A Systematic and Principled Approach to Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

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1. Introduction

Students at Soai University face several problems in improving their reading. Efficient vocabulary acquisition is one of their major problems. Even the students who want to go abroad to study are greatly disappointed to find the big gap between their vocabulary size and what is needed for the academic study abroad. Looking back at their high school days, some eager students looked up new lexical items in the dictionary, and wrote down some Japanese equivalents in the notebooks without considering the context. Some lazy students copied the word-lists compiled by others before the class or jotted down the translation in the textbooks during the class. They were given explanations of new lexical items, but rarely had the opportunity to practise them and were expected to remember them at home.

According to the present writer's survey of English learning among freshmen (mostly 16 years of age) at a College of Technology (Noro 1990:87), about 37 percent of all the informants reported not liking English, and cited, as the third most important reason, that they can't memorize English words because of differences in the classification of experience between L1 and L2 and and the comparative unpredictability of the English sound-symbol relationship. Approximately 85 percent of all the informants, on the other hand, see vocabulary as being a very important element in language learning. Thus, quite a number of students are troubled about vocabulary learning, but it seems that English teachers leave vocabulary learning to their students, and assume that they will acquire by themselves the vocabulary they encounter in their text.

Vocabulary study has received relatively little attention from English-speaking linguists. It is partly because "it does not lend itself easily to the structural and systematic treatment in the way syntax and phonology have done." It is also partly because "the formal analysis of words has been absorbed by morphology and the study of word meaning by

semantics (Stern 1983:131-32)." In foreign language teaching, too, vocabulary has been a relatively neglected area in the last 50 years. Now, however, there are signs that the status of vocabulary in the language learning process and as an area of research is being restored to respectability. In the 1980s and 1990s, a number of teachers' handbooks on vocabulary teaching have been published (Allen 1983; Carter & McCarthy 1988; Gairns & Redman 1986; McCarthy 1990; Morgan & Rinvolucri 1986; Nation 1990; Taylor 1990, 1992; Wallace 1982). Theory-based vocabulary textbooks for ESL/EFL learners have been brought to the market one after another.

These books suggest that learners need a time set aside for vocabulary study when words can be presented to them and practised systematically, though they may learn words incidentally in almost every activity. The books also show that there is a wide variety of ways for dealing with vocabulary in foreign or second language learning. So, the aim of this paper is to present a systematic and principled approach to the development of a personal strategy for teaching and learning vocabulary. The second chapter focuses on the principles of vocabulary teaching and learning, and the third chapter is devoted to classroom activities in terms of conveying meaning, checking for comprehension and consolidation.

2. The Principles of Teaching and Learning Vocabulary

2.1. 'Knowing' a Word

What does it mean to know a word? The knowledge of vocabulary involves various aspects. Many of these aspects have been posited by Richards (1976). Wallace (1982:27) has mentioned nine aspects in easy terms. Nation (1990:31) has presented a well-organized list as a summary, as Table 1 shows. In his list, there are four general classification criteria, each of which is divided into two sub-sections. Each sub-section is also divided into two parts: productive knowledge (**P**) and receptive knowledge (**R**). If teachers have a clear understanding of those aspects, they will be able to make good use of the list for a frame of reference for assessing vocabulary teaching and learning. Some important aspects are referred to briefly below.

Table 1 Knowing a Word

Form			
Spoken form	R	What does the word sound like
	P	How is the word pronounced?
Written form	R	What does the word look like?
	P	How is the word written and spelled?
Position			
Grammatical patterns	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
	P	In what pattern must we use the word?
Collocations	R	What words or types of words can be expected before or after the word?
	P	What words or types of words must we use with this word?
Function			
Frequency	R	How common is the word?
	P	How often should the word be used?
Appropriateness	R	Where would we expect to meet this word?
	P	Where can this word be used?
Meaning			
Concept	R	What does the word mean?
	P	What word should be used to express this meaning?
Associations	R	What other words does this word make us think of?
	P	What other words could we use instead of this one?

2.1.1. Frequency

Knowing a word means knowing the frequency of the word, i.e. "knowing the degree of probability of encountering the words in speech or in print (Richards 1976:79)." We recognize that a word like *book* is more frequent than *manual* or *directory* while both these words are less frequent than *thesaurus*. "The high frequency of an item is no guarantee of usefulness, but there is obviously a significant correlation between the two (Gairns & Redman 1986:58)." This implies that if we are teaching the target language where it is not spoken, we will start off with the high-frequency vocabulary items and spend valuable class time on them.

2.1.2. Collocations

Knowing a word involves "having some expectation of the words that it will collocate with (Nation 1990:32)." When two lexical items are used together frequently, they are

said to collocate. The word *meat*, for example, collocates with *tender, tough*. Since there are no 'rules' of collocation, collocation is one of the most difficult aspects of vocabulary study. One teaching implication would be not to deal with new lexical items in isolation, but to "give a meaningful context for the word, if possible with several examples of its use in connected discourse (Taylor 1990:2)." Brown (1980:2) gives some advice in giving exercises for teaching collocations:

(1) Teachers find and practise the collocates within each new list (in each chapter in a textbook), and also look back on previous lists and practise the old words that collocate with the new ones.

(2) Secondary meanings should not be introduced before the primary meaning.

(3) Teachers must make sure that students learn normal collocates before infrequent ones.

2.1.3. Association

Knowing a word entails "knowledge of the network of association between that word and other words in language (Richards 1976:81)." For example, when given the word *table*, and asked what other words it makes us think of, we will commonly say *chair*. Thus, there is a great deal of uniformity among the responses. Richards (1976:81) presents a number of different types of associative links as follows.

by contrast or antonym	wet —— dry
by similarity or synonym	blossom —— flower
by subordinative classification	animal —— dog
by coordinate classification	apple —— peach
by superordinate classification	spinach —— vegetable

Since the association may not be common to every culture or language, learners will find it difficult to develop associations for the English words they learn. Especially, socio-cultural associations are a more difficult area for foreign learners. If you "ask a British native speaker what he associates with 'Friday the 13th', he will almost certainly say bad luck, broken mirrors, walking under ladders and will list other such superstitions (Gairns & Redman 1986:19)."

2.1.4. Register

Knowing a word means knowing the register of the word, i.e. "knowing the limitations imposed of the use of the word according to variations of function and situation (Richards 1976:79)." Vocabulary choice is significantly governed by who is saying what, to whom, and why. This variety is called register. For example, 'Would you like a cigarette?' is a neutral expression, appropriate in most contexts. 'Want a fag?' may be an accepted utterance between friends, but if made to a stranger it would be perceived as rude. Richards (1976:79-80) presents a useful list of register restraints which affect the appropriateness of a word: temporal variation, geographical variation, social variation, social role, field of discourse, and mode of discourse. To put it more concretely, these include whether the word is old fashioned, limited to American rather than British usage, colloquial or formal rather than neutral or impolite, considered to be appropriate only to women or to men, or more suitable to spoken English than written English. This is also one of the most difficult aspects for EFL learners to acquire. One teaching implication might be "to introduce only neutral terms at elementary level in so far as this is possible since these are capable of most generalization (Taylor 1990:2)."

2.1.5. Morphology

Knowing a word means having the knowledge of morphology, i.e. "knowing the underlying form of a word and the derivations that can be made from it (Richards 1976:80)." For example, the word *immigration* has a common prefix denoting into (im-), a common noun suffix (-ion) and is derived from the verb *migrate*. One teaching implication is that knowledge of morphological patterns facilitate understanding unfamiliar words by relating these words to known words or known prefixes, roots and suffixes.

2.1.6. Semantics

Knowing a word means having the knowledge of semantics, i.e. "knowing firstly what the word means or denotes ... knowing secondly what the word connotates (Taylor 1990:2)." It is relatively easy to teach denotation of concrete items like *window, apple,* or *umbrella* by showing these objects or pictures of these objects. On the contrary, it is rather difficult to teach abstract concepts. For these concepts, synonyms, antonyms, paraphrases or definitions may be useful. In teaching vocabulary, we have to make the learners notice that certain items intrinsically have positive or negative connotations. In the Western culture, for example, the word *slim* is positively evaluated, while the term *fat* is negatively evaluated,

so many euphemisms such as *plump* (used of women and children), *portly* (used of a rather old man), *chubby* (used of babies and children) or *well-built* are often used instead of that term.

2.1.7. Polysemy

Knowing a word means having the knowledge of polysemy, i.e. "knowing many of the different meanings associated with the word (Richards 1976:82)." In English, *head* can be the top part of a human body, someone who is in control of an organization, or a part at the top of an object. For most people, the psychologically central or focal meaning is probably the first, the top part of a human body, and the other meanings are peripheral. If we see the underlying concept 'topmost part of' in the first meaning, we can metaphorically grasp the meanings of 'head of the committee/ queue/valley'. "The power of the central meaning ... may be important features in how words are learnt and how different senses are felt to relate to the centre or periphery of a word's meaning potential (McCarthy 1990:25)."

2.2. Principles of Enhancing Understanding and Storage in Memory
2.2.1. Motivating Learners to Wish to Memorize

As Hatori (1977:196) claims, even if new lexical items are very effectively presented, if learners don't wish to memorize them and don't concentrate their attention to them, they will probably have poor retention of these words. It is due to this factor that we can't remember the names of the railway stations or bus stops that we pass every day when we have no intention to memorize them.

2.2.2. Frequent Exposure and Repetition

Repetition is a prominent feature of mother-child discourse ('motherese'). The mother makes frequent repetitions of her own utterances in order to continue the conversation, while the child is exposed to a great number of repetitions. This implies that repetition seems to be an important factor in vocabulary learning. Actually, however, even if a word is repeated, "if the teacher does not use challenging ways to draw the learners' attention to a word then learning will be poor (Nation 1990:43)."

Nation (1990:44) reports one experiment that found that 16 or more repetitions were necessary to ensure the learning of a word when students were not told they would be tested and did not consciously 'learn' the new vocabulary. Gairns and Redman (1986:66) suggest as few as eight to twelve new items may be appropriate (eight for elementary

students, twelve for more advanced students) for a sixty-minute lesson for truly productive vocabulary learning to take place. Both studies imply that teachers should select the coursebook which provides opportunity for sufficient repetition or for attention to vocabulary.

Research seems to show that most forgetting occurs soon after the first learning. From this research, it will follow that if repetitions occur soon after the first encounter they will be most effective. Pimslear (1967) suggests that the first repetitions should occur quite soon after the introduction of a new word, and that next repetitions can be a day or more away, and the next a week or more, and so on. Nation (1990:45) also reminds us that "it is the old material in any lesson which is more important than the new material" in terms of repetition.

2.2.3. Grouping Items on the Basis of Similarities

Similarities between words can make learning easier. In teaching vocabulary it is suggested that the items selected for the lesson come from the same *semantic field*, which is made up of a set of semantically similar items. These fields may range from very broad categories, such as 'life and living things' to smaller areas, such as 'kinship relations', and clearly the same item will be included in different fields. Crow and Quigley (1985) present evidence for superior achievement in vocabulary learning using a semantic field approach. Seal (1991:300-1) mentions several advantages to this grouping as follows:

(1) By learning items in sets, the learning of one item can reinforce the learning of another.

(2) Items that are similar in meaning can be differentiated.

(3) Students may more likely feel a sense of tangible progress in having mastered a circumscribed lexical domain.

(4) Follow-up activities can be more easily designed that incorporate the items.

Gairns and Redman (1986:69-71) classify the groupings into different types of semantic fields as well as phonological and grammatical sets.

Items related by topic
Items grouped as an activity or process (also topic-related)
Items which are similar in meaning

Items which form 'pairs' (synonyms, contrasts and opposites)

Items along a scale or cline, which illustrate differences of degree

Items within 'word families' i.e. derivatives

Items grouped by (a) grammatical similarity and (b) notional similarity

Items which connect discourse

Items forming a set of idioms or multi-word verbs

Items grouped by spelling difficulty or phonological difficulty

Items grouped by style

An item explored in terms of its different meanings

Items causing particular difficulty within one nationality group

2.2.4. Appealing to Visual Sense

Many experienced teachers build up a library of various visual aids during their years of teaching. They include wallcharts, commercially-produced flash cards, homemade magazine picture flash cards, blackboard drawings, illustrations from books and realia. They are particularly useful for teaching concrete items, and are used not only for conveying meaning but also for practice, consolidation and testing.

Mimes and gestures are often used to supplement other ways of conveying meaning. Grids, clines, and clusters can be included in this category as well. They can be used to help learners to expand and establish the meanings of words they are familiar with.

2.2.5. Presentation in Context

The skillful mother tongue reader understands as he reads because he derives sufficient meaning of unknown words from the context. Then, what is context? Context may include morphological, syntactic and discourse information in a text. Nattinger (1988:63) mentions a number of context clues. First of all, "our guesses are guided by the topic, ... which in reading may be signalled by an abstract or outline of what we are about to read." Secondly, "we are guided by the other words in the discourse to help us to guess." By the other words he means redundancy, anaphora and parallelism. Lastly, "grammatical structure, as well as intonation in speech and punctuation in writing contain further cues." Nattinger also introduces the following examples of redundancy classified by Clarke and Silberstein (1977:145):

> **synonym in apposition:** Our uncle was a *nomad*, an incurable wanderer who never could stay in one place.

antonym: While the aunt loved Marty deeply, she absolutely *despised* his twin brother Smarty.

cause and effect: By surrounding the protesters with armed policemen, and by arresting the leaders of the movement, the rebellion was effectively *quashed*.

association between an object and its purpose or use: The scientist removed the *treatise* from the shelf and began to read.

description: Tom received a new *roadster* for his birthday. It is a sports model, red with white interior and bucket seats, capable of reaching speeds of more than 150 mph.

example: Mary can be quite *gauche*; yesterday she blew her nose on the new linen tablecloth.

Stevick (1976:30) believes that the reason vocabulary is easier to learn in context than in isolated word list is that such meaningful contexts permit this more complex and deeper processing. When a new lexical item is presented in context, it is also a very important point for learners to know the register of the word and the usual collocation that the word occur in. Thus, context helps us enhance understanding unknown words.

2.2.6. Activating Inference Ability

Inferring or guessing the meaning of a new word entails two aspects. One is in terms of a strategy for dealing with the difficult lexical items. When learners are faced with the task of comprehending a number of unfamiliar new lexical items, if they have already developed inference strategies, they will overcome them and successfully comprehend the text. The other is in terms of the retention in memory. Contextual guesswork can facilitate learning words. After learners got the meaning of a word through the deeply-processed guesswork, they will encounter the same word again in another context. The word seems to remind them of the context in which it first occurred, and its meaning retaining in their memory.

Learners can derive the meaning of a new word by making use of the context, and in some cases the word itself. Nation and Coady (1988:104-8) elaborated the steps of the strategy for inferring from context. The skeleton procedure is as follows:

Step 1 Finding the part of speech of the unknown word.

Step 2 Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary.

Step 3 Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the

relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and surrounding clauses and sentences.

Step 4 Guessing the meaning of the unknown word.

Step 5 Checking that the guess is correct.

    (a) Check that the part of speech of the guess is the same as the part of speech of the unknown word.

    (b) Break the unknown word into parts (prefix, root, and suffix) and see if the meaning of the parts relates to the guess.

    (c) Substitute the guess for the unknown word. Does it make sense in context?

    (d) Look in a dictionary.

2.2.7. Relating the Unknown to the Known

It is advisable to relate unknown words to the learners' knowledge or experience, because such knowledge or experience can facilitate the understanding and retention of unknown words. Knowledge may include morphological knowledge and the knowledge of 'katakana eigo' or loan words from English. There are so large a number of loan words from English that the proper knowledge of 'katakana eigo' is quite helpful for increasing vocabulary. Actually, however, there are a couple of elements we have to be careful about: 'Japanese English', which is not correct English but was coined by the Japanese; quasi-loan words, whose meanings are different from those of the original English; Japanized pronunciation and accentuation.

Some mnemonic techniques can be included in this category. They relate an unknown word of the target language to the known language of the native language by way of associations. For example, associating the meaning 'black' with the German word *schwarz*, one might associate the word *swarthy*, 'which has the meaning "dark, black" (Curren 1976: 77)'. This memory device, which links two words of similar sounds and meanings, is called *paired associates* (Nattinger 1988:66). Muto (1972) uses a similar sort of paired associates in his books on teaching English vocabulary, and suggests, for example, that for associating the meaning *kennel* with the Japanese word *inu koya*, he associates the phrase *ken neru*, which literally means 'a dog sleeps'.

The keyword technique is said to be very effective for learning foreign vocabulary (Nation 1990:164). In this technique the learners create an unusual association between the word form and its meaning. Nation (1990:164) explains how an Indonesian learner of English remembers the meaning of the English word *parrot*. "First, the learner thinks of an Indonesian word that sounds like *parrot* or like a part of *parrot* — for example, the In-

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donesian word *parit*, which means 'a ditch'. This is the key word. Second, the learner imagines a parrot lying in a ditch (see Figure 1)!" He adds that "the more striking and unusual the image, the more effective it is". In Japan, however, research or applications on the basis of this technique have not been reported, to the best of the writer's knowledge.
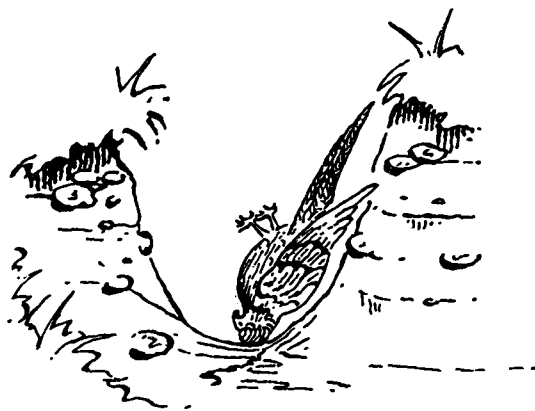

Figure 1   The keyword technique (Nation 1990:164)

2.2.8. Giving Meaningful Tasks

Theories of forgetting suggest that the information stored in the memory will gradually fade and finally disappear unless we don't activate it fairly regularly. So the main concern of language teachers is to prevent forgetting. Some teachers have stressed the need for meaningful problem-solving tasks. Morrow (1981:63-64) says, "To learn it, do it." In other words, if language students want to learn vocabulary, they must use it as often as possible. In order to have them use it, teachers try to get them involved in meaningful problem-solving tasks, because "more meaningful tasks require learners to analyse and process language more deeply, which helps them commit information to long term memory (Gairns and Redman 1986:90)". Such a tight relationship between 'cognitive depth' and retention has been demonstrated by Craik and Lockhart (1972).

3. Techniques in Systematic Vocabulary Teaching

There are different types of vocabulary teaching from incidental teaching to planned teaching. This chapter deals with the systematic 'vocabulary lesson'. The lesson is divided into three three stages: conveying meaning, check for comprehension and consolidation,

according to the 3C's approach that Seal (1991:301-4) has proposed. Though some modes of activities have already been referred to in Chapter 2, this chapter focuses on the practical aspects of vocabulary teaching.

3.1. Conveying Meaning

There are a lot of ways to present a new word to learners, but most typical ways are suggested in this chapter. It will be more effective if those modes of presentation would not be used in isolation but be combined.

3.1.1. Visuals

Visuals such as pictures, everyday objects, models and wallcharts, are extensively used for conveying meaning, and are particularly ideal for teaching concrete items of vocabulary at the lower levels. However, "a stock of high-quality, impactful, situational pictures cut from magazines, brochures, and catalogs may also be useful in presenting more abstract, conceptual, and complex vocabulary at higher levels (Seal 1991:301)".

3.1.2. Mime and Gesture

These are often used to supplement the ways of conveying meaning. When teaching an item like *swerve*, a teacher might illustrate the situation orally or with a drawing to convey its meaning, and could also use gesture to reinforce the concept.

3.1.3. Word Relations

There are such types of word relations as synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy. "Teachers often use synonymy with low level students, where inevitably they have to compromise and restrict the length and complexity of their explanations (Gairns and Redman 1986:74)." With high level students, too, synonymy is commonly used. *Bloke*, for example, means the same as *man*, but is colloquial.

As with synonymy, antonymy is a useful technique. A new item like *sour* is easily illustrated by contrasting it with *sweet* which would already be known to students. However, the opposite is not always true: the opposite of sweet wine isn't sour and the opposite of sweet tea isn't sour tea. This implies that it is vital to embed the target words in the contexts.

Hyponymy is "a relationship between two words, in which the meaning of one of the words includes the meaning of the other word (Richards et al. 1985:131-32)". For exam-

ple, the words *bird* and *parrot* are related in this way. The specific term, *parrot*, is called a hyponym of *bird*, while the general term, *bird*, is the superordinate term. "One can facilitate the identification of an item by showing to what superordinate class of items it belongs (Seal 1991:301)."

3.1.4. Pictorial Schemata

Pictorial schemata may include grids, diagrams, clines or clusters. These instruments help learners expand and establish the meaning of words that they are already familiar with.

(1) "Grids consists of a list of words down one side of the page with another list, usually of meanings or some other way of classifying the words, across the top of the page (Nation 1990:97)," as Figure 4 shows.

(2) "Clines are usually shown by sloping lines (...)," as Figure 2 shows. "Words are arranged on them to show variations of degree (Nation 1990:97)."

FORMAL
an oration
a speech —— an address
a talk
a chat
INFORMAL
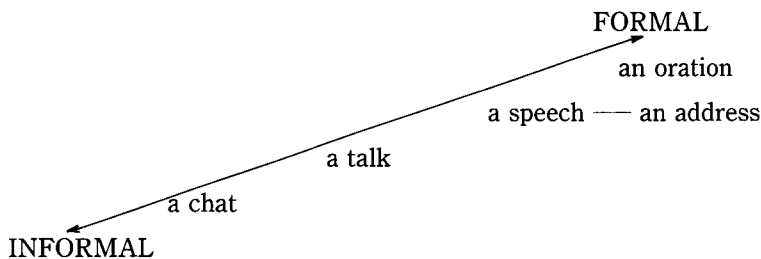
Figure 2   A vocabulary cline (Brown 1980:4)

(3) Clusters are words grouped around an idea, as Figure 3 shows.

conduct (v.)
Fahrenheit (adj.)   melt (v.)
a Calorie (n.) ————— HEAT (n.) (v.) ————— hot (adj.)
the sun (n.)   therm (n.)
temperature (n.)
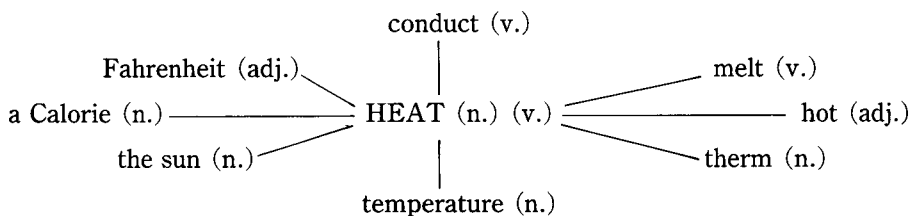
Figure 3   A vocabulary cluster (Brown 1980:5)

3.1.5. Definition, Paraphrase, Explanation, Examples and Anecdote

Definition is very helpful, but often inadequate as a means of conveying meaning. "The teacher's definition may not be as precise as that of the dictionary, but the teacher has the advantage of being able to give multiple examples of usage and of being able to discuss the target word at length. Some words that are difficult to define can be brought to life by relating a short story or by having the students imagine a set of circumstances from which it becomes possible to deduce the meaning of the item (Seal 1991:302)."

Paraphrase is also "an expression of meaning of a word or phrase using other words or phrases, often in an attempt to make the meaning easier to understand (Richards et al. 1985:207)". Scholfield (1980:20-37) presents five principles which teachers have to bear in mind in paraphrasing:

(1) Make sure you are paraphrasing the right word, or phrase, in the right sense.

(2) Make sure the paraphrase is easier than the item being paraphrased.

(3) Make sure the paraphrase is not overbroad for the purpose in hand.

(4) Make sure the paraphrase is not overnarrow for the purpose in hand.

(5) Show how to integrate the paraphrase into the context of encounter.

3.1.6. Word Roots and Affixes

Some teachers claim to have great success by teaching intermediate or advanced students some of the common roots and affixes to be found in English. Such knowledge is very instrumental in inferring word-meaning inductively as well as in expanding vocabulary. When learners are given long lists of roots and affixes to remember, they will probably be bored and confused. It is advisable that "words which are of similar derivation can be brought together and compared, e.g. *thermometer, barometer; gas-meter, parking-meter; kilometre, millimetre* (Wallace 1982:89)". It will not take too long for them to guess deductively that *meter/metre* has something to do with 'measuring'.

3.1.7. Translation

Among those who devote themselves to communicative approach there might be some teachers who feel guilty about the use of translation in the classroom. However, most of them cannot deny that translation can be a very effective way of conveying meaning mainly because "it can save valuable time that might otherwise be spent on a tortuous and largely unsuccessful explanation in English (Gairns and Redman 1986:75)", but they

should be careful not to rely too heavily on the use of translation.

3.2. Exercises That Check Comprehension
3.2.1. Fill in the Blank

To have learners fill in the blanks with an appropriate word is not only a popular testing device but also an effective way of checking their vocabulary comprehension. "It encourages students to consider the context of the sentence to work out the probable missing word. At the same time, students are being exposed to the typical linguistic environment for an item (Seal 1991:302)."

A common type of fill-in-the-blank exercise is the multiple-choice exercise, where the students are given a number of options for the candidate: one is a correct answer and the others are distractors. "The blanked-out word need not always be the newly presented word (Seal 1991:302)." That is, you can check the students' understanding of the new word by blanking out another word which is semantically related with the target word.

3.2.2. Matching Pair

The matching-pair exercise is easily prepared for checking vocabulary comprehension. "In one place are listed the target words; in the other can be a set of synonyms, antonyms, definitions or pictures. More creative matching can be done by matching the items to some associational characteristics (Seal 1991:302)": stagger — a drunk; march — a soldier.

3.2.3. Sorting Exercise

"The teacher gives the students a large group of words and asks them to sort the words into different categories according to different characteristics (Seal 1991:303)." For example, a group of plant words can be sorted into vegetables, flowers, trees or fruit. A variation is the game **Throw Out A Spy** or **Odd Man Out**. The teacher gives the students four words, one of which does not belong is called a spy or odd man. Then he has them work out to throw it out.

3.2.4. Pictorial Schemata

Pictorial schemata can be used to present terms and the relations that exist among them. The teacher can check the students' understanding of newly presented words by having them complete grids (See Figure 4), clines or diagrams.

Fill in the following collocational grids.

	woman	man	child	dog	bird	flower	weather	landscape	view	house	furniture	bed	picture	dress	present	voice
handsome																
pretty																
charming																
lovely																

Figure 4   Grid exercise (Rudzka et al. 1981:33)

3.3. Consolidation

3.3.1. Problem-Solving Tasks

There are a lot of types of problem-solving activities. The best should be challenging and fun. "In designing them for vocabulary use, the trick is to design activities that repeatedly require the students to use the items when they are trying to solve the problem (Seal 1991:303-4)." Seal illustrates one of these tasks. "The target vocabulary is different types of television programs: news, documentaries, game shows. Students are asked to design a weekend's television schedule for a TV station, which must involve each type. They write out a schedule of programs and have to justify why certain programs are scheduled at certain times (Seal 1991:304)."

3.3.2. Values Clarification

One of the values clarification exercises is "a ranking activity where the students are asked to put into an order the qualities that they consider most to least important for the ideal spouse (Seal 1991:304)". In this exercise, such words as 'tidy,' 'faithful,' and 'sociable' are targeted. "The students create their orders, defend them, and reach consensus in a group."

3.3.3. Write a Story or a Dialogue

The teacher gives the students a number of words and tell them to write a story or compose a dialogue in which the words are used.

3.3.4. Discussion and Role-Play

Students are divided into small groups of 4 - 8 students, given a set of questions and

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