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COVER IMAGE

Autumn Leaves, watercolor painting by Barbara Kellogg. Reproduced by permission of the artist.

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Introduction

Hanh thi Nguyen & Candis L. K. Lee

This issue of the *HPU TESL Working Paper Series* brings together three papers and one teaching unit, reflecting the TESL Programs' emphasis on both theory and practice in language teaching.

Bentkowski's paper opens this issue with a healthy attitude of inquiry. He asked: How does negotiation for meaning actually work in a naturally occurring conversation? How does learning take place in such a situation? And will the learner retain what he learned in the negotiation for meaning process? Bentkowski started with a data set that was near and dear to him: the breakfast conversation in his family. And yet, in that seemingly mundane data, he was able to identify the devices that the participants used to negotiate for meaning, and how learning was not a one-way process. In his investigation of the effects of negotiation for meaning on learning, he showed how social factors in addition to cognitive factors could explain why a certain language form was learned and some other form was not. Bentkowski's paper is inspiring also because it shows that one can gain much insights about language learning processes if one is open to ask questions about what may seem to be familiar concepts and language events.

In the second paper, Fisher asked an important question in language assessment: How can one distinguish a learning disability from language learning issues? The balanced literature review and the useful checklist she included in the paper can be of great assistance to

teachers who face this question in their teaching contexts.

In the next paper, Tuthill turned to look at the history of the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)*, and highlighted its defining moments. Her literature review demonstrates clearly that such objective and impersonal entity as the *OED* is actually deeply embedded in its socio-economical context and human-to-human relationships. Keeping this in mind can help teachers and learners of English appreciate word meanings as they are defined in dictionaries or by language users.

Finally, this issue closes with a rich set of teaching activities on tropical countries in the winter Olympics by Sawamura. With creative activities that are well scaffolded, Sawamura showed how content-based instruction can be done with attention paid to students' linguistic needs. Her activities are well illustrated and are ready to be used in the classroom.

We are proud to present our students' works and applaud their accomplishments. We would like to remind readers that these are working papers. The authors are strongly encouraged to develop their ideas further and take their works to the next level.

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Negotiation for Meaning and Second Language Acquisition in a Family Conversation

Eric T. Bentkowski

Abstract

This study examines the meaning negotiation devices used by three bilingual family members of different proficiency levels of English and Japanese as they had breakfast. The participants utilized a range of negotiation devices, including reformulations, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and lexical substitutions. It was also discovered that gestures and onomatopoeic sounds were crucial devices for meaning negotiation, a finding that extends research on negotiation for meaning. The study shows that each participant seemed to have learned new language knowledge that resulted from the negotiation for meaning. The focal learner in particular is shown to retain one of the two alternative forms used in the negotiation for meaning, perhaps due to social factors. This study suggests that further research incorporating a wider variety of sociolinguistic contexts and parameters could prove beneficial to the field of Second Language Acquisition.

Introduction

The significance of interaction in second language acquisition has been documented in many studies. Gass and Selinker (2008) explained in their Input-Interaction-Output Model that once input is given, processing and interaction will take place and the learner will move toward the production of output. The discussion of the complete model is beyond the scope of this paper; however, the focus of this paper will be placed upon the interaction part of discourse as negotiation for meaning. According to Block (2003), the Input-Interaction-Output model posited that learners need to know how to negotiate for meaning because of its relevance and importance to the acquisition process. According to this model, negotiation for meaning is the construct central to communication as information transaction in which interlocutors exchange information while conducting communicative tasks. Long (1996) defined a number of negotiation devices that interlocutors might employ as

they negotiate for meaning during social interaction, such as recasts, repetitions, seeking agreement, reformulations, paraphrasing, comprehension and confirmation checks, clarification requests, and lexical substitutions. The following examples of some of the negotiation devices were provided by Gass and Selinker (2008):

1. Comprehension check
NNS: I was born in Nagasaki. Do you know Nagasaki?
2. Confirmation check
NSS1: When can you go to visit me?
NSS2: Visit?
3. Recast
NNS: What doctor say?
NS: What is the doctor saying?
4. Clarification requests¹
Student: Et le coccinelle . . .
 “And the (masculine noun)
 ladybug . . .”
Teacher: Pardon?
 “Sorry?”

Student: La coccinelle . . .
“The (feminine noun)
ladybug . . .”

5. Repetitions

Student: La chocolat.
“(Feminine noun)
Chocolate.”

Teacher: La chocolat?
“(Feminine noun)
Chocolate.”

Student: Le chocolat.
“(Masculine noun)
Chocolate.”

(p. 319, 335-336)

Negotiation devices are used to propel the interaction forward as the participants receive, process, and request information by demonstrating what they understand and what they need more information about from their counterpart. For example, an interlocutor might employ a repetition as a negotiation device in order to communicate to the speaker that what was said was unclear or not understood. The manner and tone in which the repetition is presented during the interaction will help the negotiation for meaning. Additionally, a hearer may recast what the speaker has just said as a way to reformulate an incorrect utterance while keeping the original meaning. In other words, an interlocutor could use a recast as a negotiation device to humbly correct and check (i.e., negotiate for) meaning with the speaker about his/her original intent during the communicative event. Similarly, reformulations, paraphrasing or clarification requests could be implemented as a negotiation device to signal to the speaker the hearer's level of understanding and whether communication is on the brink of breakdown or is on track to continue forward successfully.

The concept of negotiation for meaning as defined in the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) is not without criticism. Block (2003) argued that IIO researchers have not fully reached compliance with Hymes' (1974) socially constituted linguistics because they narrowly and selectively limit their analyses to the transactional aspect of talk and focus only on task and negotiate for meaning. In so doing, they have turned to a sociolinguistic model that excluded contextual and interpersonal meanings, which are as important in communication. Block was also in agreement with Aston's (1986, 1993) sociologically-oriented constructs in SLA such as negotiation for solidarity, support and face, and suggested that SLA also pay attention to negotiation for *identity* and not just for meaning. This paper is an attempt to respond to Block's call for a socially oriented SLA.

In this paper, I am interested in investigating the negotiation for meaning, not in a classroom or laboratory settings as in most SLA studies (e.g., Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2005), but in the natural setting of a family breakfast among a father, a mother, and their son. I first ask (a) What are the negotiation-for-meaning devices that were used by the participants? Informed by Block's (2003) criticism of the notion of negotiation for meaning, the research questions I ask are: (b) What sociolinguistic factors affect the negotiation for meaning that takes place in a natural multilingual environment in the confines of the home? (c) Is there any evidence of learning from the interaction?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in the interaction were Eric (myself), Asuka (my wife), and Nobu

(my son).² At the time of this study, I had intermediate colloquial proficiency in Japanese and native speaker competence in English. Asuka had intermediate to advanced colloquial proficiency in English and native speaker competence in Japanese. Nobu was 10 years old and, by Gass and Selinker's (2008) traditional SLA definition, he has Japanese as his first language and English as his second language. Nobu learned his Japanese by extensively interacting with his mother and others within his mother's Japanese circle of friends during his first five years of life. During this time, he concurrently learned English from interacting with his father in the home and through everyday interactions in an English speaking environment. At age 5, he began his education in kindergarten in an English speaking elementary school. He was placed in supplemental ESL classes for the first two years of his education. During that time and thereafter, he has been receiving informal Japanese language tutoring from his mother and continues to converse with her predominantly in Japanese regardless of the environment. He has vacationed in Japan with extended family members for two months during the summer each of the last 10 years. He has attended Japanese elementary school for one-week durations on each of the last three visits to Japan. Some of his Japanese friends can speak English.

Data Collection

A video camcorder was used to record naturally occurring conversations among Eric, Asuka, and Nobu, the focal learner who was the central participant in this study. Allowance was made for regular and natural environmental factors familiar to Nobu to exist during the taping. For example, if Nobu wanted the television

on in the background during the conversation, then this was allowed. If he was comfortable with conversing while he dined, then this was permissible. He had been previously informed that he would be videotaped during our conversations. The camera was focused only on him and not on the other participants. The topics of the conversations were completely random and facilitated as they developed. By the end of the two-week data collection period, I had 3 hours of videotaped conversation, and a segment of that data was extracted for analysis in this paper.

In an effort to see whether the subject's learning was retained after the interaction, I also conducted a short follow-up activity about three weeks after the recorded conversation. I presented the focal learner with three Japanese sentences using the target word, and asked him to translate all three sentences verbally. These sentences were created by the Japanese native speaker participant in this study, Asuka.

Analytical Procedure

I decided to transcribe this conversation after I viewed multiple, segmented playbacks of the longer recording which involved other conversations at different days and times over a two-week period. During the playback, I searched for instances in which the participants were seemingly negotiating for meaning when the communication had faltered because of the content, vocabulary, or other aspects of the language spoken. Consequently, this sample provided the data which enabled me to find negotiation devices employed by the participants while they negotiated for meaning in the interaction. The transcription was a multilayered process. First, I watched the

video in segments in order to write down all the words spoken. After I watched the segmented video again enabling me to insert the time stamps, I viewed it once more to capture and document gestures and body language that occurred.

Conversation Data

In the following segment selected for analysis (see Transcript next page), Nobu is in a good, relaxed mood as can be witnessed by his body language and behaviors during the conversation. He is aware that he is being videotaped; however, he did not seem to mind the camera. The tone throughout this exchange is warm and casual. In this particular part of the conversation, Nobu is eating plain oatmeal with soymilk and Eric is eating yogurt and gelatin for breakfast. Eric has placed his bowl of oatmeal to the side because it is hot.

Data Analysis

In line 03, Nobu makes a statement about the kimbap-like taste of his oatmeal (kimbap is a Korean style sushi roll consisting of rice, beef and a variety of vegetables wrapped in seaweed). In line 04, Eric uses a confirmation check as a negotiation device to bring attention to Nobu's incorrect grammatical use of "taste" in addition to expressing his surprise at the peculiar claim that the oatmeal tasted like kimbap. Nobu perceives confirmation check as a clarification request for meaning instead. After Nobu provides the negotiated meaning to Eric in line 05, he seems to shift toward Asuka (as Nobu's body language and tapping indicate) before Eric can respond. Perhaps Nobu's body language indicates that he was seeking agreement or approval of correctness from Asuka. Coincidentally, Nobu code

switches into speaking Japanese. Gass (2008) outlined that the possible reasons for code switching can be due to humor, context, or to insufficient linguistic understanding of an L2's vocabulary. In this case, I believe that Nobu's code-switching is due to his linguistic inability to say what he wants to say in English, as there is no laughter involved. Another possibility is that Nobu code-switches in order to involve his mother, Asuka, a native speaker of Japanese, into the conversation. Either way, Nobu uses the code switch as a communication strategy to direct his turn at Asuka, but at the same time, this turn was for Eric as well. In response to this code switch, Eric poses a clarification request in line 10 and receives negotiated meaning from Asuka in line 12. However, this does not seem to help Eric, as Eric then, in line 13, reformulates his question back in line 10 to negotiate further for meaning. This negotiation device aims to clarify what "that" stands for in Eric's original question.

While Asuka, the native Japanese speaker in the conversation, is in the process of providing the negotiated meaning, Nobu cuts in with his lexical translation of *isshun* in line 15 while providing a gesture to illustrate its meaning (the use of gesture in word searches in conversations is common, as noted by Goodwin and Goodwin (1986) for example). However, this word is different from what Asuka then provides in line 17 as she completes her turn. Nobu continues and provides another slightly different meaning in line 18 than what Asuka has provided in line 17 but quickly appropriates Asuka's language and adds "or like one moment" in the same turn. In this part of the interaction, Nobu puts himself in the middle between Eric and

TRANSCRIPT

COMMENTS

01	A: Even I don't taste it, I cannot smell but taste bad. I don't (.5) feel good.	
02	E: (4.0) yeah.	
03	N: (4.6) I just taste kimbap. (1.4) I just taste kimbap. huh. uh (<i>giggle</i>)	
04	E: (2.4) You just taste kimbap? ----->	Confirmation check/ surprise
05	N: (2.3) (<i>As N slurps</i>) I taste kimbap right now. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
06	(1.6) (<i>N finishes swallowing and glances over to E</i>)	
07	N: Anno isshun no (.20) kimbap. (.1) ----->	Codeswitch
08	(<i>N says this while he looks toward A and taps/fidgets his spoon handle lightly</i>	
09	<i>against the bowl</i>)	
10	E: [What is that? ----->	Clarification request
11	N: [isshun no kimbap.	
12	A: Kimbap. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
13	E: (.7) No, what is isshun ? ----->	Reformulation
14	A: Isshun is like ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
15	N: a flash (<i>N simultaneously simulates a flash by signaling with his right hand</i>	
16	<i>opening and closing quickly and looks over from A to E</i>) ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
17	A: one moment. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
18	N: like one second flash	
19	(<i>N "flashes" hand</i>) or like one moment. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning/ Reformulation
20	E: Oh? ----->	Clarification request (implicit)
21	N: like one second flash would be like (<i>lifts right hand upward while</i>	
22	<i>"flashes" hand</i>) that. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
23	A: (1.7) like whoo (<i>rising tone</i>) pshht. (<i>E giggles</i>) ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning/ Reformulation
24	(<i>N covers his face with two hands and slightly bends over and then straightens up,</i>	
25	<i>removing his hands to reveal a smile and glances over toward E</i>)	
26	E: So how would you tell me that in English then? ----->	Clarification request
27	N: (<i>N sighs playfully with a smile</i>) Thought it was supposed to be in	
28	Japanese, [too. (<i>N leans back and looks at E</i>)	
29	E: [No but how would you tell me that in English? ----->	Clarification request (repeated)
30	N: (<i>N focuses toward bowl as he speaks</i>) Like one second (.6) flash (<i>N looks back to E</i>) ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
31	E: (1.3) That's all you would say to me? (.) One second flash. (<i>E</i>	
32	<i>chuckles</i>) ----->	Clarification request (repeated)
33	(<i>N makes a flash gesture as he looks first to A, then back to E</i>) ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
34	E: But then I would be like, what are you talking about? What are	
35	you talking about one second flash? ----->	Clarification Request

36	N: ahhh...hahuh... <i>(Smiles, looks down at his two index fingers, one</i>	
37	<i>from each hand on the edge of the table)</i> that's hard to translate. .	
38	umm.. Well it's like one moment <i>(rise tone on -ment)</i> (1.9) once a moment. ->	Provision of negotiated meaning
39	E: (1.2) 'kay, so tell me that in English like how would you tell me that whole sentence? ----->	Clarification request
40	N: <i>(While looking down at table)</i> So if I was...ahh...When I drank the soymi:	
41	soymilk (1.6) one moment it taste like kimbap. ----->	Provision of negotiated meaning
42	<i>(Nobu looks over at E as he's leaning back with his head tilted toward E and N is smiling)</i>	
43		
44	E: Oh ok. <i>(N giggles while looks over toward A, grabs spoon handle and looks over at E)</i> <i>(E chuckles)</i>	
45		
46	N: You already know the meaning. <i>(N puts a spoonful into his mouth)</i>	
47	E: Well yeah...I know what you're trying to say...you're probably trying to	
48	say "when I drank the soymilk (2.0) it tasted like kimbap for a second." ---->	Lexical substitution
49	<i>(N smiles affirmatively)</i> Right?	
50	<i>(E laughs)</i> <i>(N makes a funny face and puts each thumb on the sides of his head just above each ear and waves his open hands while keeping his thumbs in contact with his head.)</i>	
51		
52	E: (1.3) Yeah, sometimes I get mixed up in the words I use, too.	
53	<i>(A can be heard clearing her throat as N continues to eat)</i>	
54	E: (1.7) 'kay.	
55	N: (.2) wanna taste this? <i>(As N looks over to E and passes his bowl to E)</i>	
56	E: Yeah I do since I can't eat mine.	
57	N: Use your spoon. (.4) Use your spoon <i>(said in a slightly higher pitch)</i> and then	
58	scoop some up. (1.2) You can eat all my stuff. <i>(said while smiling at E)</i>	
59	A: (.3) Don't say hungry, Nobu. <i>(said sternly)</i>	
60	N: How does it taste like? <i>(directed at E)</i>	
61	A: (1.0) So he want you to eat [it.	
62	E: [oh <i>(E chuckles)</i>	
63	A: 'cause he don't wanna eat it all. <i>(N takes bowl back and slurps a spoonful)</i>	
64	N: Don't you have like kimbap or	
65	E: (.8) I don't know if it tastes like kimbap. ----->	Recast
66	N: One moment it really taste like kimbap one (0.1) one second like. ----->	Re-use of negotiated meaning
67	E: Yeah	
68	N: to me like (.1) once I taste like spaghetti it taste like seafood sometimes. ->	Re-use of negotiated meaning
69	E: <i>(laughs)</i> it tasted like seafood? ----->	Recast
70	N: Sometimes when I umm lick my spoon like this <i>(N demonstrates by lifting empty spoon to mouth)</i> it sometimes taste like metal or iron. ----->	Re-use of negotiated meaning
71		
72	E: (1.2) I can see that happening. <i>(The topic ends and the conversation shifts to a different topic.)</i>	

Transcript conventions

(text): action being done or transcriber's note

bold text: Japanese

[: beginning of overlapped speech

(number): time in seconds

Asuka, as indicated by his body language as he looks back and forth between Asuka and Eric.

The negotiated meaning provided by Nobu and Asuka does not seem to satisfy Eric, however. He makes a clarification request in line 20. This request prompts Nobu to provide a further explanation of the meaning of *issbum*; this time he seems to abandon the appropriation of Asuka's language and returns to his own translation of the word, accompanied by his hand gesture to illustrate the meaning.

Asuka re-enters the conversation in line 23 and provides a reformulation of her previous explanation by making an onomatopoeic sound, "whoo" and "pshht," in the hope to provide the meaning of *issbum* for Eric. At this point, perhaps because of the prolonged nature of this negotiation for meaning, Nobu's body language indicates a little frustration and playfulness (lines 24-25).

In line 29, Eric issues another clarification request to stimulate a response from Nobu, perhaps because Eric is attempting to bring Nobu back into the conversation and to reinforce the new English expression for Nobu. Here, Nobu reverts back to his original lexis of "one second flash" in line 30. His provision of meaning does not seem to fit what Eric is looking for, and in lines 31 and 34-35, Eric repeats his clarification request to negotiate for meaning further with Nobu. In lines 34-35 in particular, Eric points out that the meaning Nobu provides, "one second flash" may lead to confusion, thus indicating indirectly that he is looking for a more accurate expression from Nobu. Lines 36-38 show Nobu returning to "one moment" which was originally provided by Asuka in line 17. At this point, Nobu may have truly

appropriated the lexis for *issbum* from Asuka. The next repeated clarification request from Eric elicits a repetition of the negotiated meaning of *issbum* from Nobu, which is consistent with Asuka's explanation, and after that point, Eric ceases to make clarification requests toward Nobu about this word's meaning.

A few moments later, in lines 47-49, Eric provides a paraphrase of what Nobu was trying to say. This lexical substitution functions to confirm the negotiated meaning that Eric, Nobu, and Asuka have collaboratively achieved up to this point. It is interesting to note that in line 48, Eric uses "a second" instead of "one moment," which incorporates Nobu's contribution ("one second flash") but also conforms to the form provided by Asuka ("one moment," plus the sound effect of something that happens quickly and briefly).

As the conversation continues a few lines later, we see evidence of Nobu retaining the language that emerged earlier in the negotiation for meaning. In line 66, Nobu uses both the phrase provided by the Japanese native speaker, "one moment," and the phrase provided by the English native speaker (which is also a form he came up with himself), "one second." Although this is a very short span of time, I would like to argue that Nobu demonstrates and confirms that his acquisition of the negotiated meaning of *issbum* has occurred. He negotiated for meaning with Eric and Asuka during the conversation and was able to apply what he appropriated within the same conversation.

Of course this short-term "acquisition" begs the question as to how long Nobu retained what he learned. I addressed this third research question in a

follow-up session with Nobu. My goal was to check how Nobu would translate *isshun* into English and whether this translation would reflect what he had picked up in the recorded conversation above. Below are the three sentences presented to him for oral translation about three weeks after the above conversation (see section on Data Collection above):

- (1) *Isshun nanika mieta.*
Moment/instant something saw
- (2) *Isshun shinzo*
Moment/instant heart
ga tomatta.
SUBJ stopped
- (3) *Kyuni kuruma ga tobidasbite*
Suddenly car SUBJ jumping out
jiko ga okotta
accident SUBJ occur
Sore wa isshun
That SUBJ moment/instant
no deki goto datta.
PART occurrence/event was.

Note. SUBJ: subject marker; PART: Particle.

Nobu translated the above sentences as:

- (1) For one moment I saw something.
- (2) For one moment my heart stopped.
- (3) All of a sudden the car jumped out and an accident happened. That was a one moment thing.

It is intriguing that although Nobu demonstrated acquisition by appropriation of both forms (“for one moment” and “for a second”) from Asuka and Eric in the same conversation where the negotiation for meaning took place, he retained the meaning “one moment” (used by Asuka, his mother) and not the other form (used by Eric, his father). In light of this finding, I inquired of Nobu which language he was more comfortable with speaking. He affirmed that it was

Japanese, his L1, even though he has been performing in English throughout his academic career. He stated that Japanese was easier and quicker for him. In addition, as previously noted, Asuka has assumed the predominant role of facilitating educational learning in the home, although Eric provides guidance as challenges arise. Asuka’s role included consistently tutoring Nobu in Japanese language and holds Nobu accountable for the completion of his English academic assignments. Eric’s role includes being the family’s bread winner, being the primary source of English speaking in the home, coaching Nobu’s sports team and playing games with Nobu. I suggest that Nobu’s preference for “one moment” three weeks later may be related to the fact that this form was provided by Asuka, who has the same L1 as Nobu. Nobu may also have selected Asuka’s meaning for *isshun* because of his close personal, educational and social affiliation with her. One may argue that Nobu’s affiliation with Asuka may be an exhibition of a type of in-group L1 motivational characteristic supporting Giles’ Accommodation Theory (cited in Richard-Amato, 2003).

Discussion

In this paper, I have attempted to analyze how three family members in a casual conversation negotiated for the meaning and English translation of a Japanese word, and I have also examined whether the learner retained what he had learned from this conversation. This Japanese word was new to Eric, and its English translation was new to Nobu, and to some extent, also to Asuka. The analysis shows that they used a range of negotiation devices, including reformulations, clarification requests, confirmation checks, and lexical substitutions. Notably, I also

found that gestures and onomatopoeic sounds were a crucial device for meaning negotiation, something that is not found in many studies on negotiation for meaning (e.g., Ellis, 2007; Gass & Varonis, 1989; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McDonough, 2007; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993). The reason for this might be because I am looking at naturally occurring data in a family setting while the other studies tend to look at classroom data. Perhaps in a family setting, it is more likely to encounter words that can be illustrated easily by gestures and sounds. It could also be that when people are interacting among intimates and in a relaxed setting (e.g., their homes), they are more likely to resort to these devices to negotiate for meaning.

My analysis also differs from most other studies on meaning negotiation in SLA (e.g., Ellis, 2007; Gass & Varonis, 1989; Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989; Lyster, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; McDonough, 2007; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993) in that I examine the negotiation for meaning in a multiparty context rather than in the typical dyad structure. This shift in participation framework (Goffman, 1981; M. H. Goodwin, 2001) enabled me to observe how the provision of negotiated meaning may come from more than one participant (in this case, Nobu and Asuka). I have also shown how the negotiated meaning that emerged in the conversation and that was later re-used by the learner (Nobu) is the collaborative achievement of everybody involved.

That the participants in the interaction had multiple levels of bilingualism also leads to the fact that everyone in this conversation learned something new. My study is in contrast to many SLA studies on meaning negotiation, where the lower-level learner typically acquires new knowledge but the higher-level learner simply provides meaning without adding new knowledge to his/her own second language repertoire. I have shown that although it was Eric who requested for meaning clarification, he was not the only one who gained new knowledge (Eric indeed had no prior lexical knowledge of *isshun*). Nobu, the provider of the requested meaning also learned how to translate the Japanese lexical item into English. Even Asuka, the Japanese native speaker, arguably also learned another way to express *isshun* in English (she provided the translation “one moment” and learned the other expression, “for a second” in Eric’s sentences), an observation also confirmed in my follow-up interview with her.

Finally, the results about Nobu’s retention of the new lexical knowledge demonstrate concretely that social factors can play an important role in language acquisition. This finding thus supports a social approach to the investigation of how and why language is learned.

Notes

¹ The original language in this example is French. English translation is provided in quotation marks.

² Except for my name, all personal names are pseudonyms.

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Assessing English Language Learners for a Learning Disability or a Language Issue

Sarah Mariah Fisher

Abstract

This paper aims to increase awareness about English language learners (ELLs) who have difficulty with learning English as a result of a learning disability. I first look at what factors often lead to the misdiagnosis of learning disability. I then include an evaluation checklist for teachers who notice that an ELL is not learning at the same rate as his or her peers. Teachers who are aware of their ELLs' backgrounds and the expected progress of language learning will be better equipped to diagnose students correctly and offer them the help that is needed.

Introduction

Too often English language learners (ELLs) with learning disabilities fall through the cracks. These learners may be thought of as slow English learners, or they may be in a school district that does not have enough resources to test them in their L1 for learning disabilities. On the flipside are the English learners who are identified as learning disabled and placed in special education classes when in fact, they are not learning disabled. Both categories of English learners, those that do have a learning disability and those that do not but are wrongly labeled as such, may keep moving through the school system without receiving the appropriate help that their native English counterparts are given. As a result, these learning disabled learners will continue to have difficulties, and once they graduate from high school (if they do), they will be at a disadvantage because of their undiagnosed learning disabilities. This issue is of concern to me because I want to work with school-age children, and the earlier that learning disabilities are diagnosed, the better chance these students will have in overcoming them.

This paper aims to review the literature in order to clarify the sometimes-murky factors that comprise the learning disabilities of ELLs. The questions guiding this literature review are:

1. Why are ELLs misdiagnosed or remain undiagnosed?
2. When learning a second language, what is considered normal and what is not? That is, what aspects will language learners likely exhibit in the process of learning?
3. What are some other factors that can play a role in determining whether a student has a learning disability or a language issue?
4. What factors go into assessing an ELL for a learning disability? In addition, how is the distinction between a learning disability or a language issue determined? Is there a way to correctly evaluate an ELL for a learning disability? How can the teacher correctly assess an English language learner for a learning disability?

Why ELLs Are Misdiagnosed

There are several misguided reasons as to why English language learners with a learning disability are often ignored. First and foremost is the issue of how to correctly diagnose an ELL. Geva (2000) observed that too often ELLs were placed in special education classes on the basis of “socioeconomic, linguistic and cultural factors rather than psychoeducational factors” (p. 14). The professionals who were used to dealing with and treating students in their L1 (English) were not trained or prepared for these different learners who had English as their L2. This inadequate preparation led to misinterpretation of the data that was collected to determine whether or not a student had a learning disability (Geva, 2000). In addition, Limbos and Geva (2001) found that a teacher’s unprompted referral solely based on personal observations were more inaccurate than when an ELL was tested for a learning disability. This type of referral shows that a teacher’s intuition is not a fool-proof way to diagnose ELLs since teachers may not have the experience and training needed to know if an ELL is having difficulties due to a language barrier or a learning disability. Fortunately, more research has been conducted to better understand the process of L2 learning and its relation to L1 learning. Better assessments and means of identification such as getting the thoughts of each of the student’s teachers, looking at a student’s background, and testing in a student’s L1 have been implemented so that there are fewer cases of misdiagnosed learning disabilities (Wagner, Francis, & Morris, 2005).

Another reason why ELLs with learning disabilities are often mis-

diagnosed is that it is believed that the process of how learners of English as a second language learn how to read is different from the process that is used when learning to read in an L1. This misbelief, the idea that a second language is somehow learned differently, may cause a teacher to assess, mistakenly, that a student’s learning problems are due to issues of second language learning rather than some learning disability. These teachers need to be informed that while it is true that some types of learning disabilities manifest themselves differently for various language groups, the belief that L1 and L2 learning processes are different is unfounded (Li, 2004). Geva (2000) found that native English learners and ELLs learning to read in English both progressed through their reading stages at the same pace. This information may help teachers to recognize learning disabilities for what they are rather than attributing them to second language learning issues.

Another mistake in assessing learning disabilities is to base one’s assessment on the learner’s language proficiency. There are many reasons why an ELL’s level of oral proficiency should not be the basis to decide that an ELL has a learning disability and not a language issue. One reason is that despite the fact that an ELL’s oral English proficiency has little influence on reading skills, it is often thought by those who do not have a language background that an ELL’s reading difficulties are a result of not being adequately proficient in English. While reading comprehension and oral proficiency are closely related, the two do not rely on each other. If ELLs are receiving adequate reading instruction and language exposure, they should still be able to decode words, sometimes better than they would in their L1 (Geva, 2000).

However, if an ELL comes from a family that uses the L1 at home and therefore is only exposed to English during school hours, the ELL may not be getting sufficient exposure to English. Lacking insufficient exposure can affect how quickly an ELL's English develops which, when compounded with a learning disability, could have a negative influence on how quickly an ELL is learning English (Spear-Swerling, 2006). Furthermore, Limbos and Geva (2001) found that teachers often erroneously base referrals for learning disabilities on an ELLs' oral proficiency, a referral that can be problematic if students are just starting to learn English, are not confident in their English abilities, or do not use much English outside of the school setting.

Often ELLs with a learning disability are not diagnosed for many years because of the belief that an ELL's English proficiency must be established first. Teachers who are unaware of the process of second language learning may attribute learning difficulties to the fact that the ELL just does not know enough English yet and is therefore having problems (Limbos & Geva, 2001). However, gaining second language proficiency can take as long as seven years during which time the student is not receiving any language instruction or help (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2005). In Geva's experience, teachers are more likely to attribute poor reading skills to an ELL's lack of English than to a potential learning disability (2000). There may also be a delay in diagnosis due to the fact that some teachers have the erroneous idea that there must be a noticeable discrepancy between what is expected of a learner at level X and what the learner has actually attained. Again, it may take several years

before this discrepancy becomes significant enough to raise red flags (Wagner, Francis, & Morris, 2005).

Determining between a Learning Disability and a Language Issue

It is best that the teacher is aware of the usual progress in second language learning so that the teacher can make an educated referral for an ELL with a potential learning disability. First, ELLs may have language problems due to transfer from their L1 or as a result of their ever-changing interlanguages. These concepts can help a teacher to understand why an ELL persists in making errors in spite of having been provided the correction (Dürmüller, n.d.; Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2005).

Language learners may also go through a silent period, according to the Natural Approach (Krashen, 1981), which, for the younger the learner, can last up to several months (Wilson, 2000). The silent period could be mistakenly diagnosed as a learning disability, but in fact, it is a time when the learner's focus is more on listening to analyze the nuances of the language. The usual progress of second language learning can be erroneously attributed to a learning disability, so in addition to teacher referral, there should be an evaluation by a specialist of learning disabilities (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2005).

Additionally, in an academic setting such as a school, it is normal for a student to command two types of language: the social language that students use with their peers, often referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), and their academic language for homework, papers, and with teachers, called Cognitive Academic Language

Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 2003). A teacher may notice that the ELLs' social language is very good but their academic language is lacking and may thus think that these students have a learning disability. However, social language takes about two years to acquire whereas academic language can take up to seven years (Wilson, 2000). This gap between the two types of language is further problematic in that most tests that assess an ELL's English level are based on social language. Therefore, an ELL can be labeled as fully proficient in English but still have difficulties with language for school subjects (Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, 2005).

It is very important that teachers who have ELLs in their classes be aware of how a second language is learned. Many ESL teachers without this educational background may wrongly attribute language problems to a learning disability. Inaccurate diagnoses as to whether ELLs have a learning disability can be very harmful to the student's learning.

Other Factors to be Considered in Diagnosing Learning Disabilities

There are many other reasons why an ELL may not be progressing in their English learning as quickly as their peers. Two reasons that can affect native and non-native English learners alike are vision and hearing problems. Many elementary schools screen students for vision and hearing on a yearly basis. However, once students get into high school, these screenings become more infrequent, and an ELL who starts school at this age is at a disadvantage from his or her elementary counterparts.

Linse (2008) noted several reasons why ELLs are more at risk for vision and hearing problems (p. 28). Besides the obvious case of missing the school screenings, there is also the possibility that the screeners are not trained to deal with language barriers that they may confront the ELL students or their parents. There are also the cases where vision and hearing problems are a result of issues in the ELL's native country—untreated ear infections from lack of health care or financial issues or from being exposed to loud noises, such as in countries of civil unrest.

Teachers are able to request re-tests if students miss screenings, and there are a wealth of organizations that can help students who do not have the financial means for new glasses or hearing aids. Teachers can also make adjustments in their classrooms. Nearsighted students will be able to see better if they sit in the front of the room closer to the chalkboard. For learners with hearing problems, written instructions in addition to clearly spoken instructions while facing the student can help (Linse, 2008).

It can be more difficult to point to the source of the ELLs' learning problems without looking into their backgrounds. One student at a high school that I observed seemed to lag behind his classmates in his English skills. Part of his problem was most likely the fact that he had only attended school sporadically in his native country and had never been exposed to English before moving here like most of his classmates. Not only did this student lack English skills, but he also lagged behind his peers in social and other basic academic skills. His teachers did not think that this student had a learning disability as he was

able to complete his homework satisfactorily. Knowing and/or learning about the student's background, his teacher was able to recommend after-school English tutoring in an attempt to help him attain the level of his classmates instead of having him tested for a learning disability. Reconfirming these actions, Linse (2008) suggested that teachers be aware of a student's background and meet with the parents to form a partnership for the student's success. Parents are new to the culture, too, and may not be aware of the fact that school attendance is mandatory.

Another important reason that the teachers should be aware of their ELLs' background is to find out if the ELLs have a learning disability in their L1 (Linse, 2008). If the ELL was diagnosed with an L1 learning disability, then essentially, questioning whether the problem's source is a language issue or a learning disability is effectively answered, and the correct support and remedy can begin. Additionally, if the learning problems are the same in both the student's L1 and L2, then the problem can be ascribed to a learning disability rather than a language issue (Litt, n.d.).

If these ELLs were never diagnosed with a learning disability in their native countries, but are still not making progress in their English skills, the ELLs should be tested at their present school in the U.S. At an elementary school that I observed, the teacher was concerned that two students were not progressing as quickly as another student who had a similar background in learning English. The teacher was able to have the two slower students tested in their L1 by a trained native speaker who was able to confirm that there were no learning disabilities but

only a reluctance to use English. In the case of students who are tested in their L1 and shown to have a learning disability, actions should be taken at that school to provide those students with the special education classes that they need so as not have them progress through the system untreated (Linse, 2008).

Identifying a Language Issue or Learning Disability

When ELLs are being tested to determine if they suffer from a language barrier or a learning disability, there are many aspects that must be assessed. Litt (n.d.) suggested five questions that must be taken into account when assessing an ELL (n.d.):

1. First, has the ELL's learning problem lasted for a long time? Over time, a language issue will improve if it is indeed a language issue, but a learning disability will not improve over time.
2. Second, does the learning problem still exist after the ELL is continually helped in that area? Again, a learning disability will not respond to this help and not improve.
3. Related to the second question is that of the ELLs academic progress. Are they improving academically because if not, that could point to a learning disability.
4. How are the ELL's skills in terms of strengths and weaknesses? Does the ELL favor some areas of learning over others (such as writing versus speaking skills)?
5. Finally, do students seem to understand one day and not the next? That could be the result of a learning disability, too, although the first four questions are the most pertinent in diagnosing a learning disability as a

changing language can be the result of students' interlanguages (Dürmüller, n.d.).

Litt also noted that language dominance and proficiency in both an ELL's L1 and English should be tested (n.d.). A problem that exists in both the L1 and English will likely be the result of a learning disability. Parents should be able to answer the questions for this part of the assessment.

What is important to remember when determining whether an ELL has a language issue or a learning disability is that action must be taken as soon as possible. The sooner that students are diagnosed, the sooner they can start receiving the necessary, accurate help because there are so many factors that may seem to point towards a learning disability, such as vision or hearing problems. However, it will also be helpful for the teacher and professional to have some history about the student in addition to the assessment's results gathered if the student is tested for a learning disability.

According to research by Geva (2000), it is better to be proactive when dealing with an ELL who exhibits difficulty with reading skills. Relying solely on an ELL's oral proficiency as a means of diagnosis can affect the promptness of correct evaluation. How well do the ELLs read in their L1? That may be a better way to look at a potential reading disability that may offer more insight than oral proficiency, especially if the ELL is going through a silent period (Geva, 2000).

Conclusion

The sooner that a student with a learning disability is diagnosed, the better. However, in the case of English learners, their lack of language skills may be

wrongly attributed to a learning disability, or they may be thought of as a slow learner and therefore, remain undiagnosed until it is too late. There are several reasons why ELLs go undiagnosed, such as the belief that a student's English proficiency must first be established. In addition, some teachers who are not trained to understand how second language learning takes place may think that the ELL is a slow learner or just has not yet acquired enough English. ELLs are sometimes misdiagnosed with a learning disability, too. These misdiagnoses can be a result of professionals not being trained to know how to identify the learning process of L2 learners.

Since learning disabilities are best treated earlier rather than later, it is important that all teachers involved with ELL students be aware of how they are coming along in their learning. It is also helpful to test ELLs in their L1, to see if a learning disability exists in the L1. Teachers can obtain more background information regarding an ELL's learning style from the parents. A correct diagnosis will allow the teacher and student to make the needed adjustments in teaching style and learning style.

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The Oxford English Dictionary: Defining Moments

Elizabeth Ann Tutbill

Abstract

This paper reviews important events in the making of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED). I trace the development of the OED from its conceptual stage to its current stage. By revisiting the controversies and uncertain moments that the OED project went through and by sketching the portraits of some of the key individuals involved in the project, I wish to highlight the fact that the OED itself is embedded in its social and historical context.

Many have strived to find words to express themselves. Others have forsaken love, life, and kinship to clarify what words mean. The making of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED) is a tale of humanity striving to hold meaning for expression as defined by the masses. It is a powerful example of what lengths generations of English speakers would sacrifice to hold themselves true to their words, so that we in the present can find words to express ourselves.

In 1884, the Clarendon Press at the University of Oxford published seven thousand words in a serial magazine beginning with the letter *Aa* in what was entitled *A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; Founded Mainly on the Materials Collected by the Philological Society*. Later, in 1928 the 125th serialized dictionary was published. In 1993, the entire collection of twelve volumes of a dictionary of the English language, now renamed *The Oxford English Dictionary*, was published. It represents the work of generations of editors that have contributed to the masterpiece for over a century.

The OED was first proposed by members of the Philological Society at Oxford University, then finally organized and published by James A. H. Murry

among other great men (Willinsky, 1994, p. 3). To note some perspectives on beginning contributions to the work, in 1858 through 1887, Richard Trench sought to create *A New English Dictionary* as a resource for standardized English. Trench's aspirations began with the Roman Catholic Church. In his time, there was a great controversy between religion and new scientific findings. Trench was a recognized Archbishop and, for that reason, he wanted to create a platform for words as a moral guide. This platform started with a resolution headed by Trench within the Philological Society that passed in 1857. He led the committee to document unregistered words in English as a moral guide inscribed in God's word. The other men who worked on the project with him were Herbert Coleridge and Fredrick Furnivall (Willinsky, 1994, pp. 14-15).

They chose to model their definitions after a pamphlet entitled *An Apology Made to Satisfy, If It May Be, William Tindale*, published in 1535 by George Joye. In this pamphlet, Joye cited information systematically as he provided a critical analysis of William Tindale's controversial translation of the New Testament from Hebrew and Greek into English.¹ Joye's pamphlet was important for the OED

because in it he introduced the practice of citing the source of information (Willinsky, 1994). Being a translator himself, Joye's critical analysis of Tindale's work includes citations of words' meanings in the context of where and when they were used. This practice of citation, commonly used today in scholarly works, was new and even controversial at the time. The originators of the *OED*, however, followed Joye's insight and built upon his method for defining words, which is to base words' meanings on the context of actual usage, and to provide citations of the words' sources.

In 1868, James A. H. Murry, the most infamous creator of the *OED*, was introduced to the Philological Society. He was not as sober as the men who were members of the society; instead, he was said to be a rather humorous and jovial individual. Fredrick Furnivall, acting president at the time and an authority in the society through 1910, had a very powerful influence over Murry. They worked together on *A New English Dictionary* which was to become the *OED* (Murry, 1977, p. 87).

In April 1876, Murry was surprised by a suggestion that he join the effort for *A New English Dictionary*. Alexander Macmillan, then president, called a meeting with Murry regarding what Murry's potential contributions of lexicography to the project. Noah Webster's dictionary, published in the United States, was internationally acclaimed at the time, and it was explained to Murry that the Philological Society wanted something like it, but bigger and better. The Society was interested in Murry's contribution because they had seen his work on dialects and felt that he was up to the task (Murry, 1977, p. 135).

In addition, the Society recognized the importance of translation. Richard Trench had great interest in the *Greek-English Lexicon*, a bilingual text that explored the history of words beginning with their origins and the changes that were made to them over time (Murry, 1977, p. 135). Had the Society not understood the importance of translation, perhaps people today would not hold the finished masterpiece in such high esteem. Students and educators in the twenty-first century may take for granted that words are articulated by a standard. In the time of the founding fathers² of the *OED*, words were open to interpretation by educated men, which usually meant the upper class. It is probable that documented words were not defined by the majority of people that used them prior to the insight of Murry and his colleagues.

The great men that knew Murry, such as Alexander Macmillan and Fredrick Furnivall, felt that Murry would be a major contributor to exploring this approach of documenting words because of his outgoing persona and interest in communication. As the work became more involved, controversies developed over who should take credit and from where funding should be derived. When asked, there was a point where Murry hesitated to take on the responsibility of editor because he felt that the work belonged to the Philological Society, and no matter what happened, any publisher would publish it for England (Murry, 1977, pp. 143-145).

After two years of hesitation, Murry took over the project in 1879 by signing a contract with the Oxford University Press. Originally, he predicted that he should contract for ten years to complete the

work. Forty-nine years later, Murry finished his contract with few remaining co-workers, including Henry Bradley, Charles Onions and William Craigie (Mugglestone, 2005, p. 2).

In the beginning, Trench and his colleagues had created a system for documenting definitions that involved outsourcing volunteer scholars from various backgrounds to create definitions. These contributors were called 'delegates' and were asked to explore published books to collect data for given words. Each delegate submitted paper 'slips' with broad hand-written definitions. Trench's original volunteers were numbered at 76.

When Murry inherited the project, he began his task with roughly 2.5 million 'slips' submitted by delegates during and after Trench's reign. Murry organized a system of pigeonholes, first thought of by Henry Coleridge when he was an active member in the Philological Society. The pigeonhole idea was expanded to Murry's Scriptorium. At first, it served to organize all of the previous contributions. Ultimately, Murry felt that many of the definitions were not of good quality, so he only used one-sixth of the original 'slips' (Mugglestone, 2005, pp. 14-15).

According to Mugglestone (2005), Murry wrote an irate letter to Furnivall stating that the Philological Society's existing materials were a, "...mass of utter confusion." Murry then redefined the effort and appealed to the academic community for contributions (p. 15). By 1881, over 800 new delegates had answered Murry's appeal. He requested that they be more specific with their documentation and include sentences to define strange and unfamiliar words such as idioms (p. 18).

Murry had the burden of overseeing the project as a whole while continuing to manage the resources for it. What eventually happened with the new delegates is that they started to form opinions about how their input should be organized. While the project continued to gain momentum, two volumes were planned to be added to the original four. At the same time, a challenge to the editor of the *OED* was that the majority of the delegates began to form opinions about what should be in the dictionary. They started to try to create the dictionary instead of taking the role of contributors to the work. Murry was put in a position where he had to defend the importance of all words for the project, including, for example, newspaper quotations, deemed unworthy by some delegates. In addition, he often had to remind the delegates that language is continually reconstructed as it grows (Mugglestone, 2005).

Frustration with all parties involved became fully escalated in the 1890s. The situation was described as a crisis. Eventually, Murry had to take a stand. At that point, he demanded respect and took a strong stance as peacemaker in the battles over due credit for individual 'slips' and funding. It was stated at that time that the *OED* could not demonstrate the exact meaning of everything (Mugglestone, 2005, p. 35).

Murry may have had the realization that he carried a larger burden than the logistics of the *OED*. It is possible that the men leading the project, especially Murry, felt that they had to make a statement about the growing assumption that they were all knowing authorities on English from the past, present, and future. Perhaps this was an emotional issue for delegates as well.

What makes the *OED* unique to other dictionaries is that it includes cited entries from great authors such as William Shakespeare and John Milton. For example, compared to Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary* that was written in the same period as the *OED*, there are thousands more entries in the *OED*. For some words, there were so many sources that the *OED* appointed specific delegates to focus solely on definitions from texts such as Shakespearean plays or the Bible (Willinsky, 1994, pp. 57-58).

According to Willinsky (1994), the delegates were steadily gathering resources from all of the written work they could find. Many authors, from various genres, were cited. The whim of a writer and his or her prose helped and hindered the gallant effort to include as much of the English language as possible. Murry referred to the effort as a scientific spirit that guided the *OED* through all of the literary nuances that are found in published texts (pp. 57-58).

Analytical literary contributions from poetry prompted the *OED* writers to create the first recorded attempts at sociolinguistic definitions for meanings. Previous attempts at dictionaries, including the most recent work at the time; Johnson's *Dictionary*, were based on works by reputable authors that were thought to be authorities on English. In comparison, the *OED* was an innovative attempt at acknowledging the Christian-based and academic writings in addition to including how all classes of people communicated in their daily lives (Willinsky, 1994). For example, works by Oscar Wilde were not taken seriously by some critics but were thought to be valuable by the writers of the *OED*.

Willinsky (1994) looked at this issue more closely when he sought to analyze words taken from William Shakespeare's *Taming of the Shrew* for the *OED*. Willinsky isolated some entries including *annoy*, *bold*, *crave*, and *smack*. He found that the challenge for the editors of the *OED* was to look at verse and definition, and then reason how they would apply them to the reader's sense of how the words are defined. There were anywhere from 30 to 50 'bundles' of paper slips for each word submitted. From there, the editors had the responsibility of ranking how important or valid the delegate's interpretation was. They also had to determine the validity of the author that the delegates cited. According to the research, Murry was never happy about omitting anything the delegates found; however, the sheer volume of it all forced him to do so (pp. 76-77).

Among the examples Willinsky noted, *smack* has several entries.

Smack, sh. 2

A sharp noise or sound made by separating the lips quickly, esp. in kissing, and in tasting or anticipating food or liquor.

1570 LEVINS *Manip.* 5 Ye smacke of a kisse, suaium.
1956 SHAKES. *Tam.* Shrew III. Ii. 180 Hee... kist her lips with such a clamous smacke, that at the parring all the Church did eccho (*Oxford English Dictionary* as cited by Willinsky, 1994, pp. 79-80).

Some other interesting excerpts dated back to the 1300s and continued through the 1800s. Definitions are cited in Old English from 1340 where a sentence from *Ayenb.* 93 defined *smack* as "to perceive by the sense of taste or to experience" and

“to suspect.” In addition, *Image Hypocr.* 1550, 1, 48 is quoted; “We... Must sey that white is blacke, Or ells they say we smacke, And smell we wote not what.” Finally, *smack* continued for several pages, more cites included entries from 1591, 1648, and 1827 (Simpson, 1989, Vol. XV). These examples taken from the *OED* prove John Willinsky’s point and speak to how intricate this task was for the editors of the *OED*.

James Murry strived to find delegates that had time and literary backgrounds to fulfill the demanding requirements the editors asked of them. Having sought as much input as possible, the network for the *OED* continued to grow to the furthest corners of the literary world in England. Murry’s outreach found qualified delegates that may not have otherwise been considered appropriate. An example is Dr. William Minor.

Originally, Dr. William Minor was one of the least well-known delegates of the *OED* contributors. Dr. Minor had made hundreds of contributions, all very accurate and well written, yet no one knew who he was. Minor was obviously educated, but there was no sign of him in well-known academic circles. James Murry took it upon himself to visit Dr. Minor out of curiosity. When Murry arrived at Dr. Minor’s address, he introduced himself to the man who answered the door with a bow. The man at the door paused and told Murry that he was, in fact, Dr. Minor’s physician and that Dr. Minor was a patient at the mental institution Murry was gracious enough to visit (Winchester, 1998, *xi-xii*). Over the years, Murry and Minor established a friendly relationship, a relationship that turned out to be invaluable for the *OED*.

Because Dr. Minor had more free time than most delegates did, he created a backlog of words he felt would be beneficial to the project. He was, despite being mentally ill, a wealthy man with access to as many books as he desired. This made him invaluable compared to other delegates who read related literature and wrote ‘slips’ as they found words to cite for given letters. Dr. Minor had a surplus of words because he constantly read and documented words he thought might be appropriate for the project. When the editors came upon a word they could not find entries for, they contacted Dr. Minor and he was able to send them the information that they needed post-haste (Winchester, 1994, pp. 142-143).

As both Minor and Murry aged, their decline had a significant impact on the *OED*. Dr. Minor was originally from the United States and had committed murder (which was a consequence of his mental disorder) in England. He was incarcerated in England until his brother appealed to the British government to release him to a hospital in the US. Winston Churchill, who would later become very famous, intervened and they allowed the transfer on his behalf. The *OED* was half completed when Minor was shipped back to the United States. By then, Minor was heralded as one of the *OED*’s greatest contributors. James Murry and his wife saw Dr. Minor off when he boarded the ship to leave England. It is written that both men had tears in their eyes when they said farewell, which is significant considering social norms in the era they knew each other in (Winchester, 1994, pp. 198-191).

As the years past, Murry became worried about whether or not he would see the completion of the *OED*. While

most of the elderly editors had started limiting their work on the *OED*, Murry continued with gusto. In 1912, he was 76. Six men that had worked closely with him on the project had died. Murry's private letters indicate that he had a lot of anxiety about seeing the project finished (Mugglestone, 2005, 190-191).

Murry, feeling pressed to finish, and exerting more energy in his attempts to complete his task, was continually slowed because the people he relied on to complete the work were dying. It was difficult to replace those that had passed. In 1914, Murry's long-time friend, Charles Onions, took over the lead editor position for the *OED*. Things had a more positive outlook with that change, but then World War I began. Younger men who were working on the *OED* had to enlist for the war effort (Mugglestone, 2005, pp. 192-193).

Eventually, there were few men and resources left to continue the project. At that time, some of the elderly men asked their daughters to volunteer to keep things going. This was a short-lived effort because Oxford University was then converted to a war hospital, and over time, the Press was used exclusively for the war effort (Mugglestone, 2005, pp. 196-198).

After the war, as the *OED* once again gained momentum, technology became a part of lexicography. In the early 1900s, Murry became convinced that technology would have a significant impact on the completion of the *OED*. However, he could not fathom what those changes would be (Mugglestone, 2005, p. 211).

Murry worked almost until his death, July 26, 1915. He strived to complete the letter *Tt* before he died, he left the uncompleted work very organized, and those that followed him were able to

finish it with more ease than the burden he had inherited (Murry, 1977, p. 317).

The final volume of the *OED* was published in 1928, almost 70 years from the start date of the Philological Society's commitment to *A New English Dictionary*. There was a supplement created in the time that technology had emerged. Craigie and Onions oversaw the editing process for it and the final whole work was published in 1933 (Murry, 1977, p. 312).

In 1972, four new volumes were published under guidance by R. W. Burchfield. It was to replace the 1933 supplement to bring the *OED* to present day. It is with great respect that the statement released to the news press in 1928 is still held as the most accurate summary of the work that was published in *Periodical*, xiii, 143 (19 Feb. 28) as a whole (as cited in Murry, 1977). It read:

The superiority of the Dictionary to all other English Dictionaries, in accuracy and completeness, is everywhere admitted. The *Oxford English Dictionary* is the supreme authority, and with a rival. It is perhaps less generally appreciated that what makes the Dictionary unique is its historical method; it is a Dictionary not of our English, but of all English: the English of Chaucer, of the Bible, and of Shakespeare is unfolded in it with the same wealth of illustration as is devoted to the most modern authors. When considered in this light, the fact that the first part of the Dictionary was published in 1884 is seen to be relatively unimportant; 44 years is a small

period in the life of a language.
(pp. 312-313)

According to Mugglestone (2005), even the second edition of the *OED* was not able to keep up with modern times. In the 1980s, John Simpson, acting editor, felt that the Internet was the future for the *OED*. Simpson claimed that with the Internet, the editors of the *OED* would have access to advisors from all over the world when lexicographical inquires and authority were called into question. To date, the *OED Online* is still a work in progress.

In conclusion, many great sacrifices and efforts were made to create a masterpiece that helps us, in the present, identify with our language, as it was and is spoken. Without the undertaking of such an effort, we would not have the kind of

documentation demonstrated in the *Oxford English Dictionary*.

Notes

¹ Tindale's translation was said to be false by the church, who, at the time, saw the conversion of the Bible into contemporary English was vulgar and unforgivable. Tindale was executed by English authorities in 1536. Later, his translation of the Bible made substantial contributions to the very well cited *King James Bible* and the translation itself is the source of some 2,000 citations in the *OED* (Willinsky, 1994).

² There were no women in any leadership positions in the *OED*, although thousands of women helped in the collection of word usage examples that made up the definitions and examples in the dictionary.

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Teaching Activities: Tropical Nations in Winter Olympics

Sachiko Sawamura

Background

These activities are the fourth in a series of five topics, organized around the theme of the Olympics and its origin. The five topics include:

Topic 1. Ancient Greek Olympics

Topic 2. The First Winter Olympics

Topic 3. Winter Olympic Games

Topic 4. Tropical Nations in Winter Olympics

Topic 5. Vancouver

The activities presented below are designed for intermediate-level students in an ESL setting. Students can be from any country, with the general goal of improving all the skills of English. The activities center around the content of a movie, “Cool Runnings,” and focus on tropical nations in the Winter Olympics. They aim to build more vocabulary about the Olympics and sports through readings. The target grammatical form is participial construction. In addition, there are some activities to help students develop mnemonic devices and learn suffix rules with the dictionary. Students also improve their speaking and listening skills through various pair and group activities, such as discussion and problem-solving. The writing process, from brainstorming to peer-feedback, is also covered in these activities.

Outline

Schema Building

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Activity 2: Winter Sports

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Word Power

Activity 5: Vocabulary Building (Suffixes)

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Main Reading (includes Speaking, Listening)

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Activity 10: Reading

Activity 11: Reading Comprehension

Activity 12: Reading for More Details

Activity 13: Discussion

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Activity 15: Dictation

Activity 16: From Listening to Reading

Activity 17: Be a Voice Actor!

Grammar Focus

Activity 18: Grammar Consciousness Raising

Activity 19: Information Gap for Grammar

Writing

Activity 20: Writing

Pre-writing

Writing

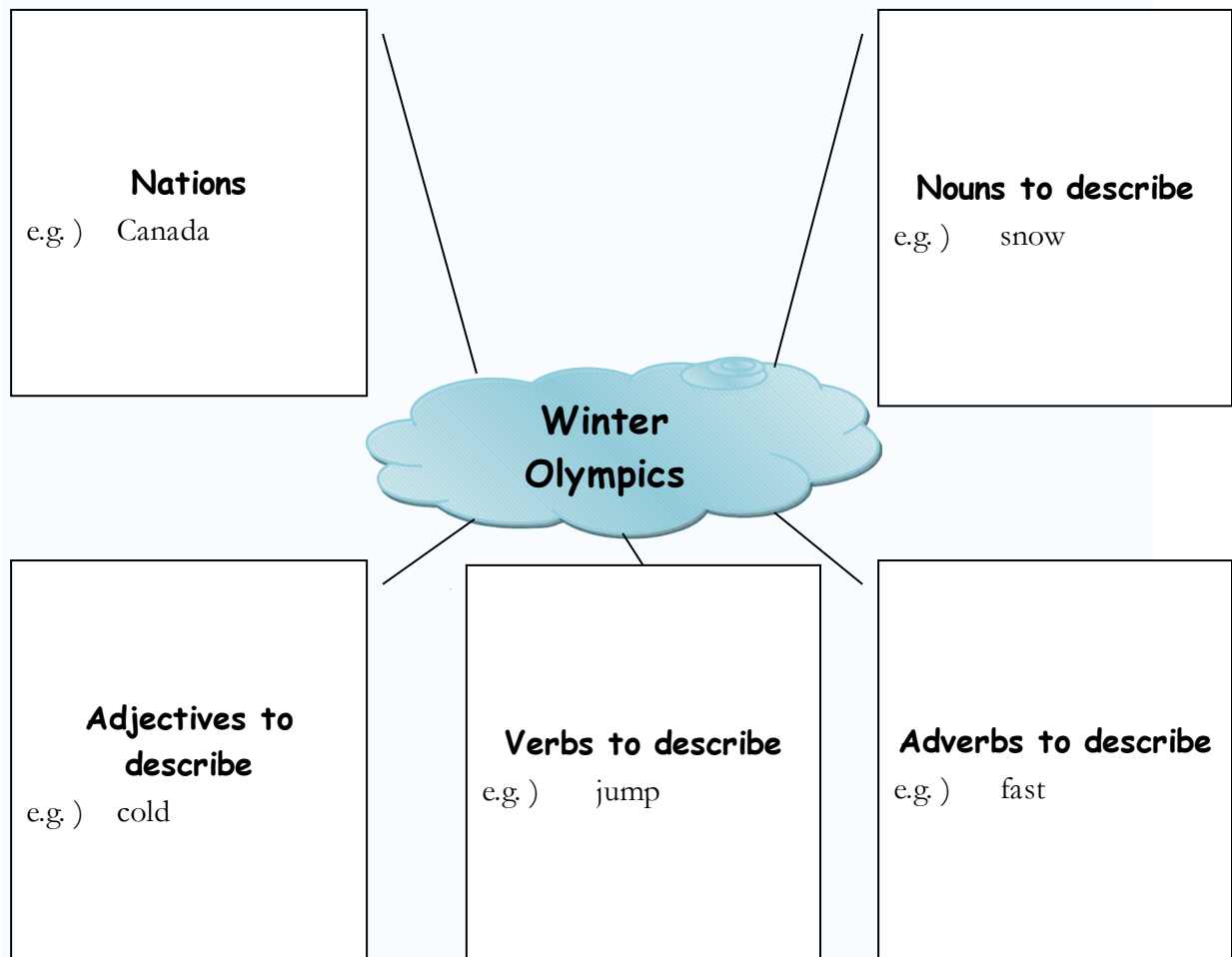
Peer-feedback

Answer Keys

Schema Building

Activity 1: Brainstorming


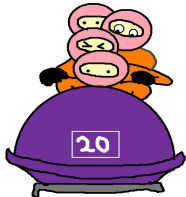

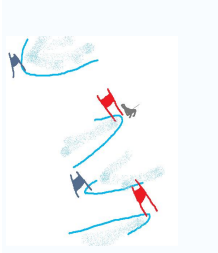
1. What words come up in your mind when you see the word, “Winter Olympics?”
Complete the word map by adding words to each category.



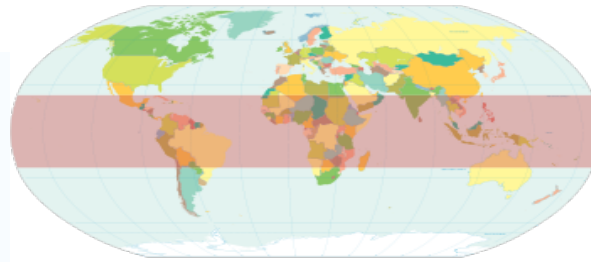
2. Compare your answers with a partner. Discuss any similarities or differences.

Activity 2: Winter Sports

Match sports, definitions, and pictures by drawing two lines for each sport; one line is from the sport to the definition, and the other line is from the definition to the picture. The first one is done for you.

Sports	Definitions	Pictures
1. Slalom skiing	<p>● ●A This is a sport using a small vehicle with two long thin metal blades. The vehicle slides down on a special ice track</p>	<p>● ●a </p>
2. Cross-country skiing	<p>● ●B This is the sport of alpine skiing. It involves skiing between poles spaced close together.</p>	<p>● ●b </p>
3. Giant slalom skiing	<p>● ●C This is the sport of alpine skiing. It involves skiing between sets of poles spaced at a great distance to each other.</p>	<p>● ●c </p>
4. Bobsled	<p>● ●D This is the sport of moving across snow-covered field using skis and poles.</p>	<p>● ●d </p>

Tropical Nations at the Winter Olympics



The Tropic of Cancer

World map with the tropics highlighted in red. Source: Wikipedia (n.d.)

Traditionally, cold weather nations compete in the Winter Olympics, but several tropical nations also **participate**. The typical climate of these nations is not good for **participation** in winter sports. And no tropical nations won Winter Olympic medals. Probably because of that, their **entries** get people's interests during the Games.

The first **participation** of a warm weather nation in the Winter Games was Mexico. Much of Mexico is at a **latitude** north of **the Tropic of Cancer**, and most of the country has a desert or **semi-arid** climate. So it is not a tropical nation. However, Mexico made its Winter debut at the 1928 Winter Olympics with a five-man bobsled team. It finished eleventh of twenty-three **entrants**. Mexico did not return again to the Winter Games until 1984.

The first truly tropical nation to compete in the Winter Olympic Games was the Philippines. This nation sent two alpine skiers to the 1972 Winter Olympics in Sapporo, Japan. *Ben Nanasca* placed 42nd in the giant slalom event (out of 73 entrants), but *Juan Cipriano* did not finish. In the slalom event, neither skier was able to finish. Costa Rica became the second tropical nation to **participate** at the Winter Games, in 1980 at Lake Placid, New York. *Arturo Kinch* also competed in alpine skiing events there. He would continue to participate in competitions for Costa Rica at three more Winter Games, including the 2006 Games at age 49. There he finished 96th in the 15 km cross-country skiing event. He finished ahead of only *Pravat Nagvajara* of Thailand.

The 1988 Winter Olympics in Calgary, Canada attracted a large number of tropical nations, including Costa Rica, Fiji, Guam, Guatemala, Jamaica, Netherlands Antilles, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, and the United States Virgin Islands. The Jamaican Bobsled Team became a fan favorite at these Games. These were later the **inspiration** behind a 1993 movie. The 2006 Winter Olympics in Turin, Italy, marked the Winter Games debut of Ethiopia and Madagascar.

(text adapted from Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tropical_nations_at_the_Winter_Olympics)

Glossary

- entries > entry:** (n.) a situation in which someone starts to take part in a system
- entrants:** (n.) someone who enters a competition, race etc.
- latitude:** (n.) the distance north or south of the equator measured in degrees
- the Tropic of Cancer:** (see the map above)
- semi-arid:** (adj.) having only a little rain and producing only some small plants
- participate:** (v.) to take part in an activity or event
- inspiration:** (n.) a feeling of encouragement that you get from someone or something























Activity 4: Information Gap























You will be given a chart of tropical nations that participated in the Winter Olympic Games, but some information is missing. Form pairs (Student A and Student B) and fill in the blanks by asking your partner for the missing information.

KEY POINTS: How to Pronounce Years

- 1928 is pronounced [19 / 28]. = [nineteen / twenty-eight]
- 2001 is pronounced [2000 / 1]. = [two thousand / one]
- 1980-2004 = **from** [nineteen/eighty] **to** [two thousand/four]

- Model
- A: When did American Samoa participate in the Winter Olympic Games?
 - B: It participated in 1994.
 - A: Where is this country?
 - B: It's in Oceania.

Nation or Area	Participated Year(s)	Location
 American Samoa	(Ex) 1994	Oceania
 Brazil	1992–2006	Central & South America
 Honduras		
 Chinese Taipei	1972–1976, 1984–2006	Asia
 Costa Rica		
 Ethiopia		
 Fiji	1988, 1994, 2002	Oceania
 Guam		
 Guatemala	1988	Central & South America
 Hong Kong		
 Cameroon	2002	Africa
 Jamaica		
 Kenya	1998–2006	Africa
 Madagascar		
 Netherlands Antilles	1988–1992	Caribbean
 Philippines	1972, 1988–1992	Asia
 Puerto Rico		
 Senegal	1984, 1992–1994, 2006	Africa
 Thailand		
 Trinidad and Tobago	1994–2002	Caribbean
 Venezuela	1998–2006	Central & South America
 Virgin Islands		

Nation or Area	Participated Year(s)	Location
 Cameroon	(Ex) 2002	Africa
 Netherlands Antilles		
 Jamaica	1988–2002	Caribbean
 Kenya		
 Madagascar	2006	Africa
 Guatemala		
 Senegal		
 Virgin Islands	1984–2006	Caribbean
 Brazil		
 Honduras	1992	Central & South America
 Venezuela		
 American Samoa	1994	Oceania
 Fiji		
 Costa Rica	1980–1992, 2006	Central & South America
 Guam	1988	Oceania
 Chinese Taipei		
 Puerto Rico	1984–2002	Caribbean
 Trinidad and Tobago		
 Hong Kong	2002–2006	Asia
 Ethiopia	2006	Africa
 Philippines		
 Thailand	2002–2006	Asia

Word Power

Activity 5: Vocabulary Building (Suffixes)

The sentences below are from the reading on “Tropical Nations at the Winter Olympics.” Pay attention to highlighted words. The number in front of each sentence refers to the line number in the reading text.

Line 1: Traditionally, cold weather nations compete in the Winter Olympics, but several tropical nations also participate.

Line 2: The typical climate of these nations is not good for participation in winter sports.

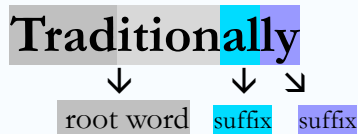
Line 3: Probably because of that, their entries get people’s interests during the Games.

Line 10: The first truly tropical nation to compete in the Winter Olympic Games was the Philippines

Line 15: He would continue to participate competitions for Costa Rica at three more Winter Games.

Line 22: These were later the inspiration behind the 1993 movie called “Cool Runnings.”

- ☞ Some English words are formed by adding a letter or letters called “suffixes” which change the part of speech of the original word.
- ☞ For example, the word, “traditionally,” has two suffixes as you can see with different colors below.



Some dictionaries have word origins as shown below.

“Sometimes you can find the root word in the definition.”



tra•di•tion•al **adj.** tradition + -al
1. relating to the traditions of a country or group of people
Kumar gave the traditional Hindu greeting.

TASK

1. Add a suffix to each word as the example shows below.
2. Find out the suffix rule for each question and complete the suffix rule in the boxes.
3. Check your spellings and the part of speech of the words with a dictionary.

The first one is done for you.

Example:

1. **-tion** participate (v.) + **tion** = participation (n.)

(e.g.) translate (v.) + **tion** = translation (n.)

compete () + **tion** = _____ ()

inspire () + **tion** = _____ ()

Suffix Rule \Rightarrow Verb + **tion** = Noun

2. **-al** tradition (n.) + **al** = traditional (adj.)

tropic () + **al** = _____ ()

finance () + **al** = _____ ()

crime () + **al** = _____ ()

Suffix Rule \Rightarrow _____ + **al** = _____

3. **-ly** traditional (adj.) + **ly** = traditionally (adv.)

true () + **ly** = _____ ()

lucky () + **ly** = _____ ()

similar () + **ly** = _____ ()

Suffix Rule \Rightarrow _____ + **ly** = _____

*There are more suffixes in English!
Pay attention to words and find more
suffix rules!*



Activity 6: Mnemonics

Mnemonics is one of the techniques that you can use when you memorize words. Have fun memorizing words!!



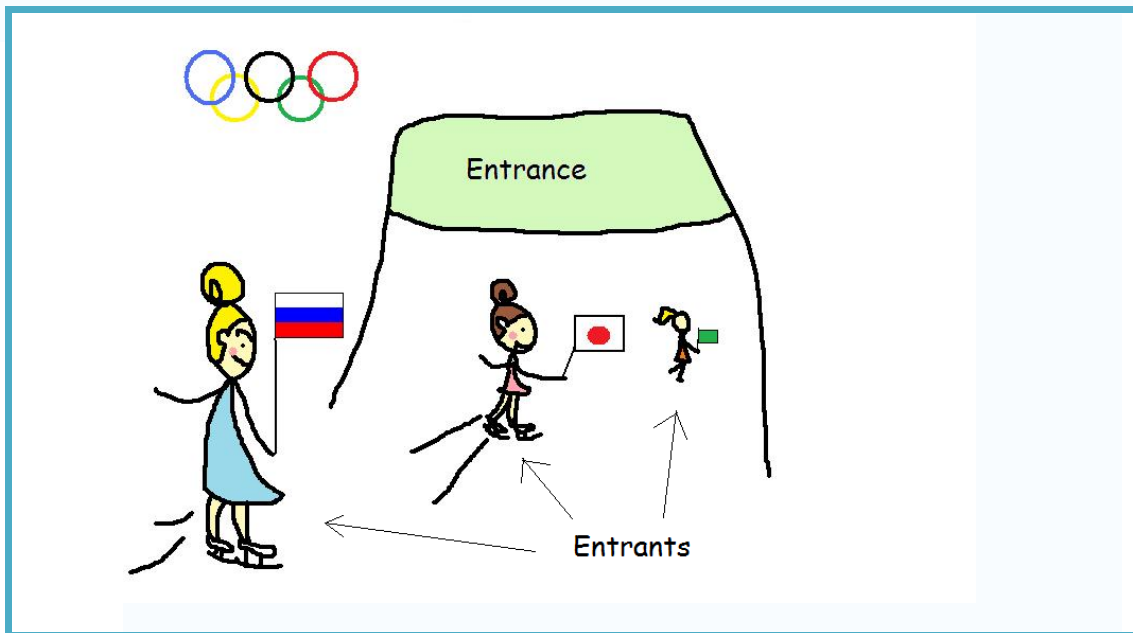
Look at the picture and sentences, and see how the picture can be used as a mnemonic device to help you remember the word.

Example:

New word: **ENTRANT**

Sounds like: **Entrance** ???

Meaning: someone who enters a competition, race etc.



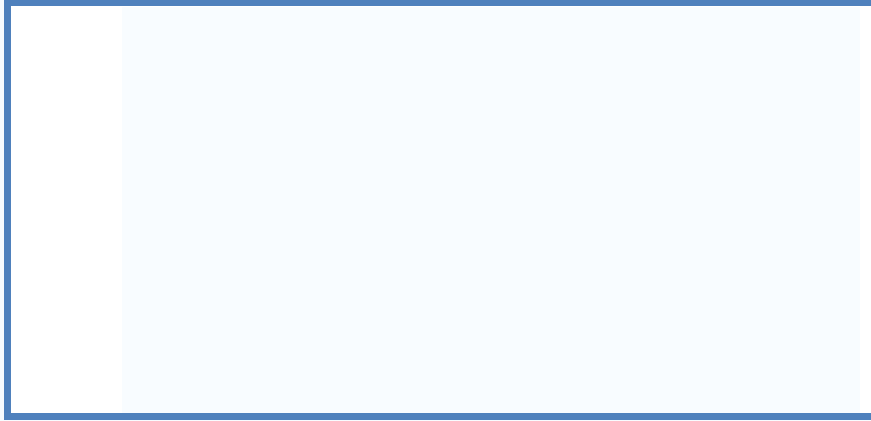
Example sentence: **“All entrants are going through the entrance!”**

TASK

1. Pick up two new words that you do not know from the text on “Tropical nations at the Winter Olympics.” Write down the new word on the New word line.
2. Write what the word sounds like.
3. Write its definition from an Eng-Eng dictionary on the Meaning line.
4. Draw a picture that depicts the definition of the word in the box provided.
5. Write your own sentence below the picture on the Example sentence line.

1. New word _____ Sounds like: _____ ???

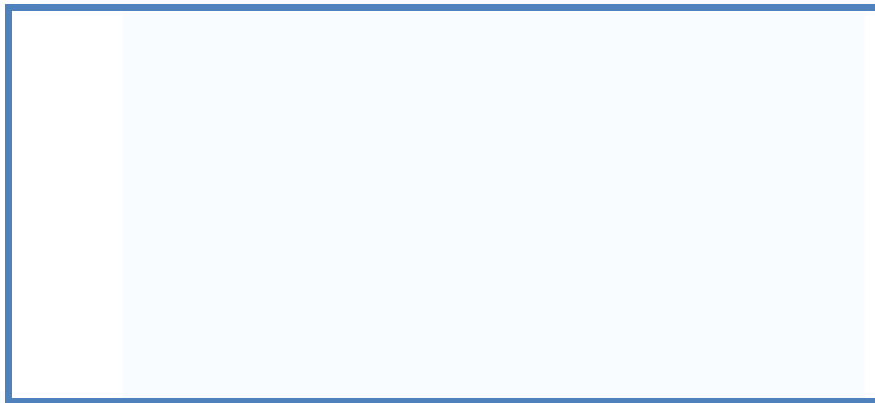
Meaning: _____



Example sentence “ _____ ”

2. New word _____ Sounds like: _____ ???

Meaning: _____



Example sentence “ _____ ”

Main Reading

Activity 7: Guessing from a Picture

Look at the picture below. This is a scene from the movie, “Cool Runnings.”

Imagine and discuss with your partner:

- Where are they?
- Who are they?
- What are they doing?
- Why are they doing it?



Activity 8: Listening to a Song

Now, listen to a song in the movie, “Cool Runnings.” Write down the names of the country, the sport, and the purpose of the team’s training?

- Country ()
- Sport ()
- Purpose of the team’s training ()

Activity 9: Pre-reading (Skimming)

Skim the text entitled “Cool Runnings” on the next page in Activity 10. Number the pictures in the order they are mentioned, from 1 to 6. (Picture b with a “1” has been completed for you.)

a. ()



b. (1)



c. ()



d. ()



e. ()



f. ()



Activity 10: Reading

Read the text below and think about the questions next to the paragraphs.

Cool Runnings



There was a 100m top runner named Derice in Jamaica. He trained hard every day. One day, he attended a trial race for the 1988 Summer Olympics. He was expected to win the race and to go to the Olympics. But at the trial race, a man running next to him fell down. He tripped two other runners. One of them was Derice. Derice could not finish the race and failed to qualify for the 1988 Summer Olympics. He went to the office of the president of Jamaican Olympic Committee. Derice asked the president to hold another trial race, but the president refused. Derice was very disappointed. However, in the president's office, he happened to see a picture of his father with an American, named Irving. He was a double gold medalist of the bobsled competition in the 1968 and 1972 Winter Olympics. Derice decided to train for this same sport for the 1988 Winter Olympics in Canada.

Derice told his best friend, Sanka, to join the bobsled training. Sanka accepted it. Then they went to a bar to see Irving. They persuaded Irving to coach their team. Soon after that, the three men held a meeting to get two

Have you ever seen the 1988 Summer Olympic Games? How about the 1988 Winter Olympic Games?

If you were Derice, what would you say to the president?

more members on their team. At the meeting, Junior decided to join the bobsled team. He was the man who tripped Derice. Yul also decided to join them. He was the other runner tripped by Junior at the trial race. Finally, the first Jamaican bobsled team was born three months before the Winter Olympics.

Do you want to join the Bobsled team?

Derice, Sanka, Junior, and Yul started a three-month training program under Irving's coaching. Training was doing well, but the team needed money to go to Canada and to attend the Olympics. So Derice asked people to be their sponsor, but all the people only laughed at him. Each member tried to make money. Yul held an arm wrestling tournament, while Sanka became a street singer. However, they could not make enough. Junior decided to sell his car, so he made enough money for the team.

Why do you think the people laughed at Derice?

The team finally arrived in Calgary, Canada. They were very surprised at the cold temperature at the airport. It was -25°C outside. The team started training in Canada, but the team did not have a sled. Irving asked his old bobsled friend, Roger, to give his team a sled. He succeeded in getting a sled for his team. The team practiced with a real sled for the first time. They also practiced running on ice. Other bobsledders and people from cold countries made fun of the team because they were from a tropical nation, Jamaica. But the team continued practicing hard. The four members practiced in the bathtub in their hotel room before the night of the Olympic qualifying race.

Have you ever experienced such cold temperature?

The Olympics started. The Jamaicans' first day on the track resulted in embarrassment: a last-place finish. The second day proved better. The

The night before the important race, what would you do?

Jamaican team finished with an incredible time. The time put the team in eighth position. The final race looked as if they would break the world speed record. But tragedy struck. Because one of the blades fell off, their sled flipped at the corner. The finish line was only a few meters away. However, the team lifted their sled up and walked across the finish line. The audience clapped their hands for the Jamaican team. The team, at the end, felt victorious.

What would you like to say to the team?

Based on Wikipedia
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cool_Runnings

Activity 11: Reading Comprehension

Read the text again, and match the character and what s/he did. There are more than 2 answers for each character. You can use the same answer many times. (You can also look at the reading at the same time.)



Yul () Derice () Junior () Sanka () Irving ()

- a. He was a runner.
- b. He was a coach of the Jamaican bobsled team.
- c. He got a real sled for the team in Canada.
- d. He sold his car to make money for the Olympics.
- e. He became a singer on the street to make money for the Olympics.
- f. He tripped two other runners at the trial race for the 1988 Summer Olympics.
- g. He was tripped at the trial race for the 1988 Summer Olympics.
- h. He received two gold medals of bobsledding.
- i. He was Derice's best friend.

Activity 12: Reading for More Details

Answer the questions below based on the reading. You can review the text if you need to.

1. Why couldn't Derice go to the 1988 Summer Olympics?
2. How did the team get a real sled?
3. How was their last race at the Olympics?

Activity 13: Discussion

Discuss the following questions in a small group.

Have you watched Bobsled races before?

If yes, when? How were the races?

Imagine people in Jamaica watching the 1988 Olympic races live on TV.

How do you think they would react to the team's race?

Activity 14: Problem-Solving

Work in a small group. Imagine that you are members of the Jamaican Bobsled team. You need money to go to the Olympic Games. You could not find support from the government or sponsors. How are you going to make \$25,000 in three months?



Discuss with your group members and write numbers (1~6) in the blanks.

[1 = strongly agree ... 6 =strongly disagree]

- () a. sell a house
- () b. rob a bank
- () c. become street musicians
- () d. find sponsors again
- () e. ask the government again
- () f. participate in the TV show “Who Wants to Be a Millionaire?”

Activity 15: Dictation

Listen to a conversation in "Cool Runnings" and fill in the blanks.



Derice: That's a (1 _____).

Sanka: Oh, so a bobsled is push-cart with no (2 _____).

Derice: That's what it looks like here.

Sanka: Let me see that...Alright, "the key (3 _____) to a successful sled team are a (4 _____) driver, and three strong (5 _____) to push off down the ice." ICE? Ice?

Derice: Well, it's kind of a (6 _____) sport, you know.

Sanka: You mean winter, as in ice?

Derice: Maybe.

Sanka: You mean winter, as in igloos and Eskimos and (7 _____) and ICE?

Derice: Possibly.

Sanka: See you.

Derice: Where you going?

Sanka: I'm going to take a hot (8 _____), I'm getting cold just thinking about all this ice.

Sanka: Look star, let me tell you a little something, alright. When you need something from me, you don't (9 _____)(10 _____) hand me a bunch of lines. All you have to do is look at me in the (11 _____) and say, "Sanka, you are my best friend and we have been through a (12 _____) heap together and I really, really need you."

Derice: Sanka, You're alright. You are my best friend, and we've been through a whole lot (13 _____).

Sanka: Heap, heap!

Derice: Sorry man, whole heap together.

Sanka: And I really, really need you.

Derice: And I really, really need you.

Sanka: (14 _____) it.

Derice: But I just said what you...

Sanka: Alright, man. Alright.

Activity 16: From Listening to Reading

Go back to the reading in Activity: 10 [Cool Runnings], and find out the paragraph which describes the scene you just heard in Activity 15.

Paragraph # ()

Activity 17: Be a Voice Actor!



1. Form pairs to practice the previous conversation between Derice and Sanka in Activity 15.
2. You will perform the role of either Derice or Sanka. Choose one and practice.
3. Read along with the scene on the TV screen if you have TV and DVD player in your class. (Make sure to turn off the TV volume before you start.)
4. Switch the roles of Derice and Sanka.

*You can choose other scenes from the movie and find more members to act with if you want.
You can role-play if you want or if you do not have TV and DVD in your class.*



Grammar Focus

Participial Construction

Activity 18: Grammar Consciousness Raising

Look at the pictures and the chart below. Read the descriptions of the pictures on the next page, and answer the questions in parts 2 and 3 below.

1.



2.



3.



4.



Information of Jamaica

5. Official Language	English
6. Currency	Jamaican dollar
7. Music	Reggae

(1) Study these sentences that describe the people in the pictures.

1. The man RUNNING on the street is Derice.
2. The man SINGING on the street is Sanka.
3. The man HOLDING an arm wrestling tournament is Yul.
4. The man COACHING the Jamaican Bobsled team is Irving.
5. The language SPOKEN officially in Jamaica is English.
6. The currency USED in Jamaica is Jamaican dollar.
7. The music LOVED by Jamaican people is Reggae.

(2) When is *the present participle* (~ing) used, and when is *the perfect participle* (~ed and other irregular rules) used?

(3) Which of the following sentences are **ungrammatical**? Correct the ungrammatical sentences.

1. The girl play tennis is Mary.

2. The people swum in the pool are synchronized swimmers.

3. The language spoke in Japan is Japanese.

4. The food loved by Korean is Kimchi.

5. The man stood next to Irving in the picture is Derice's father.

Activity 19: Information Gap for Grammar

Work in pairs. Each of you will be given pictures of people doing things. Some of the people's names are given to you but some are missing. Find out the people's names by asking your partner.

Model A: Who is **the boy hitting a ball**?
B: **The boy hitting a ball** is Tom.

Student A

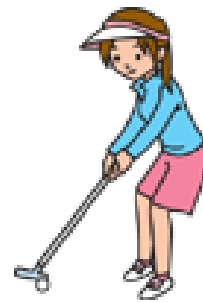
Tom



()



Ann



()



()



Hana



Paul



Tom



()



Ken



()



Edward



Catherine



()



Writing

Activity 20: Pre-Writing

You will write an imaginary story about the team after they went back to Jamaica. Write down your idea.

1. After they went back to Jamaica from the Olympic Games what did they do?



Yul
↓



Deice
↓



Junior
↓



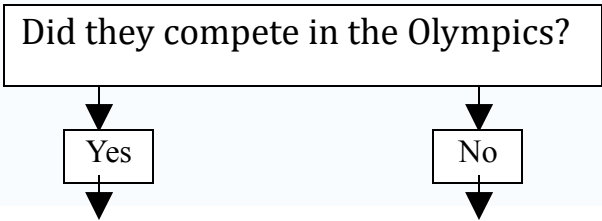
Sanka
↓



Irving
↓

2. How did other people react? (Other people can be the government, family, and so on)

3. Four years later...



Activity 21: Writing

Write a story after the team went back to Jamaica, and four years later. After you finish writing, **proofread your writing**.



Activity 22: Peer Feedback

Exchange stories with another student, and **give feedback to each other's story**.

Questions	Yes/No	Comments
1. Did the writer clearly describe each character after the team went back to Jamaica in his/her story? About Derice		
About Yul		
About Junior		
About Sanka		
About Irving		
2. Did the writer clearly describe the reaction of other people after the team went back to Jamaica?		
3. Did the writer clearly describe the bobsled team four years later?		
4. Was this story attractive and interesting for you?		
[Any other comment]		

Answer Keys

Activity 1: Brainstorming

Answers will vary. (e.g.) Nation: Japan, Canada, Russia, etc. Nouns to describe: fun, game, skate, ski, etc. Adjective to describe: excited, beautiful, strong, etc. Verbs to describe: compete, cooperate, jump, etc. Adverbs to describe: slowly, fast, etc.

Activity 2: Winter Sports

1. B-c
2. D-a
3. C-d
4. A-b

Activity 3: Information Transfer (Scanning)








1. “Debut” means to appear in public for the first time or to become available to the public for the first time.

1972	The Philippines	This nation sent two alpine skiers to the 1972 Winter Olympics in Sapporo, Japan. In the slalom event, neither skier was able to finish
1980	Costa Rica	At Lake Placid, New York, <i>Arturo Kinch</i> competed in alpine skiing events there.
1988	Fiji, Guam, Guatemala, Jamaica, Netherlands Antilles, Puerto Rico, and the United States Virgin Islands	A large number of tropical nations attracted the 1988 Winter Olympics in Calgary, Canada.
2006	Ethiopia and Madagascar	In Turin, Italy.

Activity 4: Information Gap

Check your answers with our partner.

Nation or Area	Participated Year(s)	Location
 Cameroon	2002	Africa
 Ethiopia	2006	Africa
 Kenya	1998–2006	Africa
 Madagascar	2006	Africa
 Senegal	1984, 1992–1994, 2006	Africa
 Jamaica	1988–2002	Caribbean
 Netherlands Antilles	1988–1992	Caribbean
 Puerto Rico	1984–2002	Caribbean
 Trinidad and Tobago	1994–2002	Caribbean
 Virgin Islands	1984–2006	Caribbean
 Brazil	1992–2006	Central & South America
 Costa Rica	1980–1992, 2006	Central & South America
 Guatemala	1988	Central & South America
 Honduras	1992	Central & South America
 Venezuela	1998–2006	Central & South America

 American Samoa	1994	Oceania
 Fiji	1988, 1994, 2002	Oceania
 Guam	1988	Oceania
 Chinese Taipei	1972–1976, 1984–2006	Asia
 Hong Kong	2002–2006	Asia
 Philippines	1972, 1988–1992	Asia
 Thailand	2002–2006	Asia

Activity 5: Vocabulary Building (Suffixes)

1. compete (v) = competition (n), inspire (v) = inspiration (n)
2. tropic (n) = tropical (adj), finance (n) = financial (adj), crime (n) = criminal (adj)

Suffix Rule Noun + al = Adjective

3. true (adj) = truly (adv), lucky (adj) = luckily (adv), similar (adj) = similarly

Suffix Rule Adjective + ly = Adverb

Activity 6: Mnemonics

Answers will vary.

Activity 7: Guessing from a Picture

Answers will vary.

- (e.g.)
1. They are in the bathroom because I can see a bathtub and a shower curtain.
 2. They may be good friends.
 3. They are sitting in the bathtub and holding others' shoulders.
 4. Because they are protecting themselves from an earthquake.

Activity 8: Listening to a Song

1. Jamaica
2. Bobsled
3. To go to Olympics

Song Lyrics; "Jamaican Bobsledding Chant"

nuff people say they know they cant believe, **jamaica** we have a **bobsled** team
(repeat once)

we have the one derice, and the one jr., yule brenner, and the man sank

the fastest of the fastest of jamaican sprinters, **go to olymipcs**, fight for jamaica
(repeat everything except for that last part)

the fastest of the fastest of jamaican sprinters, respect to the man irv blitser

Activity 9: Pre-reading (Skimming)

- a. 3
- b. 1
- c. 2
- d. 5
- e. 6
- f. 4

Activity 10: Reading

Answer will vary.

Activity 11: Reading Comprehension

Yul (a, g), Derice (a, g), Junior (a, d, f), Sanka (e, i), Irvin (b, c, h)

Activity 12: Reading for More Details

1. Because he was tripped by another runner in the trial race.
2. Because Irvin asked his old friend to lend a sled.
3. Though their sled flipped at the corner, the team, at the end, felt victorious.

Activity 13: Discussion

Answer will vary.

Activity 14: Problem-Solving

Answer will vary.

Activity 15: Dictation

1. bobsled 2. wheels 3. elements 4. steady 5. runners 6. winter 7. penguins 8. bath 9. have 10. to 11. eye 12. whole 13. together 14. Forget

Activity 16: From Listening to Reading

Paragraph #(2)

Activity 17: Be a Voice Actor! [Option: Role-Playing]

Activity 18: Grammar Consciousness Raising

- (1) Make sure students examine the sentences carefully.
- (2) Present participle (-ing) is used to describe someone who is doing, and past participle (-ed, or irregular form) is used to describe something that is done.
- (3) 1. (ungrammatical) The girl playing tennis is Mary.
2. (ungrammatical) The people swimming in the pool are synchronized swimmers.
3. (ungrammatical) The language spoken in Japan is Japanese.
4. (grammatical)
5. (ungrammatical) The man standing next to Irving in the picture is Derice's father.

Activity 19: Information Gap for Grammar

Check your answers with our partner.

Activities 20-22: Pre-Writing, Writing, Peer Feedback

Answers will vary.

References

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CALL FOR CONTRIBUTIONS

The TESL programs at Hawai'i Pacific University publish a bi-annual *Working Paper Series* to appear by the end of spring and fall semesters. We would like to invite all students in the TESL programs to submit their papers to be considered for publication.

About the Series

This series aims to publish the students' selected academic works on a program-wide level for quick dissemination. Since it is a working paper series, students can still revise and submit their published papers to other refereed journals to be considered for publication. From 2009, the Series is published in online format on the MATESL program's website. Previous issues are both online and on paper (catalogued at HPU's Meader Library and distributed to students and faculty at each semester's Capstone Presentations). Papers published in this series should be cited in the following format:

Aloha, H. (2005). My published paper. *Hawai'i Pacific University TESL Working Paper Series*, 4(1), 1-8.

Criteria

All students are encouraged to submit their papers to be considered for publication. Papers included in the series should be relevant to theoretical and practical issues in TESOL, contribute to current and future teachers' understanding of theory and practice in TESOL, be well-written and free of error, and follow the APA style of formatting.

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We would like to include papers in the following categories:

- critical and/or synthesized literature reviews
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There are two deadlines per year, **January 31st** and **September 15th**. Please send your paper as an email attachment to Dr. Hanh Nguyen at hnguyen domain hpu.edu.

Important Notes

If you are sending a class paper, please revise the paper based on your instructor's suggestions before submission and include a copy of the original version with your instructor's comments. If you are submitting a paper that is also in the process of being revised for your portfolio, please inform the co-editors upon submission so that special arrangements can be made with your portfolio committee. Papers must be proofread carefully before submission.

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