization within the learning context is a given in education but the CHC students use it as a tool to reach a higher level of learning than may at first be apparent. It is clear that CHC students perform at high cognitive levels in academic tasks. CHC students see themselves as deep-learners as much as Western students, if handling the task meaningfully is defined as deep learning.

Understanding the role of rote learning in the overall scheme of learning helps us to understand that rote memorization does not always mean surface learning. "Rote" as understood in the dictionary definition is the mere exercise of memory without proper understanding of, or reflection upon, the matter in question (Watkins & Biggs, 1996).

Marton, Dall'Alba & Tse (1996) suggest that Chinese students learn repetitively in the belief that memorization can lead to understanding. Mechanical learning is rote
learning but studies have shown that there is an aspect of deep and surface learning that can be found in the Asian understanding of rote learning. Memorization leads to a better understanding of the subject involved. While memorizing does not create understanding, it is a useful precondition for it to happen. The relationship between learning, memorizing, and understanding stands at the crux of the paradox of the Asian learner. It is seen that memorizing and understanding are not different in nature. One may come before the other but are intertwined in contributing to the development of the other.

In the West, memorization and rote learning are generally equated but the relationship of memorization and understanding as being intertwined gives a different picture of the Asian learner. Memorization can be used to deepen and develop understanding; in this way, the paradox of the Asian learner is solved. "The use of memorization to deepen understanding rests the solution of the paradox of the Chinese learner" (Marton, Dall'Alba, & Tse, 1996, p. 81).

Chinese Expectations

The concept of success among secondary school children in Hong Kong was clustered around happy family, academic achievement, career success, and having many friends. Among the Chinese, there was a positive correlation between academic work, career, and individual achievement goals to succeeding in family and social life. Yu's study (1980) cited in Salili (1996) indicated that "the collectivistic culture of the Chinese results in students expending more effort and performing better in cooperative learning contexts" (p. 88).
The social loafing phenomena suggests that people usually expend more effort when they work alone, then when they work in a group. When Americans showed social loafing, Chinese exhibited social striving. Chinese students performed better in pairs than alone. "Driven by a sense of duty toward their parents, and influenced by cultural values which emphasize hard work and endurance, Chinese students take more personal responsibility for their success and failure. They spend much more time doing homework and drill than their Western counterparts, yet the majority still believe that they can work harder and are not satisfied with their own achievement" (Salili, 1996, p. 89).

This emphasis on effort shows the mindset of the Chinese student and its effect on their education. Motivation for the most part is part of the Chinese culture and its power over society can be felt wherever they go. Its influence over students in the educational system proves that the home environment has a strong influence on students.
Learning Strategies Geared Towards Test Taking

Learning Strategies

"Learning strategies are those methods employed by learners to facilitate their acquisition of knowledge and skills. Learning strategies are self-activated by the individual rather than being activated by the instruction are used to encode and retrieve information from memory. Learning strategies can be mental techniques for organizing and elaborating on knowledge, active study strategies such as note taking, as well as tactics for coping with learning anxiety" (Davidson & Smith, 1990, p. 228).

According to Stoynoff (1997), over the past decade, cognitive psychologists have developed a conceptualization of learners as active participants in the learning process who use a variety of learning strategies to organize, implement, monitor, and adjust their learning behavior. The study of learning strategies is "the classification and labeling of what learners do cognitively, affectively, and metacognitively to promote their learning" (Stoynoff, 1997, p. 56).

There is a growing body of empirical evidence that students are capable of controlling the ways in which they learn. Instruction in such self-regulated learning and study strategies may improve academic achievement. There is a significant relationship between language proficiency and academic achievement.

Learning strategies are a factor in students' academic achievement. The more successful students are better able to manage their study time, prepare for and take tests, identify the main ideas in spoken and written discourse, make better use of social support systems, and spend more time studying than less academically successful students.
"American undergraduates students who have completed courses in learning strategies training make significant gains in their academic achievement and reading comprehension" (Stoynoff, 1997, p. 60). The highest achievers make more use of social assistance as a learning strategy and regularly use peers and teachers to help them learn. International students are able to overcome limitations in their language proficiency and/or cultural background by making use of support personal as needed (Stoynoff, 1997).

Early Teaching

"At the middle and secondary levels, the curriculum primarily focuses on content teaching and learning. Content area demands center around learning domain-specific and general concepts. A concept is a word on phrase representing a meaningful category or class of events, ideas, actions, or objects. Understanding of concepts in the foundation for acquisition and application of much knowledge in content areas" (Bulgren & Scanlon, 1997, p. 292).

Conceptual learning is influenced by a wide array of processes, such as prior knowledge, interest, motivation, questioning, analogic thought, recognition of structure, and expository relationships. A teacher can respond to the instructional challenge of teaching integrated process and content by taking a central role as planner and mediator of learning. This will guide all students toward independence as learners. "That is, teachers must adopt strategic teaching practices that will help students acquire both concepts critical to curricular content and learning strategies they need to be independent
learners and processors of information" (Bulgren & Scanlon, 1997, p. 293). The role of the teacher is crucial in developing good models of learning in the early years.

Teachers are responsible for promoting generalization of learning strategies as a basis for learning. "Generalization provides an opportunity for instructors to act as mediators in helping students perceive the applications for strategies" (Knight, 1993, p. 39). It is important that students see how the strategies are applied in their studies.

One way to compensate for the students' lack of strategies is to use strategic teaching, which is a form of instruction in which the teacher models and guides students in learning how to learn. Another approach is to use strategy integration. These approaches weave together the simultaneous teaching of learning strategies and content area learning. "Learning strategies are efficient and effective approaches to specific learning tasks performed by students. Students use them to replace inefficient approaches or when they have no consistent and appropriate approach to task completion" (Bulgren & Scanlon, 1997, p. 297).

The results of a study by Horton and Oakland (1997) indicated that a strategy, which capitalizes on personalization, was superior for students of all types. Factors such as type of instruction, teachers, learning theory principles, developmental concerns, and cultured issues have an impact on achievement and attitudes (p. 136). Promotion of personalized learning through instructional strategies can promote higher student academic achievement. According to Horton and Oakland (1997), reasons why students learn more when taught with a personal approach may be attributable to many factors. "The personal teaching strategy employed a variety of techniques designed to enable
students to relate to the lessons in personal ways. Personalized lessons used prior knowledge to help students develop schemata" (Horton & Oakland, 1997, p. 135). Because prior knowledge is used in the personalized lessons, both age and stage of development are critical factors in considering learning styles. To reach students, schema theory, developmental considerations, and cultural sensitivities should be considered in developing lesson plans (Horton & Oakland, 1997).

Limitations of Teaching

Learners must be taught to use strategies effectively. Learners are failing to succeed in the classroom and the problem is widespread and serious. Learners may not know how to adopt instruction to their own needs and abilities. Research findings suggest that learners tend to use easy or familiar strategies rather than those, which are the most appropriate for the instructional task. Thus, it becomes imperative that learners be taught to use strategies effectively (Davidson & Smith, 1990).

Teaching of Strategy

Students awareness of their own cognitive processes is called metacognition. Their ability to control these processes by selecting among cognitive strategies, and their ability to monitor, evaluate and revise their strategy use has bearing on how well they do in school. Metacognitive strategies are techniques and knowledge that the learners employ to maintain awareness of their processing. They can select among available learning strategies, and monitor the effectiveness of their use of strategy use (Davidson & Smith, 1990). It has been argued that good teaching should include teaching students
how to think, learn, and self-motivate. "The learning of strategies through discovery is supported by the developmental theory of Piaget" (Davidson & Smith, 1990, p. 229). While discovery is powerful, direct explanation may be the most successful and the most applicable in classroom situations. Students who received explicit training in strategy use outperformed students who were simply informed of the possibility of using a particular strategy.

The University of Kansas Center for Research on Learning defines a learning strategy as "an individual's approach to a task; it includes how a person thinks and acts when planning, executing, and evaluating performance on a task and its outcomes. Learning strategies is also defined as goal-directed cognitive operation employed to facilitate performance. Learning strategies are ways of thinking, acting, and performing that embrace learning. The learning strategy curriculum is a system of learning strategies that enables students to acquire, store, and express information" (Knight, 1993, p. 36).

In a special program at the University of Kansas, students never hear more than three statements without being asked to provide a response. This is because students learn all essential information through three modalities: visually, from an overhead; orally, from verbal instruction; and kinesthetically, through note-taking. The students are walked through the thinking process used in the strategy. The students take turns naming the steps of the strategy, demonstrating understanding of the strategy, and demonstrating mastery of the self-instructional process and related concepts. Making use of precise vocabulary is very important for the effective mastery of new skills and strategies. The instructor demonstrates explicit cognitive and metacognitive thinking as well as overt
acts used in the strategy. Mastery can demonstrate to students that they can be successful academically (Knight, 1993).

Intensive instruction in a few strategies has shown that it is more beneficial than superficial instruction in many learning strategies. Learning strategy instruction can affect retention and achievement of low-achieving students. "One of the most powerful characteristics of strategic instruction is that it provides students with an opportunity to succeed in academic areas that have always frustrated them" (Knight, 1993, p. 39). Learning strategy instruction may be one way that schools can meet the challenge of helping students who are unprepared to meet the demands of the courses in which they are enrolled (Knight, 1993).

Language Learning Strategies

In learning a new language, students employ learning strategies: specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques to facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval or use of the new language. Research outside of the field of Second language acquisition (SLA) has proven that effective learners use learning strategies. The use of well chosen strategies distinguishes experts from novices in many learning areas. (Oxford, 1990)

Within the field of SLA, research indicates that the appropriate use of language learning strategies results in improved L2 proficiency. Effective L2 learners are aware of the strategies they use on a daily basis. There are many factors which influence the L2 students' choice of learning strategies: their motivation, gender, cultural background, nature of task, age and stage of language learning. "More highly motivated L2 students typically used more strategies than less motivated students, whether in intensive
classrooms, regular classrooms, or even in satellite language programs" (Oxford, 1990, p. 13). Researchers have found that cultural values are directly related to L2 students' learning styles and strategies.

Oxford (1990) has developed a strategy system that contains six sets of L2 learning behaviors. "This system is based on the theory that the learner is a 'whole person' who uses intellectual, social, emotional, and physical resources and is therefore not merely a cognitive/metacognitive information-processing machine" (p. 17). Table 2 gives the six sets of learning behaviors and their examples as developed by Oxford.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L2 Learning Behaviors</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Affective</td>
<td>• anxiety reduction through laughter and mediation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• self-encouragement through affirmations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• self-reward through praise and tangible reinforcement.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Social</td>
<td>• asking questions, cooperating with native speakers of the language</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• becoming culturally aware</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Metacognitive</td>
<td>• paying attention, consciously searching for practice opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• planning for language tasks</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• self-evaluating progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• monitoring errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Memory Related</td>
<td>• grouping, imagery, rhyming, moving physically, and structured reviewing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. General Cognitive</td>
<td>• Reasoning, analyzing, summarizing, and practicing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Compensatory</td>
<td>• guessing meanings from the context and using synonyms and gestures to convey meaning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. L2 Learning Behaviors (derived from Oxford, 1990)
Oxford believes that this theoretical orientation towards L2 learning behaviors has the potential to expand the traditionally limited concept of new language acquisition. The implication of this study has potential for ESL/EFL instruction. ESL/EFL teachers can help students to recognize the potential power in consciously using language strategies, to make learning fun, quicker, easier, and more effective. ESL/EFL teachers can weave learning strategy training into regular classroom curriculum to provide opportunities for practicing strategies. Recent L2 strategy research offers significant potential for ESL/EFL teachers who want to improve their instructional effectiveness.

**Learning Styles**

"Learning styles have been defined as physiological, cognitive, and affective behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Thus, learning styles are thought to be stable and enduring personal qualities and not easily acquired. Literature of learning styles has centered on three main qualities thought to be critical: physiology, cognition, and affect" (Horton & Oakland, 1997, p. 131). These qualities combined together form a distinct learning style for each learner.

Rayner & Riding (1997) define "learning style" as the manner in which different elements from five basic stimuli affect an individual's ability to perceive, interact with and respond to the learning environment. It is related to the three dimensions in the classroom: student attitudes toward learning; view of teachers and peers; and reaction to classroom procedure. The tantalizing prospect which clearly merits further attention is the idea that "style awareness" may help reach the "hard-to-teach" and perhaps contribute to
reducing failure generally by enhancing the learning process. "The need, well
documented in the literature, for clearer and well grounded development, suggests that
putting theory into practice is overdue, should inform the continuing research into style
and will need to involve a rationalization of style as a construct in the psychology of
learning" (Rayner & Riding, 1997, p. 23).

The basic dimension of learning style needs to be more clearly identified to
enable an elaboration of a personal learning style for the individual learner. The exact
nature of learning style and the interrelationship between style, strategy, and learning
behavior merits more attention. "Further work is required if the idea of learning style and
learning strategy is to be clarified, so that a definition of learning style and the
identification of the most style relevant characteristics in learners and instructional
settings might be realized" (Rayner & Riding, 1997, p. 24).

Identifying students learning style is the beginning of the process of making sense
of their patterns of learning and how to effectively use this knowledge in the classroom.
The behavioral patterns that surround each student are manageable if they are known to
the teacher.

If we are to make sense of style, find meaning in theory and realize the
"operationalization" of style in the educational system, the notion that learning
style is an individual, stable and person-centered construct, needs re-emphasizing,
with a view to developing a profile for an individual learner's learning style. This
profile should be basic, containing primary features of the individual's learning
repertoire which will reflect cognitive style and learning preferences; it should be
manageable, accessible and geared to the real world of education and training;
and it should be linked to an assessment procedure which is user-friendly for both
the teacher and student. Such a construct will ideally reflect a set of primary
individual differences that include cognitive, behavioral and affective features
combining to form the learner's learning style. (Rayner & Riding, 1997, p. 24)
Individual Learning Style

It is suggested that students learn best and retain more when all of their senses are involved, even if they prefer to use one sense more, than another. There are three distinct styles that are involved in the learning process. A visual learner prefers to learn by reading or by watching, while an auditory learner likes to learn by listening. The third learner is tactile, they learn best by doing, touching or manipulating objects by the use of their hands. "When an instructional mode does not appeal to your preferred sense, you must work harder to pay attention and stay interested. It is helpful to know that the older you are, the better able you are to adapt your learning style preference to the instructional mode in use" (Kanar, 1991, p. 8).

Learning strategies are methods employed by learners to facilitate their acquisition of knowledge. They are mental techniques to organize, implement, monitor, and adjust their learning behavior. Learning strategies are an important factor in the academic achievement of students. The more successful students are able to use various learning strategies in preparing for and taking tests and are better at managing their time.
Cooperative Learning is a teaching strategy that instructors can use to get students to work together in small structured groups towards a common goal while being held individually accountable for their own learning. This small group method provides teachers with techniques to improve learning and provide social relationships among students. Cooperative learning does not consist of a general or free discussion but is carefully structured and organized so that each learner can interact with each other and all learners are motivated to help each other to learn (Kagan, 1990). "Adaptations of cooperative learning can be effective at many age levels, from the late elementary grades up through adult levels. It can be used in both second and foreign language teaching situations" (Richard-Amato, 1988, p. 193). The teacher becomes a facilitator of learning and assists the groups to improve their interactions when needed (Yeh, 1992). The interaction of the group members is the basis of cooperative learning. Cooperative learning is more than a technique but a strategy to serve the overall needs of the students.

Instruction can be done in three different ways depending upon the goal structure of the lesson (Yeh, 1992): competitive, individualistic, or cooperative.

**Competitive.** If the lesson is structured for competition, the students will compete against each other for individual goals that only a few will attain. This goal structure allows for only a few to succeed while the rest will fail. In this situation, there will be negative interdependence upon each other (one wins if others "lose").
Individualistic. The lesson is structured for individual goals. Each student strives for their own goals and are not dependent upon others. There is no interdependence among the students. The learning situation becomes a struggle, because success is not dependent upon the success of others. The students feel that they are alone in their situation.

Cooperative. The lesson is structured for a cooperative goal. Students work together for a common goal so that their success depends upon the success of others and a sense of positive interdependence bonds them together. Their perception is to help each other to reach their common goal. This cooperative goal structure helps students to interact, discuss, and work together. Students will strive towards the goal of the group (Yeh, 1992).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Goal Structure</th>
<th>Situation for Students</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Competitive</td>
<td>I win, you lose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I lose, you win</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualistic</td>
<td>I win, you win or lose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>You win, I win or lose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>I win, you win</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I lose, you lose</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Three Kinds of Goal Structures in Cooperative Learning (Whisler & Williams, 1990, p. 7)
Each of the three structures in (Table 3) has a place in the curriculum but the cooperative structure is the most dynamic. The dynamics of the group takes precedence over the individual. There are many techniques that can be utilized in cooperative learning depending upon the needs of the class and the limitations of the instructor. These techniques can excite students and draw them into the learning process. Group work has its own rewards, of increased motivation, social interaction, and self-esteem. The group's success can give students identification with a group and success in general. Johnson and Johnson (1975) suggest that classrooms should be dominated by cooperative learning but is the least used of the three goal structures.

Cooperative Learning in Second Language Acquisition

Researchers have found that cooperative learning is a good method of teaching a second language (Yeh, 1992). There are advantages in using cooperative learning in English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. For limited English proficient (LEP) students, cooperative learning can provide increased opportunities for interaction among students. These interactions provide more practice time in the areas of listening and speaking. Non-native English speakers have shown gains in language acquisition and academic achievement in cooperative learning classes that are equal to or greater than that of traditional classroom instruction (Bejarano, 1987). There are many tasks that can be used in teaching English in a cooperative setting: such as role-play, group discussions, scenarios, solving mysteries, reading together, peer teaching, researching, and group projects (Coelho, Winer & Olsen, 1989).
Cooperative learning has many factors that contribute to English language learning, such as shared leadership, heterogeneous groups, positive interdependence of the group, explicit teaching of social skills, prioritization of academic and social goals, teacher interaction, responsibility for self and the group, and peers as the major resource (Whisler & Williams, 1990). Many studies have provided support for cooperative learning in a multitude of subjects, school settings and levels (Johnson & Johnson, 1975; Slavin, 1983). Cooperative learning has effected results in a variety of outcomes, such as increased motivation, interest, persistence in completing tasks, greater achievement, more positive attitudes towards subject matter and classmates, greater use of inferential and critical thinking, learning abilities, increased time on task, and higher levels of self-esteem and psychological health (Whisler & Williams, 1990).

The teacher's role is that of a facilitator, to monitor and help in the process or to clarify information that is given. The role of the teacher is significant if cooperative learning is to happen. "Cooperative learning appears to be an especially effective strategy that involves students in helping one another in small-group instruction and provides an opportunity for them to develop academically as well as socially. The major elements of cooperative learning include positive interdependence, individual accountability, collaborative skills, and group processing" (Correa & Tulbert, 1991, p. 30). In order to implement cooperative learning, teachers must arrange their classrooms to facilitate cooperation. Students are assigned to groups of two to six and are given instructional activities. In order to acquire the skills of the activity, students are held responsible for working cooperatively within their groups. Students are evaluated
individually and as a group. Cooperative learning enhances students' self-esteem and their motivation.

**Dynamics of Cooperative Learning**

Foreign language teaching has been recognized as needing a change from a teacher-centered environment to a student-centered one, where students can have more opportunities to interface with each other. Through group dynamics, students can increase their practice time in their target language by the use of pairwork and small groups. Cooperative learning takes a large class and breaks them into small groups for active participation by the students in discussion groups. Long and Porter (1985) reports that small group interaction allows for more talk by each of the students. When they are involved in active discussions, they gain confidence in using the target language. Di Pietro (1982) states that the dynamics of small group interaction allows for equitable distribution of participation among the students. Active communication is taking place within these groups. Learners are spending more time negotiating and checking on meanings in small groups, and they do not appear to be correcting each other (Bygate, 1987). Students are more willing to practice speaking the target language. Larsen-Freeman (1986) writes that the goal of teachers who use communicative language teaching methods is to have their students become competent communicators. Through cooperative learning, students learn to communicate through communication.

**Interaction in the Cooperative Learning Classroom**

Cummins (1986) attributes the failure of many students in developing language proficiency for academic success to the teacher-centered methodology used in many
language classrooms today. Students do not get chances to practice inside the classroom except to mimic the teacher in repeating words and phrases. This is not communication but a copying of speech, vocabulary and sound. Interaction is needed to bring out meaningful exchanges of information. Rivers (1987) indicated that "Students achieve facility in using a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to speaker and listener in situations of importance to both). This is interaction" (p. 4). Expressing one's own ideas and understanding those of others is the idea of interaction. Understanding the meaning within a context with nonverbal clues adds meaning to the verbal interaction.

Allwright (1984) considers interaction a fundamental part of the classroom pedagogy. Everything that happens in the classroom is through a person to person interaction. Interaction is a product of the actions of the participants. Vygotsky's (1978) theory of learning supports cooperative learning because people are connected to one another through the social world. Human learning is always mediated through others and these interactions are themselves mediated.

Rivers' (1987) theory of autonomous interaction in the language classroom states that interaction is not wasting time when there is so much to learn. Students increase their language abilities by listening and reading authentic material. Following their fellow classmates discussions and interacting with their peers can teach many things. Interactions are the use of all their language abilities to exchange and express real meaning in conveying messages within the group.
Psychological Development in the Cooperative Classroom

A major factor in the attainment of academic success is the sense of self-worth. Glasser (1986) points out one of the main psychological needs of all people is the need to belong. Most young people try to fulfill this need at school and everywhere they interact with others. If students cannot meet the requirements of the classroom, they can become isolated within the classroom. High achievers may also experience alienation if their success reflects badly upon others and can bring about peer rejection (Coelho, 1992).

Cooperative learning promotes higher levels of self-esteem through peer support and acceptance. Learning in the cooperative classroom is always to the benefit of the group; each member's success adds to the group's success. Students feel more in control of their learning and their destiny. A more positive attitude can improve their academic performance and create more positive interactions in the classroom. Students feel less anxiety and are motivated to learn in the cooperative classroom.

Cooperative language learning is increased through more opportunities for interactions in the classroom. Promotion of students' interactions improves communicative competence, lowers anxiety, promotes self-worth and increases their motivation to learn. Language learning is increased through the use of effective communication in the target language where information is shared and benefits all parties concerned.

Cooperative learning is a teaching strategy that instructors can use to get students to work together. This method is structured towards small groups with a common goal. Learners can interact with each other and all learners are motivated to help each other to
learn. Interaction of the group is the basis of cooperative learning. This method provides teachers with many techniques to improve learning and provides social interactions among students. Cooperative learning is effective for many age and grade levels.
Cultural Values Effect on Learning

Background in Hong Kong

Hong Kong's population is approximately 98% Chinese (Tan, 1997). Hong Kong Island was given to England after the First Opium War in 1842 by the Chinese government. Since then, England's influence has been felt in all parts of Hong Kong society. Education is no exception as the schools have struggled with teaching English (the official language of Hong Kong) while the majority of the students spoke Cantonese. English was the original colonial language in use in Hong Kong and after the Second World War, the major language of international commerce, communication and education. Chinese became an official language in Hong Kong only in 1975, thereby finally getting equal status as English (Adamson & Lai, 1997).

"From July 1, 1997, Hong Kong ceased to be a colony of the United Kingdom (U.K.) and became a special administrative region (SAR) of the People's Republic of China (PRC), rather than an independent state. Under the untested formula of 'one country, two systems', Hong Kong has been promised self-rule (except military defense, and diplomacy) by Hong Kong people and the maintenance of its capitalist economy, social system and ways of life for at least 50 years without compulsory convergence to the PRC's socialist system. Hong Kong higher education has also been promised the maintenance of its own characteristics including university autonomy" (Law, 1997, p. 187). This is where one might ask, will the concept of one-country, two-systems work in Hong Kong after 1997?
The British colonial government's involvement in education was minimal at best from the beginning, but Hong Kong had a timetable of 13 years to prepare for the changeover. During this time, the government made many changes in anticipation of the changeover. There were changes in the syllabus for subjects such as history, geography, and social studies to prepare students for the changeover. Civic education was emphasized, with greater coverage of the PRC to put them in a more favorable light (Tan, 1997).

The relative status of Cantonese vis-à-vis Putonghua (Mandarin) the official language of the PRC, has been relatively stable. The official position of Beijing has been to push for the use of Mandarin for official use only. Mandarin has been encouraged in the schools since the 1980's to prepare for the changeover and simplified Chinese characters have been introduced in Hong Kong to come in line to what is going on in the PRC (Tan, 1997).

Importance of English

The Basic Law stipulated that English be an official language after 1997 and higher education continues to adopt English as the only or major medium of instruction. This has been used as a means of upholding the quality of higher education and reducing students' learning difficulties, but the majority of students have had great difficulty in learning English, therefore they have been taught in Cantonese or a mixed code (Tan, 1997). This problem has led to the current situation in Hong Kong in which some schools teaching in English while other schools teach in Cantonese.
"The high status of English was also demonstrated at the time of the changeover by its role as the declared medium of instruction in more than half of the secondary schools. There is a strong belief, particularly in parents, that an English-medium education has greater prestige and economic returns. This belief is compelling, given that, in a refugee society such as Hong Kong has been, social status is achieved rather than inherited and is primarily indicated by financial success and that English provides the access to academic achievement, the principal determinant of social mobility" (Adamson & Lai, 1997, p. 6).

In reality, many schools declare themselves to be English-medium schools, but classes are conducted mainly in Cantonese or in a mixed code wherein Cantonese is interposed with key terms in English. The writing system in Chinese is the same, except that full characters are used in Hong Kong while simplified characters are used in the PRC (Adamson & Lai, 1997).

**Problems of Language**

The language patterns in Hong Kong have changed with the takeover in July 1997. English and Cantonese predominance has changed with the addition of Mandarin (Putonghua) as an official language in Hong Kong. Problems are posed for schools in two areas. The curriculum already is heavily biased in favor of language subjects and the necessary expertise for teaching Mandarin is not readily available. "The English language is perceived by many sectors of society as an essential subject for the economic prosperity of individuals and Hong Kong as a whole, even though it is largely irrelevant in the daily life of the general population" (Adamson & Lai, 1997, p. 5). This has created
problems for the students who are pushed into languages which are essential for their future but with nowhere to practice the language outside of the classroom. The predominance of Cantonese use in Hong Kong society has tended to handcuff the students' usage of English and its practice.

Even though 98% of the population of Hong Kong is ethnic Chinese, within the Chinese community there is considerable diversity in the spoken language. There are many dialects in addition to Hong Kong Cantonese such as Guangdong Cantonese, Chin Chow, Hakka, Shanghainese, Fujianese, Taiwanese, and Putonghua. "In formal writing, modern standard Chinese (MSC) is preferred" (Adamson & Lai, 1997, p. 6). MSC is based on the Putonghua dialect, which is used in Beijing. Beijing itself uses a simplified version of MSC for writing purposes. All this diversity has had its effect on the students' attempts to learn languages, especially the English language. English continues to be a sticky point when it comes to the language of instruction. Since the changeover in governments, there has been a change in schools policies; 90% of the secondary schools have gone to Cantonese as the medium of instruction and only 10% are in English, which is the opposite of what it was before the changeover (Adamson & Lai, 1997).

English, Chinese, and Mathematics are the three key subjects in the primary curriculum used for the purpose of determining the level of entry into the secondary school. The emphasis on these three subjects in the testing areas has forced the schools to focus on these subjects almost exclusively, leaving other subjects wanting for lack of funds and attention. The importance of testing in determining what schools are available
for the students helps determine their future; in terms of will they attend a university or not (Adamson & Lai, 1997).

The Education and Manpower branch of the Hong Kong government will not sponsor students at the university who fail to meet the minimum criteria in English (or Chinese) language and they will have to pay the full tuition (sponsored students pay only 18% of the tuition). This is very important for students who are trying to climb up the economic ladder through education. The competitive situation for places in the universities is very tough considering that there are only limited spaces for students every year. Since 1994, Hong Kong's higher education system has accommodated only 18% of the students aged 17 to 20 years of age. According to Law (1997) there are currently only six institutions that hold university status in Hong Kong.

- University of Hong Kong (HKU) 1911
- The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) 1963
- Hong Kong University of Science and Technology (HKUST) 1990
- Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HKPU) 1994
- City University of Hong Kong (City U) 1994
- Hong Kong Baptist University (HKBU) 1994

Two more are non-university institutions.

- Lingnán College (LC) 1967
- Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) 1994

Two are private colleges.

- Shue Yan Collage
Because of the limited number of openings at the tertiary level in Hong Kong, many of the students have opted for their education overseas. The vast majority have traveled to the U.S., where there are now nearly 40,000 students from mainland China and 12,000 from Hong Kong in universities in the U.S. All 10,000 of the top leaders of the People's Republic of China (PRC) have had one or more of their children study in the U.S. (Goodman, 1997). This shows the importance of English in mainland China, where it already has a high status because of its business applications.

Culturally Responsive Pedagogy

"Teachers need a culturally sensitive perspective on the common strategies they use for literacy instruction" (Jackson, 1994, p. 46). Jackson (1994) believes that there are many parts to a culturally responsive pedagogy, that each part is an integral part of the total picture in education.

Teachers must be able to build trust in order to engender in students a level of confidence and belief that what they do in class is worthwhile. Teachers need to examine their relationship with students in order to determine how effectively they are building trust. Teachers need to learn about their students' languages, interactional styles, learning styles, and values in order to become culturally literate about their students. Research shows that students have their preferred learning styles, which are culturally specific.

"Students from culturally different backgrounds may not have a perceptual style that helps in differentiating relevant information from irrelevant information; they may process information in nonlinear ways, tend to be physically active, and may value group
affiliation above individual competitiveness. Instructional strategies such as cooperative
learning provide a more appropriate cultural match between instructional styles and
learning style for some minority students and result in improved learning" (Jackson,
1994, p. 47). Some students are not prepared for culturally different environments. There
is a basic cultural mismatch occurring when students from diverse cultural backgrounds
come to school with different values of learning and where nonverbal behaviors are more
highly valued than institutional norms.

Students who are aware of their thought processes can modify how they approach
tasks to choose the best approach for them. "Scholars refer to the ability to control and
monitor thought processes as metacognition" (Jackson, 1994, p. 47). Using effective
questioning techniques to direct higher-order questions to all students. Higher-order
questions can affirm students' self-perceptions as learners, promote analytical and
evaluative thinking skills, and allow students to see themselves as knowledge producers
rather than knowledge consumers. Providing effective feedback can accentuate some
positive feature of the students' work; be specific and focus comments on academic
components of the work; communicate how to correct errors and improve overall quality
of the work. Being able to analyze instructional materials in order to fit the material to
the needs of the students. Establishing a positive home-school relationship to keep the
lines of communication open for feedback from the parents (Jackson, 1994).

Culture and Learning

Language, culture, and thought are thought to be parts of a whole. It has been
determined that integrative motivation has resulted in more effective language learning
than did instrumental motivation. This has created a more positive attitude in the person who is trying to learn the language. "It has been claimed that the conciseness and clearness of thought of a people depend to a great extent upon their language" (Valdes, 1986, p. 5).

Valdes (1986) characterizes acculturation as the gradual adaptation to the target culture without necessarily forsaking one's native language identity. The most important factor affecting acculturation is the "difference" or "social distance" between the two cultures. H. Douglas Brown (1980) has characterized that phase in learning a second language when the learner tends to speak an "interlanguage." Selinker (1972) claims that it is similar to pidgin as the "sociocultural critical period." Brown (1980) maintains that there is an important initial phase in one's encounter with a new culture when motivation is especially strong, when culture shock is often experienced, when a great deal of language learning must be accomplished. If this period passes without learners having reached or surpassed a certain threshold of communicative competence, what we term the acculturation threshold, they may well become "stuck" at a level of "functional competence" (Valdes, 1986).

The model of acculturation in Table 4 shows that there are four stages. The Tourist stage is the introduction phase of a new culture and language; this is when most of the learning takes place. The Survivor stage is when there is a functional understanding of the language and culture. At this point there is a threshold which takes a lot of acculturation before one can cross this point, which is called the acculturation threshold. It may take a lot of time before people can cross into the Immigrant stage.
Most people will never reach the final Citizen stage of acculturation, which is almost at the level of a native speaker (Valdes, 1986).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Our Model of Acculturation</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourist</strong> - The early phase, the new culture is almost inaccessible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Survivor</strong> - The stage of functional language and functional understanding of the Culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>The Acculturation Threshold</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Immigrant</strong> - The acculturation of an educated learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citizen</strong> - At almost the level of a native speaker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Model of Acculturation - adapted from Valdes (1986)

British cognitive psychologist Vernon Hamilton (1983) provides a theoretical framework for clarifying general cognitive abilities to acculturation. Hamilton's position is that the models of personality must be cognition-centered. His research demonstrates how verbal, spatial, and visual processes, though coded differently, require a single data-encoding system. One that can interpret the codes of the different systems for associative links to be meaningful, it is called language.

Cummins (1981) was the first to propose the distinction between what he called cognitive-language language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communication (BICS). CALP is language that is valued in the school setting and measured on achievement tests while BICS is the everyday language of society. Cummins claims that
children can develop BICS in two or three years, whereas CALP probably requires over five years to evolve to a satisfactory level. Although BICS are fundamentally different in any two languages, being a function of the sociocultural milieu and conversational conventions, CALP will always overlap to some degree because of the more universal strategies of academic thinking and writing.

The current view in second language research is that students learning a second language benefit from a positive "orientation" towards the language. A desire to identify with the target culture or associate with members of the target culture was shown to promote acquisition of the target language. Schumann (1978) suggested that unless second language learners are "driven" to internalize the culture, they would not go far in learning the language.

Lozanov (1978) speaks of the "infantilization" of the adult, the process of allowing the adult learner to develop childlike attitudes, and the lack of inhibitions, as essential in his approach. He also specifies that learners must assume new second language names and identities. The principle underlying the assumption of second language persona is sound.

"Second language learning in some respects involves the acquisition of a second identity. Guiora introduced the concept of language ego to capture the deeply seated affective nature of second language learning, stressing the necessity for permeable ego boundaries in order to successfully overcome the trauma of second language learning. Guiora and others have placed strong emphasis on affective characteristics of second language learning because of the highly social context of language.
learning is often second culture learning. In order to understand just what second culture learning is, one needs to understand the nature of acculturation, culture shock, and social distance" (Brown, 1980, p. 33).

**Culture Shock**

Culture shock refers to phenomena ranging from mild irritability to deep psychological panic and crisis. It is associated with feelings in the learner of estrangement, anger, hostility, indecision, frustration, unhappiness, sadness, loneliness, homesickness, and even physical illness. "Culture shock, then, is thought to be a form of anxiety that results from the loss of commonly perceived and understood signs and symbols of social intercourse" (Adler, 1972, p. 36). Culture shock can be reflected through anxiety and nervousness through any number of defense mechanisms: repression, regression, isolation and rejection. These defense behaviors speak in terms of a basic underlying insecurity which encompasses loneliness, anger, frustration, and self-questioning of competence. Without the familiar props, cues, and clues of cultural understanding, the individual becomes disoriented, afraid of, and alienated from the things that he knows and understands (Adler, 1972). A look inside any second language classroom can give us an idea of the anxieties that cultural shock fosters inside the students.

Culture shock can be viewed as a profound cross-cultural learning experience that leads to a high degree of self-awareness and personal growth. "A cross-cultural learning experience can be defined as a set of situations or circumstances involving intercultural communication in which the individual, as a result of the experiences, becomes aware of
his own growth, learning, and change. As a result of the culture shock process, the individual has gained a new perspective on himself, and has come to understand his own identity in terms significant to himself. The cross-cultural learning experience, additionally, takes place when the individual encounters a different culture and as a result (a) examines the degree to which he is influenced by his own culture, and (b) understand the culturally derived values, attitudes, and outlooks of other people" (Bateson, 1972, p. 211).

**Social Distance**

Social distance refers to the cognitive and affective proximity of two cultures, which come into contact within an individual. Schumann's (1978) hypothesis is that the greater the social distance between two cultures, the greater the difficulty the learner will have in learning the second language, and conversely, the smaller the social distance (the greater the social solidarity between two cultures), the better will be the language learning situation.

**Intercultural Perspective**

In looking at culture, we must acknowledging cultural differences. An important goal of language teaching is communicative competence and realizing that languages differ greatly in patterns and norms of interaction. Teaching culture in the classroom through the use of authentic points of view, which can identify similarities or differences in culture. The presentation of culture should be a view of life as seen from within the new speech community and what is important in the target culture (Valdes, 1986).
Intercultural perspective of English language teaching should have these basic understandings of language and culture. Languages cannot be translated word for word and the tone of a speaker carries meaning. Each language and culture employs gestures and body movements, which convey meaning. Languages use different grammatical elements for describing all part of the physical world. All cultures have taboo topics and in personal relationships, the terms for addressing people vary among languages (Valdes, 1986).

Techniques for Teaching Cultural Awareness

There are many methods of teaching cultural awareness; a few will be presented here. The comparison method begins with a discussion with a presentation of one or more items in the target culture that are different from the students' culture. The discussion centers on why these differences might cause problems. The cultural assimilator is a brief description of a critical incident of cross-cultural interaction that might be misunderstood by the students. After the description, students are given four possible explanations from which to choose the correct one. In the culture capsule, the teacher gives a brief presentation showing one essential difference between an American and a foreign custom. It is accompanied by visuals, which illustrate the difference and a set of questions to stimulate class discussion. Drama involves students in cross-cultural misunderstandings by having selected students act out a series of short scenes on a misinterpretation of something that happens in the target culture. The cause of the problem is clarified in the final scene. Total Physical Response employs a listening exercise, with a carefully constructed list of oral commands to which students respond.
The commands are arranged in an order that will cause students to act out a cultural experience. The Cultural Island is essentially a culture island through the use of posters, pictures, bulletin boards designed to attract student attention, eliciting questions and comments (Hughes, 1984).

Cultural Learning

Jacobson (1996) comments that there is little agreement about what constitutes international and intercultural knowledge, there is even less agreement about how it should be imparted: so teachers are left to their own devices when it comes to the classroom. "Therefore learning a new culture falls somewhat outside traditional classroom-oriented conceptualization of learning, and that such learning is not easily quantifiable; however, beyond these points, there is little agreement on what exactly constitutes learning" (Jacobson, 1996, p. 15). Learning a new culture can be a learning experience by sharing a way of making sense. Sharing in how others make sense of things without the benefit of a shared history and adding new cultural competencies, without abandoning old ones. Recognizing how others make sense does not require that we take on the culture but interacting in ways that make sense to them. Cultural learning is fitting and successfully negotiating one's way in the host culture (Jacobson, 1996). "Adaptation to change, then, implies learning new ways to assign meaning and value to events that appear, at least in some ways, meaningless or irrational; similarly, learning a culture means learning new ways of making sense and appreciating value" (Jacobson, 1996, p. 15). The outcome of some of these changes can include alterations in consciousness and changed lives.
Jacobson (1996) comments that "A new culture motivates and informs learning, providing the backdrop against which learning occurs and the standard against which it is measured: but the process of entering into others' ways of interpreting the world remains distinct from those of others, as though individuals immersed in a new contest must somehow remain distinct and abstracted from it in order to learn" (p. 15). As students learn the intricacies of the new culture, a change comes over the way they view the target culture and how they interact with the language and its uses.

"Learning a culture, then, means learning a new way of making sense of experience; at the same time, making sense of experience is rooted in self-concept, while self-concept is rooted in the contexts of relationships in which it is being formed. Learners are gaining not only particular knowledge and skills, but also a changed sense of identity through the social relations of learning. Learning a new culture is at least in part learning a new self" (Jacobson, 1996, p. 15). Culture has an integral part in language learning and must be taught as part of the curriculum in order for the students to get a total picture of the target language.

The five parts of the review of literature are pieces of the whole picture in second language acquisition. When they are combined together, they show a picture of high anxiety and stress. They show that cultural values have a definite effect on motivation and learning and there are many ways to teach languages. These separate pieces give glimpses of how second language acquisition has fared in the past and how it could be for the future.
CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL MODEL

This proposed theoretical model takes the factors that students bring with them to the classroom such as anxiety, motivation, and personal learning style and merges them with the techniques of incorporating culture, teaching of strategies, and cooperative learning to come up with the outcomes of the classroom. Some outcomes will be easily measurable such as test performance and language proficiency, while language enjoyment will be harder to assess. The following figure shows the model as it flows from the factors that students bring with them to the classroom, to the classroom techniques that the teachers can use, to the outcomes of the classroom.

Figure 1. Theoretical Model
Explanation of the Model

Individual Factors

This model proposes that students bring with them a plethora of individual factors to the classroom, which the teacher has to deal with in order to create a learner-friendly environment in the classroom. Each factor will be summarized in turn.

Anxiety. Anxiety about language learning can affect students learning in the classroom and also affects their attitudes towards the language learning process. A little bit of stress and anxiety is good for the learning process, but when it becomes excessive, then it can adversely affect the students' learning abilities.

Motivation. The motivation that students bring with them to the classroom can help or hinder them, depending upon the amount that they bring with them. High motivation can help them to overcome obstacles that get in their way and give them the determination to learn. If they don't have enough motivation they can be overcome by the smallest obstacle in their path and then give up on language learning.

Personal learning style. By the time students have reached secondary school they have established a learning style of their own. It is the responsibility of the teacher to find out what that style is, and to use strategies that are matched to the learning styles of the students.

Classroom Techniques

Incorporating culture. Language, culture, and thought are considered parts of a whole; therefore the teaching of language without teaching the culture it represents is an incomplete education. The teaching of the target culture must be incorporated into the
teaching of the target language in order for the students to get a complete picture of the
language and its usage.

The first phase when one encounters a new culture is very important. Motivation
is very strong at the beginning of language learning; this is also when culture shock is
first encountered. A great deal of language learning must be accomplished within this
period in order for the learner to reach a level of communicative competence. In this
phase, it is very important to instill a positive orientation towards the language and a
desire to identify with the target language. This can help in promoting the acquisition of
the target language.

Teachers must acknowledge cultural differences and realize that language cannot
be taught word for word. Languages have their own gestures and body movements, some
of which are taboo; moreover the terms used in addressing people are very important.
The presentation of culture must be authentic and highlight the similarities and
differences in culture. All languages are social in nature. This can be used in the
classroom as a way of presenting the different ways that cultures influence society.

Teaching of strategies. Learning strategies are methods used by the learners to
help them in the acquisition of skills and knowledge. The learner activates these
strategies to encode and retrieve information from their memory. These mental
techniques are used to organize and elaborate on information, activate study strategies,
and cope with learning anxieties. The learner uses a variety of strategies to organize,
implement, monitor, and adjust their learning. The more strategies that they have in their
repertoire, the better equipped they are to control their own learning. Self-regulated
learning and study strategies can improve academic achievement. The more successful they are in managing their study time, the better they are able to prepare for and take tests.

One way for teachers to compensate for students' lack of a repertoire of strategies is for them to use strategic teaching, which is instruction in learning how to learn. The teacher models and guides the students in the use of learning strategies. Another is to promote higher student academic achievement through personalized learning. Personalized lessons use prior knowledge to help develop schemata on two different levels, both age and stage of development are critical factors in considering learning strategies.

Learners tend to use the easiest or most familiar strategies instead of what is the most appropriate for the instructional task; therefore, giving them additional strategies such as note taking, grouping, and structured review can give them a variety of choices to more effectively use their study time. Learning strategy instruction can affect retention and achievement of low-achieving students, and provide an opportunity to succeed in previously frustrating academic areas.

**Cooperative learning.** Cooperative learning is a carefully structured and organized learning method that can help learners to interact with each other and help each other to learn. The teacher becomes a facilitator of learning and assists the students in improving their interactions. In cooperative learning there are many techniques that can be utilized depending upon the needs of the class and the limitations of the teacher. These techniques can motivate students and help them along in the learning process.
Cooperative learning in the second language classroom provides increased opportunities for interactions among the students and more practice time in the areas of speaking and listening. It also contributes to increased motivation, interest, and more positive attitudes toward the target language and classmates.

Cooperative learning transforms a teacher-centered classroom into a student-centered environment where students can interact with one another and practice within the group setting. This takes the pressure off the students to perform in the classroom and allows them the freedom of learning with less anxiety and more self-esteem. The focus is on the conveying and receiving of authentic messages, not on copying the words of the teacher. Authentic interaction is what is needed to bring out the meaningful exchanges of information that is learning. The chief elements of cooperative learning are positive interdependence, individual accountability, collaborative skills, and group processing.

Teachers must arrange their classrooms to accommodate cooperative learning. The classroom setting itself must be conducive to learning and students can be made to feel that they can interact without pressure and stress. Students must be given specific instructions in order to acquire the skills of the activity. They must be held accountable for working cooperatively and evaluated individually and as a group on their progress. The dynamics of the small group allows for equitable participation among the students.

Outcomes

There are a variety of outcomes that are possible from classroom learning. Each one in the model will be discussed in turn.
**Test performance.** Both students and teachers expect measurable results, those that show up on tests. However higher test performance is only one of the outcomes of this model.

**Language proficiency.** An increase in language proficiency is also is a measurable result and can be found both in test results and in increased classroom skills.

**Enjoyment of the target language.** Enjoyment is not as easily measurable except through observations, questionnaires, and performance evaluations. It is found in the higher motivations of the students as they are observed in the classroom where animated conversations are going on among students and learning is taking place. When students are able to enjoy their language classes, greater learning takes place along with a deeper enjoyment of the language itself.

This model covers the individual factors that students bring with them to the classroom. It then takes those individual factors and combines classroom techniques to come up with the outcomes of the classroom. These outcomes of test performance, language proficiency, and enjoyment of the language tell us how well the students have learned the target language.
CHAPTER FOUR: DESIGN OF CURRICULUM

Method of Design

The design of the curriculum is derived from the research presented in Chapter Two, the literature review, and is used to operationalize the theory outlined in Chapter Three. This design follows the concept that, the individual factors brought by the students to the classroom can be used to tailor the curriculum to better enhance the learning environment for the students. The classroom techniques of incorporating culture, teaching of strategies, and the use of cooperative learning are integrated into the curriculum. These techniques are intertwined with other accepted methods of teaching to come up with an enhanced design that takes the positive parts of the classroom environment and adds the language learning enhancements that are found in contemporary literature. This design takes the idea that students are a product of their environment and uses that idea to enhance their learning. It also takes the students own culture into consideration when designing the curriculum and arranges the classroom into a more learner-friendly environment.

Description of Teaching Unit

This unit covers the area of health by focusing on three major areas of scrutiny: the areas of diet and nutrition, exercise and fitness, and stress. The target level is the EFL secondary school student with an intermediate level of English.

The unit is set up to use many different techniques of teaching, including Total Physical Response, group-work, and basic lecturing. Cooperative learning is used from the beginning so that the students can get used to working together. The topic that was
chosen, health, is something that they can relate to in their daily lives but also lends itself to active listening. Total Physical Response is used in the form of exercises in Lesson 2 as they test each other for fitness. In addition to exercise and fitness, the lessons cover stress and ways of dealing with stress. Stress is dealt with in a group setting in order to encourage students to participate by incorporating input from their own lives. This is the perfect setting to introduce differences in culture and how cultures differ in dealing with stress. When students can concentrate on the content, then legitimate communication becomes a part of learning. They are then given ways to deal with stress by learning proper breathing and the use of laughter.

Each lesson includes vocabulary words whose meaning can be found in the lesson instead of in the dictionary. The unit ends with the importance of diet and nutrition in their lives and the differences in diet in different cultures. This last part encourages critical thinking on the part of the students to get them to think in English.

Strategic teaching will be used to teach the strategies of learning. One strategy will be emphasized within each unit to help the students to enlarge their toolbox of learning tools. This strategy will be reinforced during each class period to help the students become familiar with the strategy and to be able to use it on a daily basis.

**How Theory Fits the Lessons**

The unit uses the classroom techniques expounded upon in the literature review and theorized in Chapter Three. Several different classroom techniques are used to cover the many personal learning styles of the students. Differing learning styles tend to allow the students to learn at different speeds, therefore using several different classroom
techniques helps to cover the many ways of learning featured in the second language classroom. The three basic learning styles; auditory, visual, and kinesthetic, are covered by the different techniques used in this unit. Total Physical Response (TPR) helps the kinesthetic learner by using a total body approach to learning, and motivates students to see learning as more than just reading and writing but as a total body experience. The visual learner is addressed by the many handouts and visual representations that are available in the unit. The auditory learner can follow the classroom lectures and the many directions available in a cooperative learning situation.

The anxiety level may be high in the second language classroom in the beginning, but by using cooperative learning, the anxiety level may be lowered as students learn to interact with each other. A higher level of communicative competence can be reached as students learn together. As the levels of students' interactions rise, the anxiety level will become lower. As students become familiar with each other and classroom procedures, they will accept the group concept of learning, which lowers the pressures to perform in the classroom and will accept the responsibility for their own learning. Cooperative learning is assessed individually and as a group; this builds group cohesiveness and interdependence as students help each other to reach their goals as a group.

The affect of the classroom environment and the attitudes of the teachers themselves on the motivations of the students had been shown in the literature review to be related. This can be used inside the classroom to create a more learner-friendly environment. The grouping of students inside the classroom can make it easier for the
students to participate in cooperative learning and foster more interaction among the students.

The topic in this unit was chosen as a form of motivation for the students because of their familiarity with stress and health in their own lives. When the content is of interest to the students, they can overcome obstacles in their way and are more motivated to learn. The literature on cooperative learning has already shown that motivation is higher when students work in a group; this leads to lower anxiety levels. The unit uses this philosophy inside the lessons where the students are grouped in pairs, small groups, and individually to work towards a common goal.

The design of the unit follows the theory that is presented in Chapter Three. This design takes the individual factors that students bring with them to the classroom and tailors the curriculum to enhance the learning environment. Various accepted methods of teaching are intertwined with techniques of incorporating culture, teaching of strategies, and the use of cooperative learning to enhance the classroom learning environment. This unit follows that design to lower students' language anxieties, and to make the classroom more learner friendly.
CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT

The basis of assessments for the instructional unit comes from the content of the lessons. Assessment is an integral part of instruction and different methods and instruments are incorporated as part of the assessment process. Each assessment focuses on the development of a different skill over a range of abilities. Assessment occurs continuously as the learning process continues. Assessment of ability is over a variety of contexts.

The assessment program covers what the student actually does in the classroom and over an extended period of time. This results in a more comprehensive picture of the learning process. Students are active participants in the assessment process, by means of self-assessments, peer assessments, and formative assessments in oral discussions and written discourse. This assessment process contributes to the understanding of the students' progress within the classroom. Authentic assessment is, and always will be, part of the learning process where it supports learning with continuous updates on the progress of the students and on the strengths and weaknesses of the program. Because students are part of the assessment process, they will be more informed and will have greater input in their own education.

Unit Assessment

The assessments in this unit cover the five developmental skills: speaking, listening, reading, writing, and content (as shown in Table 5) that are part of every classroom. The unit starts with a lesson on exercise and fitness and tests word recognition and reading comprehension. Students' prior knowledge of physical fitness is
used to create a master fitness plan for the students. Peer assessment is used to evaluate the students' master fitness plan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities Covered</th>
<th>Lesson 1 (Yes/No)</th>
<th>Lesson 2 (Yes/No)</th>
<th>Lesson 3 (Yes/No)</th>
<th>Lesson 4 (Yes/No)</th>
<th>Lesson 5 (Yes/No)</th>
<th>Lesson 6 (Yes/No)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>Speaking</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>No</td>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Assessment Matrix

The following lessons use a variety of assessment tools such as oral assessment, visual assessment, peer assessment, self-assessment, spelling tests, listening comprehension tests, writing assessments, and reading comprehension tests to evaluate the students' progress in this unit. The students are actively involved in learning and assessing themselves and each other as they progress through this unit. The focus of this unit is to have the students so actively involved in individual and group activities that the language used becomes actively acquired. When the lesson incorporates prior knowledge as part of the opening phases, second language learners are more actively involved in the
lesson. The lesson thus engages students in the task involved rather than in the learning of decontextualized language.

The assessments in this unit cover a wide variety of areas and outcomes. The students are kept up to date on their progress, so they can play an integral role in the assessment process and have control of their own educational progress. Traditional testing is combined with group and individual assessments to get a complete picture of the students' progress in the classroom.
APPENDIX A: UNIT PLAN

This unit covers the area of health by focusing on three major areas of scrutiny. The areas of diet and nutrition, exercise and fitness, and stress are covered in this unit. The target level is the EFL high school with an intermediate level of English.

The unit is set up to use many different techniques of teaching, including total physical response, basic lecturing, and group-work. Cooperative learning is used in the beginning so that the students can get used to working together. With the appropriate topic, Total Physical Response is used in the form of exercises in Lesson Two to test for fitness. From exercise and fitness the topic shifts to stress and ways of dealing with stress. Stress is dealt within a group setting encouraging students to participate by asking for input from their own lives. Students are then given ways to deal with stress by teaching them proper breathing and the use of laughter to combat stress.

Each lesson includes vocabulary words whose meanings can be found in the lesson instead of the dictionary and a learning strategy is introduced to the students. Last but not least the final topic of the unit is the importance of diet and nutrition in their lives. This final lesson uses more critical thinking on the part of the students to get them to think in English. Thus, the unit on health becomes thought-provoking and personal.
Lesson 1 – Exercise and Fitness

Objectives – To describe the kinds of physical fitness and the importance of each.

To match different kinds of activities to the type of fitness

To make a fitness plan

Introduction – Ask students if they know what fitness is and how many of them think that they are in good shape.

Vocabulary: cardiovascular, muscular, flexibility, strength, and fitness. Introduce the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain 1 – Focus Sheets 1A & 1B will give information on fitness and parts of the body affected by fitness. This reading exercise will focus on fitness vocabulary and reading comprehension. Focus Sheets 1C & 1D will cover the benefits of fitness.

Assessment – Test Sheet 1 will be used to test the students’ word recognition and reading comprehension of the articles given to them on the different kinds of fitness.

Task Chain 2 – Students will be and given Focus Sheets 1E, 1F, & 1G. Their assignment will be to match the different kinds of activities to the type of fitness promoted.

Assessment – Test Sheet 2 will be used to test the students the knowledge of fitness activities and their affect on the body. Test Sheet 2 will cover objectives 1 & 2.

Task Chain 3 – Students will be paired up and given Focus Sheet 1H & Work Sheet 1. Their assignment will be to make a fitness plan from the materials given that fits their
interests and focuses on what is needed for their health and well being. They will be given a fitness checklist.

**Peer Assessment** – Each team will fill in Work Sheet 1 as their master plan to get into shape. This sheet will be their schedule of physical activities, which most fits their needs and is conducive to their lifestyle and to see if they see the importance of being physically fit. (Each team must meet the criteria given on the fitness plan)

**Communication Challenge** – Go over vocabulary words to see if the students are now familiar with the terms used in this lesson.
Types of Fitness

How fit are you?

Physical fitness is important for good health. When you are physically fit, your body is in good condition. When you are healthy, your body lets you do the things you want to do and need to do.
Five different kinds of fitness are important for good health.

**Cardiovascular fitness** means that your heart and lungs are strong. When you ride a bicycle or swim, you are building your cardiovascular fitness.

**Muscular endurance** means that you can use your muscles for a long time without tiring. When you hike or go jogging, you are building your muscular endurance.

**Flexibility** means that you can move your joints easily. Your knees, elbows, and shoulders are joints. When you dance or do gymnastics, you are building flexibility.

**Strength** is the amount of force your muscles can produce. When you lift weights, you are building muscle strength.

**Body fatness** is the amount of fat in your body. Everyone needs some body fat. But if you have too much body fat, your body has to work harder to carry its weight. You have a greater risk of heart disease. When you go cross-country skiing, you are helping to reduce your body fat.
Focus Sheet 1C

THE BENEFITS OF FITNESS
When you exercise, your body's systems begin to work together. Vigorous exercise helps prepare the lungs and heart to take in and distribute oxygen ($O_2$) to active muscles. The effective use of $O_2$ results in more stamina, better resistance to disease, and a younger, more vibrant appearance. As you become more fit, you'll notice other benefits, too—such as greater confidence and self-esteem, better ability to handle stress, and an improved quality of life.

Your $O_2$ Connection
Oxygen is life itself. In order to come alive, you had to breathe oxygen. In order to stay alive, you need to continue taking in oxygen and distributing it throughout your body. When you’re unfit, your body doesn’t use oxygen efficiently. Regular exercise enhances your ability to use oxygen more efficiently.

Your $O_2$ Intake
When you are unfit, even mild exertion will make you huff and puff. It’s not because your lungs are inadequate. It is the inability of your body, particularly your muscles, to use oxygen efficiently.

Your $O_2$ Pump
A neglected heart can fall into disrepair. It can only pump a lesser amount of blood, and with exertion it has to overwork to keep up with the body’s demand for oxygen. A strong heart doesn’t have to work as hard since it can pump more blood per beat.

Your $O_2$ Circulatory System
When you don’t get enough exercise, fatty deposits can clog your blood vessels and reduce the flow of blood and $O_2$. Exercise increases the resiliency of your arteries, decreases fat levels in the blood, and helps prevent the formation of blood clots that may interfere with circulation.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
Focus Sheet 1D

A Stronger You
Muscle that is underused and out of condition does not make use of O₂ as well as fit muscle. Moreover, when you don't use a muscle, it shrinks and becomes more prone to injury. As you gradually ask more from your muscles, they will grow stronger, firmer, and more resilient.

A Firmer You
Without adequate exercise, muscles lose their tone. Fat can accumulate in and around the muscle bundles. Fatty deposits can build up under the skin, causing it to stretch and dimple. Exercise can help eliminate fat deposits by reducing the overall total amount of body fat.

A More Enduring You
Deconditioned muscles have difficulty obtaining the oxygen they need to work efficiently. They tire out sooner than fit muscles do. An unfit body is more prone to injury and wears out faster than a fit one. A conditioned body has a better chance to keep going mile after mile, year after year.

A Happier, Healthier You
A fit body that can take in and use O₂ efficiently is full of vitality. Being fit can make you proud of how you look and impart a sense of self-esteem. It also bolsters the body's natural resistance to disease. Another plus: exercise is a natural antidote to anger, depression, anxiety, and stress.

O₂ Adds Life
Fitness sets off a healthy chain reaction: you'll want to stay trim and healthy by eating right, not smoking, and maintaining ideal body weight—all changes that will add useful and productive years to your life.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
Language Assessment

A. Label the parts of the body. Use the words in the box.

| elbow | heart | lung | muscle | shoulder |

B. Draw lines from the kinds of fitness to their meanings.

**Kinds of Fitness**
1. cardiovascular fitness
2. muscular endurance
3. flexibility
4. strength
5. body fatness

**Meanings**
a. how easily you can move your joints
b. how strong your heart and lungs are
c. how much force your muscles can produce
d. the amount of fat in your body
e. how long you can use your muscles without getting tired

Chamot, et al., 1997
### Health Fitness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Activities</th>
<th>Builds Cardiovascular Fitness</th>
<th>Builds Muscular Strength</th>
<th>Builds Muscular Endurance</th>
<th>Builds Flexibility</th>
<th>Helps Control Fatness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bicycling</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dance, Aerobic</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hiking</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>fair/good</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judo/Karate</td>
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<td>fair</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roller Skating</td>
<td>fair/good</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>fair/good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight Lifting</td>
<td>poor</td>
<td>excellent</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>fair</td>
<td>fair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Write About It

List the physical activities you do. Write how often you do them. Next to each, write the kind of fitness it helps to build.

Look at your list. Is there one fitness area you need to improve? Plan an activity or exercise that will help build that kind of fitness. Decide how often you will do the activity and when you will do it.

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Chamot, et al., 1997
A BALANCED FITNESS PROGRAM

Now you know it’s safe for you to get moving with a fitness program. Try following the cycle of exercises below at least three times a week. You’ll likely notice an improvement in how you look and feel within a few months.

A balanced fitness program focuses on all the different muscle groups. It also promotes endurance, flexibility, and strength.

**Warm-ups** (5 minutes) greatly reduce your risk of injury during exercise. Mild stretching or simple calisthenics warm up your muscles and joints. This prepares your body for more intense exercise. Whatever activity you’ll be doing, start out at a lower intensity. If you’re going for a jog, ease into it by walking. If you’re going biking, begin by riding slowly.

**Aerobic exercise** (20–30 minutes), such as walking, jogging, cycling, or swimming, stimulates and conditions the heart and lungs. You’ll get results by doing aerobic exercise at least 20 minutes a day. Do enough to reach your target heart rate. Exercise often enough to maintain fitness (at least 3 times a week on alternate days). To get the full benefits of exercise, try to exercise 3 to 5 times a week. Of all the things you can do to become fit, aerobic exercise is the key.

**Muscle strengthening** (10–15 minutes) tones all your major muscle groups and provides strength and endurance. Fitness centers have special equipment to work each muscle group. You can also exercise at home, using weights or the resistance of your own body weight (with crunches or pushups). But don’t focus on just one or two muscle groups. Devote equal time to all of the body’s muscle groups for balanced tone.

**Cool-down exercises** (5–10 minutes) are similar to warm-ups. First, ease your body to a lower level of activity following the aerobic workout. Then, promote flexibility in your muscles and joints with stretches. When your body is already warm from exercise, muscles are pliable, more responsive to stretching, and less prone to injury. Stretching is also helpful in managing stress.

Total Exercise Time: 40–60 minutes

Set aside a convenient time to exercise. Exercise regularly, at least 3 times a week. Alternate days. You might slip off your schedule at times. But don’t fall behind on the aerobic exercise if at all possible. If you do, try to get back on your schedule as soon as you can.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
Focus Sheet 1G

WARM-UPS

Your body, like your car, needs to warm up to run well. Warm-up exercises prepare you for an aerobic workout. Include calisthenics such as light stretches, jogging in place, or skipping rope. Tailor your routine to your own needs. Here are some of the more common warm-up exercises.

Overhead stretch. Stand with your feet hip-distance apart. Bend your knees slightly. Pretend you're climbing up a rope, reaching straight up with your left arm, then your right. Repeat 5 times.

Walking or jogging in place. As a warm-up, lift the heels of your feet up and down. Walking or marching in place is a great warm-up, too. Swing your elbows, keeping them close to your body. If you are an active person, jog for a minute or two, or until you start breathing deeper and faster.

Calf stretch. Stand with your left foot close to the wall and right foot well back. Bend your left leg and lean toward the wall, keeping your right leg straight. Do this until you feel a stretch in the calf. Hold 5–8 seconds. Repeat 4–5 times, then switch legs. Then, to warm up the Achilles tendon, simply bend both knees. When you stretch, try to relax and breathe deeply.

Knee-to-chest pull. Stand against a wall, with your body balanced. Raise one knee toward your chest and grasp it behind the thigh with your hands. Hold the position for 3–5 seconds. Switch to the other knee. Repeat the stretch 4 more times on both sides.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
Test Sheet 2

Fill in the blanks (1 point each)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parts of Body</th>
<th>Types of Fitness</th>
<th>Examples of Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>3.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
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<td>8.</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

True-False Questions (2 points each)

1. The effective use of O₂ results in more stamina.  T  F
2. Regular exercise enhances your ability to use O₂ more efficiently.  T  F
3. Exercise increases depression, anxiety, and stress.  T  F
4. Fatty deposits can build up under the skin and dimple.  T  F
5. Exercise decreases fat levels in the blood.  T  F

Criteria = 80% passing
Make a fitness plan.

To be fit, you must exercise at least

- 3 times a week
- 20 minutes each time

The activities on the chart are good activities to do all your life. Each activity helps to build different kinds of fitness. The chart tells which kind of fitness goes with each activity.
Complete the sentences.

I would like to improve this fitness area: ____________________________

I will use this activity: ____________________________________________

I will do it ___________ times a week.

This is the time I plan to do it: ____________________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical Activities I Do</th>
<th>How Often?</th>
<th>Kind of Fitness the Activity Builds</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Chamot, et al., 1997
## Fitness Check List

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Yes / No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Able to find pulse and (RHR) Resting Heart Rate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to do the Step Hop</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to find the (THR) Target Heart Rate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness plan - 3 times a week / for 20 minutes each time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Must meet the criteria on the fitness plan)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 2 – Fitness Testing

Objectives – To know how to test for physical fitness.

Introduction – What do they consider when they think of being fit? Does this fit with what is generally known about physical fitness?

Vocabulary: aerobic, anaerobic, exercises, stretch, bend, and raise. Go over the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain 1 – Students will be paired up in this exercise to test each other for physical fitness. This will entail the students doing an exercise while their partners test them for their fitness; then the roles will be switched until all students are tested for fitness.

Modeling of exercises and Focus Sheets 2A & 2B will give instructions on how to test for fitness.

Assessment – The teacher will walk among the students to make sure that they are testing each other correctly. An oral assessment can be taken by asking the students for the results of their tests by asking for a show of hands.

Task Chain 2 - Students will remain in pairs to find their (THR) Target Heart Rate. They will be given Focus Sheets 2C & 2D to find out more about fitness and how to find their target heart rates.

Assessment - The results of the testing will be discussed in class with each team giving their results and discussing the merits of the test. Finding their Maximum Heart Rate, Resting Heart Rate, and Target Zone to find their Target Heart Rate will be the criteria for this test.
Task Chain 3 – This task will focus on word recognition and critical thinking ability through the use of a fitness crossword puzzle. Work Sheet 2 will be handed out to students to do in class individually. This task is its own self-assessment.

Assessment – Review testing procedures for fitness and vocabulary words. Spelling test over Lessons 1 & 2.

Communication Challenge - Review the vocabulary words used in the lessons while it is still fresh in their minds. Go over what was done in this lesson and how it affects them in their own lives.
Steps to Fitness

Test your cardiovascular fitness.
Cardiovascular fitness increases your energy level. It helps you stay active for longer periods of time without tiring.

Do this activity to test your cardiovascular fitness.

**Things You Need**

- a watch or clock with a second hand, or a stopwatch

1. Run in place for 1 minute. Take 2 steps each second. This is 120 steps in all.
2. Rest for 1 minute.
3. Feel your pulse. Count your heart rate for 30 seconds.

If you are fit, you will count fewer than 75 heartbeats.

**Do an aerobic exercise.**

Many people do **aerobic exercises** to build cardiovascular fitness. Your heart is a muscle. Aerobics help exercise your heart.

Read the directions for Step Hop and try it.

1. On count 1, step forward with your right foot.
2. On count 2, step forward with your left foot.

3. On count 3, step forward with your right foot.

4. On count 4, hop on your right foot, kick with your left leg, and clap your hands.

5. Repeat the four counts, but start with your left foot.

6. Do the exercise quickly in time with music.

**Word Bank**
- bend
- jump
- raise
- stretch
- touch

**Talk About It**
What other exercises do you know? Show them and explain how to do them.

Chamot, et al., 1997
Focus Sheet 2C

FITNESS—THE INSIDE STORY

Fitness begins inside the muscle cell. Unfit muscle cells are unable to use oxygen to make energy, so they tire out quickly. Adequate exercise increases your muscle’s capacity to take in and use $O_2$ to power your movement. The story of cellular fitness can be told as a tale of two furnaces: the one that is starved for oxygen runs inefficiently; the one that uses oxygen runs smoothly, longer, and at peak efficiency.

**Anaerobic metabolism** means “making energy without oxygen.” The muscle cell that is forced to rely on anaerobic metabolism runs inefficiently and loses energy quickly. Just as a poorly ventilated furnace burns unevenly and needs a lot of kindling to keep going, the muscle cell must gobble up large quantities of glucose [sugar], producing little energy for the amount of fuel taken in. At the same time, it gives off acid, which impairs functioning, like soot in the poorly ventilated furnace. And because the anaerobic mechanism can’t metabolize fat, losing weight can be difficult.

**Aerobic metabolism** is a way of making energy by using oxygen. Aerobic exercise—the kind that raises your heart rate—actually changes the biochemical structure inside the muscle cell so that it can use oxygen more efficiently. The aerobically conditioned muscles can use slower-burning “fat logs” instead of the glucose “kindling.” That means less waste, so your muscles can power you through a day’s activities with plenty of endurance and reserve. Burning fat makes it easier to lose weight, too!

Puglizevich & Ryan, 1995
SETTILING YOUR PACE

How do you know that you’re doing aerobic exercise? You breathe deeper and faster than normal. Your heart rate should also increase. But how far should you go? To find your safe and most efficient level of exercise, you need to know your target heart rate (THR). First, find your pulse and take your resting heart rate. Then, fill in the chart below. By using your THR, you can exercise safely.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Target Heart Rate</th>
<th>Your Pulse</th>
<th>Resting Heart Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your target heart rate is your safe, effective exercise pulse, given your age and current level of fitness. Your THR shows you’re exercising at the right pace for you. This means not so hard that it hurts and you get discouraged, and not so easily that you don’t see results.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try finding your pulse either on the thumb side of your wrist, palm up, or in the groove of your neck. Use your first two fingers (not your thumb). Press lightly and practice counting the number of beats per minute. During exercise, you can take your pulse for 10 seconds.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your resting heart rate [your pulse at your lowest level of activity] helps you figure your target heart rate. For an accurate resting heart rate, take your pulse for a full minute when you first wake up, still lying down. Do this two mornings in a row. Then average the two numbers.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Find Your Target Heart Rate

Now you are ready to find your target heart rate. Just fill in your age, resting heart rate, and target zone, and follow the instructions for your 1-minute THR and your 10-second THR. During aerobic exercise, take your pulse once you start sweating lightly and breathing harder (about 3–5 minutes into your workout). If you’re below your THR, you can push yourself a little harder. If you’re above, slow down a bit and take it easy.

Everyone starts here. Subtract your age. This is your maximum heart rate, the fastest your heart should beat at your age. Subtract your resting heart rate (see paragraph above right). Choose your target zone, based on how fit you are. Start with a lower THR and work your way up as your fitness level improves. Beginners use 50%–60%. Intermediate exercisers: 70%–75%. Competitive athletes: 85%. Multiply by .50, .55, .60, .70, .75, or .85. Add your resting heart rate. This is your 1-minute target heart rate (THR). Tip: Divide by 6 so you can take your pulse for 10 seconds during exercise.

Listen to your body for signs of overexertion when you exercise. The THR formula is only a general guide. Stop exercising and see your doctor if you have pounding in your chest and a dizzy or faint feeling, or profuse sweating. You might be exercising too hard if you feel fatigued or have sore muscles long after exercise.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
Fitness Puzzle

Fill in the puzzle with the words below.

BEND
CARDIOVASCULAR FITNESS
FOOT
FORWARD

JUMP
LEFT
RAISE
RIGHT

STEP
STRETCH
TOUCH

Chamot, et al., 1997
Spelling Test 1 & 2

1 Point each

1. ________________ is how easily you can move your joints.

2. ________________ describes how strong your heart and lungs are.

3. How much force your muscles can produce is ________________.

4. The amount of fat in your body is ________________.

5. ________________ describes how long you can use your muscles without getting tired.

6. ________________ is flexing of the leg at the knee joint.

7. You ________________ your hand before answering a question in class.

8. Warm-ups before exercise is a good way to ________________ your muscles.

9. You bend over to ________________ your toes to test for flexibility.

10. The Hop, Skip, and a ________________ is an Olympic event.

Criteria = 80% passing
Lesson 3 – Stress

Objectives – To list and describe the common causes of stress.

To describe how the body responds to stress.

To identify what stresses them

Introduction – Find out if the students know what stress is and do they have stress in their lives.

Vocabulary: perspiration, glands, digesting, adrenaline, and chemical. Go over the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain 1– Have a class discussion on what is stress and what are the causes of stress. Find out what causes stress for the students. Make a listing on the board of all the causes the students can think of that might cause them stress. Have the students, rate the causes on what would cause high, medium, and low stress.

Assessment – Orally go over the list on the board.

Task Chain 2–Give out Focus Sheets 3A, 3B, 3C & 3D on what stress is and how the body responds to stress and how many of these signals show up in each of the different causes that the students came up with. Students will work in pairs describing to each other the symptoms of stress. They will use the Stress checklist to check for the right answers.

Assessment – Work Sheet 3 will be handed out to assess comprehension of discussion on the causes of stress and the body's responses to stress.
**Communication Challenge** – Go over answers to Work Sheet 3 and the Stress checklist and review vocabulary. Homework - a one-page paper on What Stresses Me using the new vocabulary words learned in the lesson.
Focus Sheet 3A

**WHAT IS STRESS?**

What do you think of when you hear the word “stress”? Well, one thing is certain—there are as many different ideas about stress as there are people who experience change in their lives. Because stress, quite simply, is the way you react—physically and emotionally—to change. Like change, stress can be either positive or negative. Stress may be the sense of concentration you feel when faced with a new and challenging situation; it may be the vague sense of anxiety you feel after “one of those days!” In any case, you can learn to manage stress so that you can be in control.

### Positive Stress

In its positive aspect, stress can help you to concentrate, focus, perform, and can often help you to reach peak efficiency. Many people, in fact, do their best work when under pressure. Then, when the challenge has been met, they take the time to relax and enjoy their achievements. This relaxation response allows them to build up the physical and emotional reserves to meet the next challenge, and is one of the key elements of positive stress.

### Negative Stress

Stress becomes negative when you stay “geared-up” and don’t—or can’t—relax after meeting the challenge. In today’s world, where many situations can “push your buttons,” it’s no wonder some people think of stress as a way of life. Unfortunately, when stress becomes a constant, ongoing cycle, your health and well-being can suffer. Negative stress has been linked with many physical ailments—from tension headaches to heart attacks. The good news is that stress needn’t be hazardous to your health. You can learn to manage the stress in your life, and you’ll be happy that you did!

*Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995*
What causes stress?

The changes people experience in life can cause stress.

**Moving to a New Place**

Moving to a new place can cause stress. You miss the family and friends you left behind. You have to learn new ways of doing things. You might even have to learn a new language.

Your whole family might feel stress. They may have to get new jobs. They may worry about money.
Going to a New School

Going to a new school can cause stress. You might worry about whether you will be able to do the schoolwork. You might worry about whether you will make friends. You might worry about whether the other students will like your clothes. If you speak a different language, you may worry whether you will understand the teacher and be able to study in English.

The stress in new situations does not have to be negative. You might see such changes as a chance to really do your best. The stress you feel might help you to do this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Some Common Causes of Stress</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arguing with parents about rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arguing with brothers or sisters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having a friendship begin or end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having trouble with a school subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Write About It

Make a list of things that have made you feel stress. Then put them in order. Write the thing that caused the most stress at the top.
Focus Sheet 3D

How Your Body Responds to Stress

- The mouth may feel dry.
- The heart may beat faster.
- The lungs may breathe faster.
- The stomach may speed up or slow down digesting food.
- Perspiration may appear on the skin.
- Blood may race through the body.
- Glands may send a chemical called adrenaline through the body. The chemical gives the body energy.

Think About It

Why would happy feelings cause stress?
Why would sad feelings cause stress?
Why would problems cause stress?
**Stress Check List**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Yes/No</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Physical Reaction (What is stress)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Emotional Reaction (What is stress)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Body Signs (dry mouth)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Faster Heart Beat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Faster Breathing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Upset Stomach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Perspiration on Skin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. High Blood Pressure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Reacting to Stress

Think of the correct word to complete each sentence. Then write the word in the crossword puzzle.

Across
1. _____ may send a chemical called adrenaline through the body.
2. The _____ may breathe faster.
3. Perspiration may appear on the _____.
4. The _____ may feel dry.
5. _____ may race through the body.
6. The _____ may beat faster.

Down
2. The _____ may breathe faster.
3. The _____ may slow down or speed up digestion.
4. The _____ may feel dry.
Lesson 4 – Dealing with Stress

Objectives – To learn what emotions are pleasant or not.

To learn ways to deal with stress.

Introduction – Review what was learned about stress from the previous lesson and go over the homework on what stresses are in their lives.

Vocabulary: angry, excited, nervous, scared, worried, sad, and happy. Go over the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain 1 – Introduce emotions to the class by the use of the vocabulary words. Have the students discuss what emotions are positive and what emotions are negative in their lives and at what situations they show up and why.

Assessment – Work Sheets 4 & 5 will be used to assess if students can comprehend the difference between positive and negative emotions and what situations cause certain emotions.

Task Chain 2 – Go over the ways to deal with stress such as the use of laughter and breathing exercises. Model these exercises for the students and have them follow. Go over Focus Sheets 4A, 4B, 4C, & 4D on stress awareness and how to deal with stress.

Assessment – Have them list, what problems causes them stress in their own lives and try these stress busters on them. Walk among the students to see if they are doing the exercises correctly.

Communication Challenge – Review emotions and the ways to cope with stress using the vocabulary words. See if the class understands the coping mechanisms for stress.
Language Assessment

A. Write each word from the box under the picture where it belongs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>angry</th>
<th>happy</th>
<th>sad</th>
<th>worried</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>excited</td>
<td>nervous</td>
<td>scared</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Draw lines from the words to their definitions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. stress</td>
<td>a. the act of sweating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. emotion</td>
<td>b. quick in thought or action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. alert</td>
<td>c. any strong feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. perspiration</td>
<td>d. a hormone that speeds up the heartbeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. adrenaline</td>
<td>e. strain or pressure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chamot, et al., 1997
Telling About Emotions

Read the following situations. Imagine what the person may feel in each situation. Write a sentence to describe the person’s feelings. Use may in each sentence. Use the words in the box to describe emotions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>afraid</th>
<th>excited</th>
<th>nervous</th>
<th>worried</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>sad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Louisa is moving to a new country. She is leaving her friends behind. She will not see them for a very long time.
   Louisa may feel sad.

2. Hector received a low grade in math. He knows that his mother wants him to get a good grade. Hector is sitting on the back steps of his house before showing his mother his progress report.

3. Mitsu hears strange noises in the back yard. She goes to find her father.

4. Frances and Isabel practiced for weeks. Today are the tryouts for the school play.

5. Isabel’s report is on the top of her desk. Alex and his friends are fooling around, and they accidentally spill water on her report.

6. Tomorrow Angela is flying to Guatemala to visit her family. She hasn’t seen her cousins during the past year.

7. Sandra is going to go to a summer camp for a month. It is the first time she is traveling without her parents.
STRESS AWARENESS

Becoming aware of stress is a two-fold process. First, try to recognize and identify the things in your life that cause you to feel stress. These stressors may be minor hassles, major lifestyle changes, or a combination of both. Then, once you realize what causes your stress, try to focus on how your body feels under stress. For example, you may know that getting caught in

RECOGNIZING THE PROBLEM

**Minor hassles** are those daily annoyances that are a part of day-to-day life. Traffic jams, missed buses, lost car keys, and petty disagreements are rarely earth-shattering events, but their side effects can accumulate. Even these minor irritations can lead to chronic, negative stress and health-related problems, so be aware of situations that "get your blood pressure up."

**Major changes** are any changes—positive or negative—that affect your lifestyle. Positive changes, like the birth of a new baby or a promotion, can be just as stressful as negative changes such as the loss of a loved one or being laid off from a job. Most major lifestyle changes require you to adapt to new or unknown situations, which in itself can be stressful.

**Stress overload** can occur when you find yourself faced with situations beyond your control that have combined to an unmanageable level. At home or in the workplace, there may be times when you feel pulled in so many directions at once that you’re not sure what to deal with first. Try to accept the fact that it’s virtually impossible to control all of life’s variables.

**Feeling helpless** often results when the cause of your stress is not easily recognizable or manageable. If you (or someone you know) feel as if there’s "no way out," or feel overwhelmed or depressed, seek out professional help. Your family physician, your employer, or your state and local health agencies can refer you to a specialist who can help you to cope with these feelings.

Puglizevitch & Ryan, 1995
traffic is one of your stressors, but do you know how your body reacts? Are
your muscles tense? Is your heart beating faster? Knowing your stressors, and
listening to what your body can tell you, can help you become aware of your
own individual stress reaction. This awareness, in turn, is the first step in
finding solutions to the problem.

**FINDING SOLUTIONS**

**Avoiding hassles** can help you to eliminate some of the minor irritations that lead to
chronic, negative stress. If rush-hour traffic "drives you up a wall," why not join (or start) a
carpool, or try taking public transportation? If rushing to get to work on time makes you
anxious, try getting up earlier, or look into taking a course in time management.

**Controlling lifestyle change** isn't as difficult as it may sound. When one aspect of
your life changes (positively or negatively), do what you can to limit other changes. If you've
become a new parent or started a new career, for example, make an effort to continue doing
the things that bring you pleasure—don't change your entire lifestyle just because one of
the variables is different.

**Take a break** when your stressors combine to the "I can't cope" level. Sometimes you
need a little distance from your problems to figure out how to deal with situations effect­
ively. Take a few minutes by yourself to calm down. Sit down, relax, and then decide what
needs to be done immediately, what can wait until later, and so on. Take it one step at a
time!

**Finding help** is the best solution when you feel overwhelmed or unable to deal with stress
on your own. First, you may wish to see your doctor who can help to rule out any medical
reasons for your problem. Then, if no physical problem exists, consider seeing a professional
counselor who can help you understand your feelings. Even when you feel "helpless," re­
member: help is available.
How can you deal with stress?

Your room is a mess. You have a math test in two days. Your mother is mad at you because you were late getting home. You feel stressed out. There are many ways to handle too much stress. Here are three ideas.

Do breathing exercises.

One way of dealing with stress is to relax. This exercise will help you relax.

1. Sit or lie in a comfortable position.

2. Breathe in through your nose as deeply as you can. Count to four while you hold your breath.

3. Then breathe out through your mouth. Count to eight.

4. Do this exercise three or four times.

Chamot, et al., 1997
Make a list.

What are your problems? Make a list.

- Are there problems that you cannot do anything about? Try to forget them.

- Put the other problems in order. Try to deal with them one at a time.

Try laughing.

Did you know that laughing can help you cut down on stress? Give a big smile and notice how the muscles in your face relax.

Luke: Hey, Mom, I got 100 today!
Mom: That's great. What did you get 100 in?

Try It Out

Find some jokes that make you laugh. Share one with a classmate. What is his or her response?

Chamot, et al., 1997
Lesson 5 – Nutrition

Objectives – To know the different food groups.

To know what the food pyramid is.

Introduction – Have students tell what they had for their last meal. Write these things on the board.

Vocabulary: servings, pyramid, sparingly, and healthy. Go over the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain – Go over the food pyramid on the board splitting up the pyramid into the different food groups and the number of servings needed each day. Explain the reason for the pyramid and what the items are on the bottom on up to the top. Give out Focus Sheets 5A, 5B, 5C, & 5D as readings on the food pyramid.

Assessment – Have students do a self-evaluation by

a. listing everything they ate yesterday
b. classify the foods, write them on a blank food guide pyramid
c. write the number of servings of each food
d. count the number of servings of each food

Communication Challenge – Find the results of the self-evaluation and review vocabulary words.
Focus Sheet 5A

Understand the Food Pyramid

The food pyramid below can help you choose foods that make up a nutritious diet. Each section of the pyramid is a food group. The smaller the section, the less of that type of food you should eat. Fat is in the section at the top, along with sugar. Keep in mind that many types of foods—especially dairy and meat—have some fat or sugar in them. So, no matter what you’re eating, think low fat and low sugar.

Eat Less Fat and Sugar
Foods like oil, salad dressing, butter, and margarine are high in fat. Soft drinks and candies are high in sugar. Chocolate, cookies, and sweet desserts are high in both.

Eat Some Dairy and Meat
These are foods like milk, yogurt, beef, fish, and eggs. They are good sources of protein and nutrients, but can be high in fat.

Eat More Vegetables and Fruits
Vegetables and fruits are foods like carrots, broccoli, apples, and bananas. They are good sources of vitamins, minerals, and fiber, and they contain almost no fat.

Eat Lots of Starches and Grains
Starches and grains should be the foundation of your diet. They consist of foods like bread, cereal, rice, pasta, and beans. They can be especially good sources of fiber, and most are naturally low in fat.
What's good to eat?

What should you eat to stay healthy? You will find out in this section.

1. Label

Classwork. Name the foods in each group.

- Fats, oils, and sweets
- Meat, poultry, fish, dry beans, eggs, and nuts
- Fruit
- Milk, yogurt, and cheese
- Vegetables
- Bread, cereal, rice, and pasta

The Food Guide Pyramid classifies foods into six groups. To stay healthy, you need to eat foods from each group.
Pairwork. How many servings of food do you need daily from each group?

Why do you think the Food Guide Pyramid has the shape of a pyramid?

Classwork. Your teacher will give you information about serving sizes. Then measure one serving of a food.

Materials: measuring cup, tablespoon, sample foods from each group

One egg
One slice of bread
One cup of raw leafy greens
One cup of milk
One orange

These pictures show one serving of different foods.
Focus Sheet 5D

On your own. Evaluate your diet.

a. List everything you ate yesterday.
b. Classify the foods. Write them on a blank Food Guide Pyramid.
c. Write the number of servings of each food.
d. Count the number of servings in each group.
e. Decide if you ate enough, not enough, or too much food from each group. Write your answers in an evaluation chart.

Self-evaluate

Morning  
breakfast  
egg, toast, 
bowl of cereal  

Afternoon  

eat  

Evening  

tomato sauce  

Bowl of  
vegetables  

Bowl of  
rice  

Lunch  
chicken,  
vegetables,  
peas,  

bread  

Dinner  

Bread - 4 servings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food Group</th>
<th>Number of Servings</th>
<th>Not Enough</th>
<th>Enough</th>
<th>Too Much</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bread...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vegetables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fruit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Milk...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fats...</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Lesson 6 – Healthy Diet

Objectives – To know what nutrients do for the body.

To know what the body needs to stay healthy.

Introduction – Review the food pyramid from the previous lesson and introduce the nutrient group.

Vocabulary: proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, minerals, and fats. Go over the learning strategy of guessing the meaning of words from the context of the words.

Task Chain 1 – Go over the nutrient chart and their functions and what foods are good sources of each. Have the students list the nutrient groups and what foods are in the group.

Proteins – help you grow – fish, eggs, beans, and milk

Carbohydrates – gives quick energy – bread, rice, corn, fruit, beets, and peas

Vitamins – help the body work properly – fruits and vegetables

Minerals – help the body work properly – fruits and vegetables

Fats – give energy to store – butter, ice cream, sausage, and potato chips

Assessment – Give the students Work Sheet 6 as an assessment tool to identify different foods and what nutrient groups they represent. Use an oral assessment, to see if students understand the connection between the foods that they eat and what their bodies need to be healthy.
Task Chain 2 - Give them Focus sheets 6A & 6B to go over what changes are needed for better nutrition and lifestyle. Discuss what changes they can implement into their lives that would give them better nutrition and a better lifestyle.

Assessment - Do work sheet 7 & 8 to assess their nutrition and lifestyle

Communication Challenge – Review vocabulary words and what they represent.
What’s for lunch?

Look at the lunches in the pictures below. List the things that are in each lunch. Use all the words in the box.

Info Box
- apple
- hamburger
- hot dog
- milk
- orange juice
- pizza
- potato chips
- salad
- sandwich
- soda
- soup
- tacos
- bowl of
- can of
- carton of
- glass of
- slice of

1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

What is your favorite lunch? Write about it.
Make Small Changes

Make sure you’re following food pyramid recommendations for better nutrition. Below you’ll find information about the number of servings you should eat and the amount of water you should drink. Make selections from the “healthy choices” and avoid foods from the “choices to limit.”

Why?
The ideal fuel for your body, your brain depends on starches and grains. They give you long-lasting energy and lots of nutrients.

Healthy Choices
Legumes (dried beans and peas), oatmeal, brown rice, whole-grain bread, and starchy vegetables like potatoes and winter squash.

Choices to Limit
Granola (high in fat), presweetened cereals, french fries, potato chips, nuts, white breads and rolls, donuts, pastries, and other rich baked goods.

Starches and Grains
6–11 SERVINGS/DAY
1/2 cup or 1 slice

Why?
Vegetables and fruits are rich in vitamins, minerals, and fiber. Of your five daily servings, try for at least one fruit rich in vitamin C and one dark green, leafy vegetable.

Healthy Choices
For vitamin C: cantaloupe, fresh oranges, grapefruit, tomatoes, and bell peppers. For leafy greens: fresh spinach, broccoli, and red-leaf or romaine lettuce.

Choices to Limit
Overcooked or fried vegetables; frozen vegetables in cheese or cream sauce; and canned vegetables and fruits with sugar added.

Vegetables and Fruits
5–9 SERVINGS/DAY
1 medium or 1/2 cup

Why?
Dairy foods contain calcium for strong bones and teeth, as well as vitamin B2, which converts food into energy you can use.

Healthy Choices
Nonfat or low-fat milk and yogurt, cottage cheese, buttermilk, and cheese made with skim milk.

Choices to Limit
High-fat dairy products: cheese, whole milk, cream, cream cheese, sour cream, and ice cream. Limit high-sugar, fruit-flavored yogurt.

Dairy
2–3 SERVINGS/DAY
1 cup or 1 ounce
Focus Sheet 6B

2–3 SERVINGS/DAY

3 ounces

Why?
Meat contains amino acids—the building blocks for growth and repair of all your body’s cells. It is rich in iron, B vitamins, and minerals.

Healthy Choices
Chicken and turkey without skin, fish and shellfish, and lean red meat such as lean beef, pork, or veal.

Choices to Limit
Fatty red meat (prime rib, filet mignon, spareribs), organ meats, and processed meats such as salami, bologna, hot dogs, and sausage.

Fat and Sugar
0–3 SERVINGS/DAY

1 teaspoon

Why?
Fat escorts vitamins A, D, E, and K into your bloodstream so your body can use them. Fats are an essential part of every cell. Sugar gives you energy.

Healthy Choices
Olive and canola oils (monounsaturated fats) and corn, safflower, sunflower, and other liquid vegetable oils (polyunsaturated fats). Natural sugars in fruits and vegetables.

Choices to Limit
Butter, lard, palm, and coconut oils (found in commercial pastry and nondairy creamer) and the fat on meats (all saturated fats). Processed sugar found in cakes, candies, pies, and other sweet desserts.

Water
6–8 SERVINGS/DAY

8 ounces

Why?
Water is needed by every cell in your body. Water helps your body digest food, transport nutrients, and pass wastes.

Healthy Choices
Plain water and any kind of mineral water or bottled water flavored with fruit essence. Herbal tea without caffeine.

Choices to Limit
Sweetened soda, coffee, and alcohol don’t count as “water.” In fact, each robs water from your body.

What About Table Salt?Table salt (sodium chloride) is everywhere—in processed meats, frozen dinners, and all sorts of snack foods. Too much table salt may be bad news for your blood pressure. As an alternative, experiment with herbs, lemon, and spices to perk up your food. And try unsalted or low-salt crackers and breadsticks for snacks.
Dairy
Do you choose whole milk products more often than low-fat ones?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Meat
Do you eat high-fat meat products, such as hamburgers, more often than low-fat ones?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Lifestyle
Does your lifestyle make it hard to eat well, because you eat out, travel, or are single?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Fat
Do you eat fatty processed food more often than home-cooked meals?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Sugar
Do you eat more than three or four high-sugar foods each week?
☐ Yes ☐ No

If you answered ☑ Yes
Each "yes" targets an area for improving your nutrition. Now you're ready to find out how. There's a section on each nutrition area in the pages that follow. You can read just those pages you're interested in, or you can take a look at all the choices you have for eating well.
Worksheet 8

Assess Your Nutrition and Lifestyle

How do you go about making better nutrition choices for wellness? You've just learned about the food pyramid. Now see how well your eating habits stack up. Use the questions below to help you identify areas where you need to make some changes—whether it's the foods you're eating or your physical health. And remember: When it comes to nutrition and lifestyle, smaller changes are more likely to last.

Starches and Grains
Do you choose breads and cereals made with white flour over whole-grain foods?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Vegetables and Fruits
Do you eat fewer than five fruits and vegetables every day?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Weight Control
Is weight loss a goal for you?
☐ Yes ☐ No

Energy Level
Have you recently felt too tired or achy to exercise?
☐ Yes ☐ No
REFERENCES


Watkins, D. & Biggs, J. (Eds.), *The Chinese learner: Cultural psychological and contextual influences* (pp. 3-24). Hong Kong & Melbourne: CERC and ACER.


