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NUTRITION EDUCATION FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS IN THE PRISON CONTEXT

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

in

Education:

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

---

by

Jeanie Jinwee Kim

September 2003

NUTRITION EDUCATION FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS IN THE PRISON CONTEXT

A Project

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San Bernardino

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by

Jeanie Jinwee Kim

September 2003

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August 27, 2003
Date

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Thom Gehring, Ph.D., Second Reader

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ABSTRACT

This project addresses the need for English as a second language nutrition instruction for patients in a forensic mental institution. This project incorporates concepts of motivation, situated learning, prison education, English for Specific Purposes, and content-based instruction into a model which guides the design of a nutrition curriculum, consisting of five lesson plans about the Food Guide Pyramid.

This project features a combination of the English language necessary to teach English for medical nutrition therapy with the actual content of medical nutrition therapy. The students are encouraged to learn individually and as a group, by means of discussion, class participation, and oral presentations. Therefore, this project will help teachers to prepare students to become better speakers and writers of English, and at same time, prepare them for better health.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to offer sincere appreciation to Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, who has been an inspiration for me to push myself to do all that I can. Her patience and caring has been very encouraging during a difficult time, and her enthusiasm and profound knowledge has encouraged me to complete this project. Also, I want to thank my second reader, Dr. Thom Gehring. In spite of very short notice, he provided his insight, knowledge, and expertise. I could not have asked for better second reader.

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My biggest thanks goes to my family and my friend, Tony Chau. My family has always been by my side supporting me one hundred percent in everything I do. My friend, Tony, has been invaluable throughout my time in study. He is my best friend, advisor, assistant, and caretaker. He has been by my side during the most difficult times in my life, and he has helped me with his kindness, caring, and patience. I dedicate this project to Tony with utmost gratitude.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The Present Need for English as a Second Language in Adult Health Education

Not a day passes by without a mention of health-related issues in the media. Sometimes the media brings attention to a disease epidemic that is rapidly spreading, and how people can protect themselves. At other times the media brings attention to new and promising treatments that are being researched. With the growing concern over overweight and obesity, there are countless educational materials on healthy eating and weight management.

Hispanic Health Issues

According to the Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), fifty percent of people in United States are overweight and thirty percent are obese. Between 1999 and 2000, seventy-four percent of Mexican men and seventy-two percent of Mexican women were found to be overweight. In January of 1999, CDC announced that the Hispanic population was diagnosed with diabetes at twice the rate of the white population. In 2000, 25,819 Hispanic people died of heart diseases and 6,187 of cerebrovascular diseases, which are both complications of diabetes.

What does all this have to do with English as a Second Language (ESL)? According to the 2000 Census, there are over thirty-five million Hispanic people living in the U.S. With so much of the Hispanic population suffering from serious chronic diseases, and many Hispanic people not able to read, write, or speak English, this problem affects ESL programs. The case of Mr. López will be used as an example.

Mr. López came to United States two years ago from Mexico. He works long hours for many days as a construction worker to support his wife and three children. Needless to say, Mr. López has not had the opportunity to attend classes to learn English, or even the time to look for adult schools.

For last few weeks, Mrs. López has been noticing Mr. López's weight loss and also his numerous trips to the bathroom at night. When Mr. López started to complain of unusual thirst and occasional blurry vision, Mrs. López decided to take Mr. López to a hospital. Deciding to do this was one thing, but actually doing it became much more work than anticipated.

Like Mr. López, Mrs. López did not speak English. To make the appointment, Mrs. López had her ten-year-old son

call the hospital. To get through the appointment, a family friend accompanied Mr. López to the hospital. When the test results came back, Mr. and Mrs. López had to get help from another friend to interpret. Mr. López's serum glucose was 297 mg/dL, glycated hemoglobin 7.8% cholesterol 254 mg/dL, triglycerides 363 mg/dL, and the urine analysis revealed glucose of 3+. Mr. López was diagnosed with Type II Diabetes Mellitus and Hyperlipidemia. If Mr. López does not manage these diseases well, he will ultimately die from their complications.

Fortunately for Mr. López, there are lots of treatment options and educational classes and materials available to help him. But, unfortunately for Mr. López, many of them are available only in English.

This story is not uncommon among immigrants. Many adult immigrants who come to United States work so hard that they often do not learn to speak, read, or write English. When they have to go out in public to take care of things, they need to take an interpreter each time. Even after living in this country for over five to ten years, adult immigrants sometimes cannot communicate well enough to take care of personal matters outside the home, such as medical appointments. My goal in teaching is to

help adult immigrants to learn English. I want to teach ESL to adult immigrants to help them to better adapt to the new environment, to better utilize available resources, to enable them to be self-sufficient, and to open doors for better opportunities to improve their lives.

Instructional Setting

Many people ask me why I want to teach adults instead of children. The answer is simple. Children who immigrate to United States have many opportunities to learn English. They go to schools where they are taught to speak, read, and write English. At schools the immigrant children become friends with native speakers, which also facilitates English learning. American society emphasizes providing services to children to the extent that it sometimes overlooks the adults.

There are many different settings where ESL can be taught. Many adult immigrants, with whom I come in contact, learn ESL at adult schools in the community. Adult schools are free, offer classes from morning until evening, and provide opportunities for adult immigrants from different countries to interact and to practice speaking English to each other. Because the students in the class are at same level of English proficiency, they

may feel more comfortable speaking English than if they were outside the classroom. Although adult schools are available to many adult immigrants, many are still unable to participate. For them, ESL classes need to be offered at other places.

When immigrants come to the United States, one of the first things they need to do is to find people with whom to network. Churches and other religious organizations serve this purpose well. Also, communities with many immigrants have organizations that serve as networks. For example, Koreans have an organization in Los Angeles that offers different programs to help Korean immigrants. ESL can be taught in these settings.

Many immigrants I know dread going to adult schools because they feel uncomfortable sitting in a formal classroom. Many of them have never been to school in their entire lives. By providing ESL classes in more familiar places such as churches or community centers, the participation in ESL classes by the immigrants will be greater.

Another reason some adult immigrants do not attend adult school is because the school hours are not compatible with their work. Many immigrants work odd hours or

different hours day by day and cannot attend adult schools regularly. ESL classes that take place for an hour or two after a church service may be more convenient for some of the immigrants than the traditional adult school hours.

A prison is another place where immigrants can benefit from ESL instructions. Many immigrants who do not speak English end up in prison for various reasons. Many immigrants cannot be choosy when offered jobs, especially if they do not know the language. Therefore, they may take illegal jobs from people who speak the same native language. Sometimes English speakers take advantage of immigrants' poor English skills and mislead them to perform illegal jobs. It is hard enough to find jobs when people do not speak English. But when criminal records are added to this difficulty, the chances of getting decent jobs are almost nil.

Prisons are supposed to serve as rehabilitative centers. When inmates are released they are supposed to be educated and rehabilitated so that they will not end up in prisons again. For inmates who do not speak English, rehabilitation and education are very difficult. How can they be expected to learn things when they cannot even understand what is going on? If their poor English skills

contributed to their being imprisoned, what is there to stop them from coming back, if they still do not have the necessary English skills when they are released? ESL education in prisons will prove that their time in prison was not spent in vain.

Obstacles to Overcome

Recruitment. When adult immigrants live among many people of their nationality, some do not realize the importance of learning English. For example, Korean immigrants who live in Los Angeles often do not bother to learn English. Why should they? Everything they need can be provided by other Koreans living in the city. People need to realize that a community is not a shield against external changes and forces. They need to realize where they are, why they are there, and the importance of adequate English proficiency for achieving success in American society.

Funding. Churches, other religious organizations, and community organizations seek to help people. Therefore, I do not anticipate problems finding places to hold ESL classes. But I do anticipate problems finding funds to support the classes. Teaching requires texts, materials, props, equipments, and other supplies. I do not plan to

charge students for coming to the class. The classes should be free, just as adult schools are free. Fundraising and grant writing can help greatly. Also, local governments and schools may be able to contribute monetarily or with supplies and equipment. Many publishers may be willing to donate textbooks.

The Ego-Mentality of the Inmates. Many inmates may feel the need to learn English. But many of them might be hesitant to come to ESL class if that is perceived as acknowledgement of their weakness. My hope is to teach them the importance of education and continued education regardless of who they are, where they are, and how old they are. I want to teach them that knowledge is power.

Purpose of the Project

The goal of this project is to develop an English-as-a-second language curriculum for adult immigrants in a forensic mental hospital. The five main objectives are to motivate students to learn English by showing that the content they learn in class is relevant to disease management/prevention in daily living; to identify four major components of English (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb); to encourage students to reflect upon their

current nutritional practices; to apply sound nutritional practices learned in a class; and to utilize learned English skills during interactions with healthcare professionals.

Content of the Project

The project consists of six main parts. Chapter One, Introduction, presents current trends in population and chronic disease and their impact on the need for ESL. Chapter Two, Review of Literature, investigates five key concepts: motivation, situated learning, English for specific purposes, content-based instruction, and prison education. Chapter Three, Theoretical Framework, incorporates concepts derived from the literature review and presents a model to be applied to teaching and learning of English-as-a-second language. Chapter Four, Curriculum Design, presents the design of the instructional plans. Chapter Five, Assessment, compiles the assessment strategies and methods used in the instructional plans. Lesson plans are featured in the Appendix.

Significance of the Project

This project is just a beginning of a much bigger project. This project is just a small component of a much

bigger phenomena that should and will follow. This project opens the door to a new field, English-as-a-second language in a untraditional setting, a forensic mental institution. It will be valuable in educating adult immigrants to acknowledge the importance of learning English first for their health and well-being, but ultimately to branch out to other areas of ESL, take charge of their lives, and improve their future in the United States of America.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Motivation Applied to Second Language Acquisition

> There are three things to remember about education. The first one is motivation. The second one is motivation. The third one is motivation. (Terrell, cited in Ames, 1990, p. 409)

Some say that teachers are to blame for current problems in schools. Others say that students are at fault. And many people say that society simply lacks the motivation to improve current problematic situations in school (Parish, 1999). According to Parish (1999), in spite of who is right or wrong, it is clear that all three factors need to be understood by everyone involved. Everyone refers to students and teachers. Motivation is a key to learning (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). It is important to all students in the classroom all the time (Ames, 1990). According to Dornyei (1994), motivation plays a major role in second language learning. But what is motivation?

The word motivation has been defined in many different ways by different researchers, and educators. The American Heritage Dictionary (1996) defined motivation as "the act

or process or providing with an incentive" (p. 1179). Russell (1971) referred to motivation as a deep underlying drive. Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) defined motivation as the impulse, emotion, or desire that causes one to act in a certain way. In learning a second language, Gardner (1985) cited in Trembly and Gardner (1995), defined motivation as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (p. 506). The following pages will discuss different components of motivation theory in education, with reference to second language acquisition.

The Relationship of Arousal and Motivation

Arousal is a continuous state going from a very deep sleep to conditions of panic (Russell, 1971). It is also referred to as being activated, energized, stimulated, and excited. Through internal and external stimuli, arousal is activated, and that arousal results in motivation, or at least a temporary motivation.

Arousal results when a particular brain center, the hypothalamus, is activated by internal and/or external stimuli. The stimuli have three qualities that produce an arousal. The first quality is intensity. Intensity has a

direct positive effect on arousal. Changing stimuli provide more intensity and potential to cause arousal than the stimuli that remain fixed or static. The second quality is a new, novel, or surprising aspect of the environment. This new stimulus creates arousal by activating subjects to make a response. The degree of arousal of the novel stimulus is dependent on how much the novel stimulus is changed from the previous stimulus. The third quality is the meaningfulness of the stimuli. Individuals attach meanings to stimuli at particular times (Russell, 1971).

As shown in Appendix A, Curve of Relationship between Arousal and Learning Efficiency, arousal starts at a passive stage and curves to a moderate arousal, then to a panic stage. The optimum level for learning occurs at the top of the curve, the moderate portion of the arousal curve (Hebb, 1955, cited in Russell, 1971). For example, some students can close their minds for learning when a teacher hands out a thick set of homework. But these same students can be intrigued when the teacher asks them to watch two-hour movie for homework.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Intrinsic is defined as "of or relating to the essential nature of a thing; inherent" (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1996, p. 906). Extrinsic is defined as "not forming an essential or inherent art of a thing; extraneous" (The American Heritage Dictionary, 1996, p. 650). When one adds the word "motivation" to the above words, the definitions are changed as follows. Intrinsic motivation is an internal source of energy, such as interest, curiosity, and enjoyment, that motivates behavior as an end in itself (Patrick & College, 2000). Extrinsic motivation can be an external source of energy, such as grades, parental pressure, and academic requirements, that motivate behavior as an end. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are closely related to goal theory (Ames, 1990) which will be discussed later.

People are intrinsically motivated when the activity is a goal in itself (Ames, 1990). Intrinsically motivated behavior is performed simply for the sake of the pleasure within the activity itself. A student taking a grammar class for self improvement is an example of an intrinsically motivated behavior. It occurs even in the absence of external rewards (e.g. receiving a credit) or

reinforcements (e.g. praise from parents). Intrinsically motivated individuals are task oriented, meaning the task was important as a part of an individual's personal or professional development (Ames, 1990).

Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have postulated that integrative motivation is the orientation to learn more about the other cultural community as if he desired to become a potential member of the other group (Lambert, Gardner, Olson, & Tunstall, 1970). Learners with integrative motivation are motivated to learn the target language because this enables the learner to gain cultural knowledge and be able to live within the target community (Lambert et al., 1970).

People are extrinsically motivated when they do an activity to obtain some sort of reward that is not inherently related to the activity. The reward becomes the reason for engaging in the action (Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2000). An example of this is a student studying for a test to get a good grade in the class. Extrinsically motivated and externally regulated individuals are performance oriented. This means the individuals are more concerned with appearing competent than actually learning

(Simons et al., 2000). An individual going to college to please his/her parents is an example of this.

In SLA researchers have postulated that instrumental motivation is the orientation to acquire a language for a specific purpose, such as, getting ahead in one's occupation (Lambert et al., 1970). The language is the means to an end.

Goal Theory in Motivation

Another important aspect of motivation is having a goal--something that students can work toward. Individuals are sensitive to their childhood successes and failures, and set their goals accordingly throughout their lives (Russell, 1971). Past success in tasks raises motivation, and failure to achieve decreases motivation. Simons et al. (2000) mentioned that being future oriented or perceiving the instrumentality of a present task for future goals enhances motivation, performance, and the quantity of the task. On the other hand, the absence of goals and perceived instrumentality is detrimental to sustaining learning efforts (DeBacker, 2000).

The desire to achieve a goal can change over time. This depends on how much the learner changes as a result of the experience of language learning (Gass & Selinker,

1994). According to Locke and Latham (1990), individuals with specific and difficult goals will outperform and persist longer at a task than those with nonspecific and easy goals.

Goal theory relies on the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Two primary academic goals in the motivation literature are task goals, also referred to as mastery or learning goals; and performance goals, also known as ego-involved goals. Task goals focus on learning or mastering a task, whereas performance goals focus on demonstrating one's competence and avoiding the appearance of incompetence (Ames, 1990).

Task goals are associated with intrinsic interest and the belief that success comes from hard work (Simons et al., 2000). Students are interested in learning new things and developing their skills and ability (Ames, 1990). Adopting a task orientation results in deeper levels of cognitive processing, persistence, and in better performance.

Performance goals are associated with extrinsic interest; one is involved only to demonstrate one's competence (Ames & Archer, 1988). A performance orientation leads to lower performance and to less adaptive

behavior. The strategies used with performance goals, such as memorizing facts, only last over a short term (Ames, 19990). High-achieving students reported greater valuing of science and greater endorsement of academic goals than did low-achieving students (DeBacker, 2000).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy, defined by Schunk (1989), is the expectation or belief that one is capable of performing a specific task, organizing and carrying out required behaviors in a situation. Self-efficacy plays a role in determining student's motivation (Hynd, Holschuh, & Nist, 2000). High self-efficacy leads to high motivational levels (Trembly & Gardner, 1995). According to Clement and Kruidenier (1985), self-confidence is the most important determinant of motivation to learn and use a second language. In a multicultural setting, self confidence continues to be the most important determinant of motivation to learn and use the second language (Clement & Kruidenier, 1985).

Students' perceptions of their own ability to perform well influence self-efficacy (Hynd et al., 2000). In fact, students' self-efficacy is intricately tied to self-concept of ability in school settings (Ames, 1990).

According to Bandura (1991), high self-efficacy is associated with an attribution of success to ability, while low self-efficacy is associated with an attribution of failure to lack of ability. For children, attribution of failure to a lack of ability leads to lower motivation compared to attribution of failure to a lack of effort (Trembly & Gardner, 1995). If children believe that they always try hard and are told that they did not work hard enough, then that may decrease their sense of self-efficacy. The decreased self-efficacy then lowers motivation. For young children, praising their effort can enhance their self-efficacy. DeBacker (2000) found that higher-ability students had higher scores on perceived ability than did lower-ability students.

How to Motivate Learners

There are many concepts, principles, and theories related to motivation. Teachers need to know how to apply these concepts, principles, and theories in classrooms (Ames, 1990). How can teachers get students to do what teachers want them to do, and to do it consistently over time?

Russell (1971) stated that the best way to motivate an unmotivated student is to ignore that student's

motivational state and concentrate on teaching him or her as effectively as possible. This is believed to lead to satisfaction of learning, despite the student's lack of motivation, which will develop into motivation to learn more. Effective schools and effective teachers develop goals, beliefs, and attitudes in students. These sustain a long-term involvement, which then contributes to quality involvement in learning. Students should achieve learning, but at same time learn to value the process of learning. This can lead to improvement in students' skills and knowledge, and develop a long-term commitment to learning (Ames, 1990).

Diaz-Rico and Weed (1995) discussed two contrasting notions about motivation, trait and state. Trait motivation is attributed to various groups, such as parents, communities, or culture, and remains relatively consistent and persistent. This can be discouraging for teachers who want to change the curriculum to increase students' interest. State motivation is a more temporary condition which can be influenced by materials or activities that are highly interesting and stimulating. This may be a motivator for teachers to actively involve learners in classroom activities.

Increasing motivation in classrooms is much more complex than most people may think. Students' overt behaviors are guided by their goals and purposes which may be different from the teacher's goals and purposes. When students' behaviors do not match up to teachers' expectations, teachers need to find techniques to change students' behaviors to match expectations (Russell, 1971).

There are things that teachers need to consider when developing techniques and strategies to increase motivation of students (Ames, 1990). First, consider the duration of behavior. The length of time engaged in a task is not a reliable indicator of the quality of the task engagement. Second, consider students' goals or reasons for learning, because these determine how students approach and engage in learning. Third, consider positive and negative motivational patterns rather than high, low, or optimal motivation. Students may already have motivation; but perhaps not the motivation to do what the teachers want them to do. Teachers can convey the importance of effort by how they structure tasks, evaluate students, and give recognition and rewards.

The following examples were offered by Ames (1990) on how to enhance motivation. First, success is insufficient

to create or maintain self-efficacy to reverse failure in many students. If students lack confidence in their ability to succeed, teachers must give them short-term goals and strategies for making a progress toward goals. This enables the students to understand how to reach a goal and focus on strategies, rather than outcomes.

Second, teachers should provide positive feedback related to the task in progress. Reinforcing even a small aspect of the total effort is a step in the direction of giving the student more confidence.

Third, rewarding positive behaviors may increase self-efficacy. This can positively influence students' motivation or willingness to learn. Ames (1990) found that reward was preferred over reasoning, punishment, and noninterference. Adults consistently preferred large rewards over small rewards. However, the use of classrooms rewards (extrinsic incentive) generally does not recognize individual differences in interest, performance, and ability.

Fourth, giving students choices on the tasks or activities may increase their intrinsic motivation. By allowing the students to choose, the teacher fosters

students' beliefs in personal control and increases their interest and involvement in learning.

Conclusion

There are many definitions and theories of motivation. Most of these definitions and theories share three common qualities. One, motivation is a presumed internal force. Two, motivation energizes action. Three, motivation determines the direction of that action. Motivation, if absent in the beginning, can be created from a teaching process and built upon by a successful experience (Russell, 1971).

In summary, Parish (1999) at Kansas State University developed following acronyms, MOTIVATION, STUDENT, and TEACHER, to help improve current lack of motivation in education.

M ME It all starts and stops with ME!

O OPPORTUNITY Never worry about whether you have a good opportunity, just be sure that you're good to every OPPORTUNITY!

T TIME Time is finite, and not infinite. So isn't it about TIME to do it, do it right, and do it right now!

I INCENTIVE Only if we value something will it serve as an INCENTIVE.

V VISION That which is enVISIONed is more readily achieved. So, too, if we aim at nothing, we'll probably hit it.

A ATTITUDE According to Henry Ford, "If you think you can, or you think you can't, you're absolutely right." In other words, ATTITUDE is everything.

T TAKE CHARGE Remember that you may not be responsible for what happens to you, but you are responsible for how you deal with what happens to you. So, TAKE CHARGE, and do it now!

I INTERESTED Nothing happens until we are INTERESTED in what's supposed to happen.

O OPEN-MINDED If we remain OPEN-MINDED, the alternatives will be endless.

N NEVER Winners NEVER quit, and quitters NEVER win!

S SELF-CONFIDENT Half the battle is being confident in what you can do. Thus, those who are SELF-CONFIDENT achieve because they believe in themselves.

T TRUSTWORTHY Success more likely comes to those who are dependable and TRUSTWORTHY.

U UNDERSTAND Those who UNDERSTAND the nature and scope of each assignment will more readily achieve the end they seek.

D DILIGENTLY Quality work is achieved by those who do it DILIGENTLY.

E EAGERLY Those who challenge themselves are more likely to approach each task EAGERLY.

N NICE People love to help people who are NICE.

T TALENTS Work harder, work smarter, but don't forget to use your TALENTS if you wish to do your very best.

T TWICE Teachers need to understand that teaching really is learning TWICE.

E ENTHUSIASTICALLY As we seek to teach other, our efforts will be enhanced if we will week to do so ENTHUSIASTICALLY.

A ACTION While wishing won't work, work will. So to achieve success we simply need to take appropriate ACTION.

C CLEVER Like Huck Finn, being CLEVER will help us to help our students to do what they need to do.

H HUMOR Sure we can teach without HUMOR, but does anyone want us to?

E ENABLE Our job is to ENABLE our students to do their jobs, whatever they might be.

R RESPONSIVE As we are RESPONSIVE to our students' wants and needs, they will be more RESPONSIVE to ours, accordingly.

Situated Learning

The theory of situated learning, also known as situated cognition, cognitive apprenticeship, and legitimate peripheral participation (LPP), states that learning and doing go hand-in-hand and cannot be separated. Learning is a process of enculturation (Hendricks, 2001; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Theories of Situated Learning

Lave and Wenger (1991) defined learning as a process that takes place within a participation framework, rather than solely within an individual mind. A learner internalizes knowledge through discovery, transmission from

other people, or through experiences and interactions with other people (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

According to Dahl (1997), knowledge and thought consist of concepts and facts independent of a context. These concepts and facts can be learned in one environment and be easily transferred or applied to another environment. This is given that the learner has a clear knowledge of the relevance, and the learner is motivated to make the transfer. In these kinds of classrooms, learners' activities are individual and isolated. The bulk of the learning is done by manipulating symbols in contexts separate from the real world contexts; this is representative of traditional schooling. These symbolic skills would have direct relevance and often concrete counterpart (Resnick, 1989) in the real world.

Situated learning contributes to a growing body of research in human sciences that explores the situated character of human understanding and communication. It focuses on the relationship between learning and the social setting in which it occurs (Lave & Wenger, 1991). According to Weisinger and Salipante (2000), social constructionism stresses that knowledge can be understood as being social, as something that people do together, as

developed by means of the relationship rather than soley within the individual. Knowledge is produced through relationships such as networking and issue structuring (Weisinger & Salipante, 2000).

Contextual teaching and learning is a pedagogical model that incorporates constructivist and social-cognitive models (Billet, 2000). In contextual teaching, the teaching is connected to real-world experiences outside of the classroom (Granello, 2000), but not situated in the real world. In a situated learning model of instruction, meaningful learning takes place outside the classroom in the real world, embedded in the social and physical context within which the knowledge will be used (Gieselman, Stark, & Farruggia, 2000). A situated learning model results from theoretical shifts from behavioral to cognitive to constructivist learning perspectives within the educational community (Granello, 2000).

Learning can be achieved at various places and in various ways. Knowledge learned in one environment can be applied in another similar environment, provided that the knowledge includes clear instruction on its application. When knowledge is taught in a closed atmosphere with no

relevance to outside world, that knowledge cannot be appropriately used nor retained.

Situated Learning in Schools

Situated learning theory has several implications for teaching and learning. Students who succeed in traditional school are educated to be successful only in academically defined situations. The relevance, actual usefulness, and application of knowledge in a real world is not considered (Dahl, 1997).

School children are legitimately peripheral, but kept from participation in the social world. School children have the right to learn, but are kept from real world experiences. The situated learning in schools should extend to diverse settings so that students learn how to apply their skills in varied contexts. The most effective schools for teaching learning skills, thinking skills, and higher-order cognitive abilities, are very different from traditional schools (Rogoff, 1990).

The kind of learning that takes place inside successful schools is more like the kind of learning that occurs outside of traditional schools (Artemava, Logie, & Martin, 1999). In these successful schools, the intellectual work is often socially shared. Assigned tasks

are often taught and learned by modeling and demonstrations. Students are encouraged to be active by observing and then commenting on others' work. They gradually build up their skills, sometimes starting at quite an unskilled level with more skilled people to guide them. They frequently work together on completing joint tasks. The tasks are more subject-specific work rather than general (Dahl, 1997).

Teachers need to design and utilize different settings where knowledge and skills can result in application, and allow more room for students to learn from peers and near-peers (Dahl, 1997). In order to accomplish this, teachers need to prepare students to successfully manage tasks in groups or on their own. In addition, teachers need to provide students meaningful access to others at different levels of linguistic proficiency. For students to manage their learning, a learning culture has to be established. This may help students to understand how to actively take a hand in their own learning, and enable them to put that understanding into practice (Dahl, 1997).

In situated learning, the learners are active participants of the situated experience within a culture of activity, rather than external observers. Both the

students and the teacher are actively involved in instruction, sharing the responsibility of managing tasks. The students determine what is meaningful, and how it is to be understood and incorporated into what is already known. The teacher's role is supportive rather than directive of learning (Gieselman et al., 2000).

According to Hendricks (2001), students who received situated instruction scored higher on post tests than the students who received abstract instruction. Also, the students in the situated instruction class reported higher motivation and were more active than the students in the abstract instruction class. Hung (2001) proposed using web-based learning as a possible platform for situated learning in schools. Web-based learning can be infused into varying learning situations without the constraints of specific locations and classrooms.

The social context of situated learning environment promotes higher-order thinking. The students articulate their thoughts as they communicate in a meaningful way. This increase in higher-order thinking is observable (Herrington & Oliver, 1999). In the study by Herrington and Oliver (1999), preservice teachers were given a complex and authentic task, to investigate a complaint from a

parent. A parent complained that there were just too many tests given to students. The preservice teachers needed to find out what could be done to improve the situation. A review of transcripts revealed higher-order thinking in all the students' talk. This is a result of greater opportunities for students to engage in higher-order thinking in situated learning environment. A multimedia program based on a situated learning approach may provide a learning environment capable of supporting and maintaining substantial levels of higher-order thinking (Herrington & Oliver, 1999).

In a study performed by Schell and Black (1997), students in teacher education program applied the concepts learned in schools during their fieldwork. The fieldwork classrooms were in a de-centered learning environment where the focus was on a community of learners. Schell and Black (1997) found that the learners did use acquired knowledge, but the degree to which students applied their acquired knowledge varied widely. Trust among members of the class played a positive role in constructing a new knowledge and extrapolating the meaning from it. By hearing the perspectives and experiences of others in a social context,

learners often reflect on the meaning of the learned information and its implications for their own practice.

Competition played a negative role by inhibiting communication between groups, but helped individual groups become more cohesive (Turnbull, 2000). Knowledge is socially constructed (Lave & Wenger, 1991) when co-learners are encouraged to verbally make connections between theory and application. Through the above legitimate peripheral participation (LPP), students recognized various ways in which teachers informally gave encouragement and signaled approval, in particular by giving students extra real work usually reserved for experienced staff, such as composing exam questions and taking over classes at a short notice.

The students moved from the periphery toward the center of practice when they were allowed to start teaching classes. Teacher education involves learning the theories of teaching in school classrooms and putting those theories into practice during field work upon school placement. As reported by Drever and Cope (1999), students saw relevance in Lave's account of how novices become members of a community of practice by successfully completing a variety of tasks involving real work. When students are placed with schools for field work, at first the students are

personally welcomed as novices who are treated as members of staff and allowed to attempt real work. When their work is successful over a period of time, they are accepted as competent professionals by the teachers and the pupils of the schools.

Granello (2000) provided examples of situated learning activities in counselor education. The use of classmate clients, coached clients, and actors as clients is already widespread in counseling practica. On-site counseling laboratories are now used in many counseling programs, where students counsel actual clients with a very close supervision (Scanlon & Gold, 1996).

Another example is community-based projects (Granello, 2000). Learning through experiences in community settings has been shown to contribute to students' complexity of thinking about social problems along two dimensions, differentiation and information gathering. Differentiation is the ability to identify various subgroups affected by a problem and to propose various solutions for the problem. Information gathering recognizes the need to obtain information pertinent to a problem (Granello, 2000). Role plays, case studies, and field trips serve as links to real-world experiences. Any combination of the above

examples of situated learning can be powerful in promoting cognitive development (Granello, 2000) in counseling education.

Gieselman et al., (2000) summarized instructional techniques useful in situated learning. The techniques include telling stories, reflection, cognitive apprenticeship, collaboration, coaching, multiple practice, articulation of learning skills, and use of technology. Each of these is explained as follows.

Stories. Through the retelling and sharing of stories, patterns emerge, discoveries are made, and information is transferred in a structure that is both familiar and meaningful to humankind.

Reflection. Students need time to think about the learning process, and to reflect on the experiences. This is the time to negotiate how new information fits with prior knowledge.

Cognitive Apprenticeship. Learners are placed into the culture in which they will practice, and learn by participating in the culture through interactions with the experts.

Collaboration. Learning occurs through social interactions with collaborators who are not equal in their

level of knowledge or skill. More advanced peers or experts bring about change in novices' performance. This is closely linked to cognitive apprenticeship.

Coaching. Learners initiate and self-direct learning process, and teachers provide guidance when needed, but otherwise fade into the background.

Multiple Practice. Learners participate in the community, practice new skills, make mistakes and try again, and then adopt new skills as their own.

Articulation of Learning Skills. "…centering on the learner to gain a better understanding of their current knowledge and skills so new information can be assimilated." (Gieselman et al., 2000, p. 265)

Technology. Both the hard technologies (e.g. video or computer) and soft technologies (e.g. processes or procedures) can enhance all other components of the situated model.

Situated learning enables students to learn knowledge through application in a real world or in a simulation of the real world. Students are well immersed in not only the process of learning, but also in the significance of the knowledge to be gained. Such involvement promotes higher cognitive thinking in students.

Situated Learning in Second Language Acquisition

During second language acquisition (SLA), the natives of the target language culture, regardless of their age, are the old-timers. A newcomer, on the other hand, may be an immigrant or an exchange student moving into that culture from abroad. As the student's understanding of what is an acceptable practice within the target culture increases, the student loosens up and becomes a more active participant, steadily growing in his or her ability to fit in behaviorally, linguistically, and mentally (Dahl, 1997), thus becoming a member of the target culture.

In SLA, the learning environment must provide students with opportunities to work together with peers of same and different levels. Learning with peers and near-peers may be more effective when students can choose the content themselves. Teachers can facilitate language breadth by arranging opportunities for students to explore both topics and language in sub-areas that interest them. This, combined with student opportunities to work together with others at different degree of academic and vernacular second language (L2) proficiency, may ensure L2 proficiency within specific linguistic and curricular situations. By engaging in real situations or events, students have the

opportunity to monitor their linguistic proficiency and growth authentically (Dahl, 1997) alongside teachers.

The theory of situated learning emphasizes the importance of learning in the real world where the knowledge is actually applied. Learning in abstraction, without context, limits the transfer of knowledge into real world situations. But in situated learning, the newcomer learns a full array of knowledge present in the situated community. Through experiences and interactions in the community, the newcomer gains the knowledge of the members of that community, thereby also becoming a member of that community. After a period of time, the member becomes an old-timer, and shares the knowledge gained with the newcomer.

Adults in forensic mental hospitals have many needs for medical nutrition therapy. But, many patients cannot benefit from such therapies because of a language barrier. Many patients do not speak, read, or write English. By offering ESL instructions combined with the content of medical nutrition therapy, patients can benefit from the knowledge of English and also the content. Moreover, as the ESL instructions progress, the patients will be able

actively participate in individual medical nutrition therapy sessions.

Prison Education

History of Prison and Prison Education

Opened in 1596, Rasphuis of Amsterdam was a well-known prison. This prison practiced three principles which are still applicable in present time. First, the duration of imprisonment was determined by the prisoner's behavior. Second, work was obligatory. Third, prisoners received wages for their work (Foucault, 1977).

In 1779, Blackstone and Howard (cited in Foucault, 1977) wrote the Preamble of the Bill of 1779, which described three functions of imprisonment. First, imprisonment is an example to be feared. Second, imprisonment should serve as an instrument of conversion. Third, imprisonment should be an appropriate condition for apprenticeship.

Foucault (1977) in his book Discipline & Punishment, introduced a theory of panopticism. Based on Bentham's Panopticon, panopticism aims to reform inmates ultimately to become their own watchers. Through panoptical architectural design, the inmates are conditioned to be

continuously watchful of their behaviors through supervision by the law officers, who may or may not be present. Over a long period of time, inmates learn to automatically refrain from unlawful behaviors, even after their release. The surveillance by law officers becomes internalized within the inmates, despite the lack of physical presence. This results in a permanent modification of the individual's behavior.

The concept of education in United States' prisons dates back to the early nineteenth century. At that time, education consisted of disciplined work habits and religious instruction. By mid-nineteenth century, basic educational courses were offered at a few institutions. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, policies and programs were formed with an intention to rehabilitate the prisoners while punishing them (Thomas, 1995).

In the early decades of the twentieth century, various educational, vocational, and industrial programs were offered in prisons, in hopes of transforming prisoners into tractable citizens through hard work and personal growth (Thomas, 1995). Many occupational training programs served both the labor force needs of the prison and the post-release job needs of individual prisoners. The building

trades and food service were among the earliest occupational training programs (McCollum, 1994). By the 1950s, most prisons offered elementary and high school programs (Thomas, 1995). During 1960s, prison reform was legitimized by majority of Americans accepting rehabilitation as the purpose of imprisonment (Tootoonchi, 1993).

In 1981, the United States Federal prison system established a sixth-grade standard for mandatory literacy programs, and in 1985 the Federal prison system raised its standards to eighth grade, then to the high school diploma or the General Equivalency Diploma (GED) in 1991 (McCollum, 1994). In the Arizona state system, education is mandatory for all inmates who function below an eighth-grade level, and all inmates with dependents on welfare must enroll in a GED program (Goldader, 198).

By 1994, 90 percent of the state correctional systems instituted two-year college programs, in which two-thirds of them also provided four-year college classes and seventeen percent of them offered graduate programs (Thomas, 1995). But in that same year, legislation was passed to abolish use of Pell Grants in prison education, which led to disappearance of many programs mentioned

above. A small confederation of local colleges, called The Niagara Consortium, had been offering college classes at prisons for over two decades, but at that point struggled to obtain enough private money to keep the program alive (Coeyman, 1998).

Prison Education in the Present

The overall aim of today's prison system is to reduce crime (Forster, 1997). The goal is to rehabilitate the prisoners and return them to the free world as law-abiding citizens (Marsh, 1976). The purpose of prisons is to punish the lawbreakers for their incorrect behavior, while teaching them the desirable behaviors and skills they will need to survive in the outside world successfully (Tootoonchi, 1993). If an inmate is not changed for the better, society has only postponed the repetition of criminal acts. Moreover, if the inmate has changed for the worse, the imprisonment has harmed the inmate as well as society (Marsh, 1976). Through education, counseling, training, etc., prisons need to induce inmates to turn their backs on crime and re-enter society (Corcoran, 1985) rehabilitated, re-socialized, and reintegrated (Marsh, 1976).

The right to education is fundamental (Council of Europe, 1990) and must not be denied to the incarcerated (Forster, 1997). Punishment may discourage undesirable behaviors, but it does not encourage desirable behaviors (Davis & Newstrom, 1985). Some behaviorists and social scientists believe that education is the best, if not the only, way to prepare inmates for life after prison (Tootoonchi, 1993). Davidson (1995) listed two reasons for prison education, as follows.

First, prisoners' lack of academic, vocational, and social skills may have been factors which led them to deviant or criminal behaviors. Therefore, providing basic educational and cultural needs should correct criminal behaviors by opening up job and social opportunities to allow inmates to achieve goals legally.

Second, crime results from poor judgment in the face of life's many problems. Proper education can promote cognitive development to encourage people to weigh the costs of criminal behavior against the benefits of law-abiding alternatives. Realizing the big costs of criminal behavior, they will then choose the law-abiding alternative. Thus education contributes to mastering socially acceptable and lawful life survival skills

(McCollum, 1994). According to Tootoonchi (1993), 96 percent of study participants--former inmates--believed that proper education can change person's behavior for the better. In addition, 90 percent responded that prison, without education, would only increase their anger, frustration, and aggression.

One of the most significant reasons why people commit crimes and end up in prisons is their inability to find a decent paying job due to their lack of appropriate skills (Tootoonchi, 1993). Most people in prison are poor, and largely a minority stratum of the working class (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001). A high proportion of prisoners have had few successful educational experiences (Council of Europe, 1990).

According to Frolander-Ulf & Yates (2001), 19 percent of adult inmates are completely illiterate, and 40 percent are functionally illiterate, compared to national illiteracy rate of four percent, with 21 percent functionally illiterate. In addition, 45 percent of Federal prisoners do not meet the high school diploma standard, which can rise up to 75 percent in some states (McCollum, 1994). Nationwide, 70 percent of state prisoners have not completed high school, 45 percent have

had some high school education, and 16 percent have had no high school education at all (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001). Somewhere along the way, the educational system has failed them (Tootoonchi, 1993). As high as 40 percent of juvenile offenders and 11 percent of adult inmates have learning disabilities. Prison education is a second-chance education, to correct initial shortcomings (Forster, 1997).

The greatest benefit of prison education is the decrease in recidivism. The recidivism rate decreases as the length of a prisoner's academic program increases (Goldader, 1998). There are several possible reasons why this occurs. First, education in prisons helps to humanize prisons and improves the condition of detention (Council of Europe, 1990). Especially in the case of long sentences, educational classes help prisoners cope with the sentence (Forster, 1997). This prevents inmates from becoming angry or frustrated, which can lead to criminal behavior when released. Second, the challenge of education provides a chance to retrieve some self respect for many prisoners who see themselves as failures (Forster, 1997). Prisoners experience increased empowerment and self-esteem through acquisition of knowledge (Coeyman, 1998) which fosters positive attitude.

Third, education can provide prisoners the opportunities to develop artistic and other skills. For inmates with inadequate social skills, this helps to gain self-respect and acquire family life skills. Last, education in prisons is an important way of facilitating the return of the prisoners to the society (Council of Europe, 1998). Returning individuals to society who have been simply institutionalized without education benefits neither the individuals or society (Forster, 1997). Prison education improves employment prospects and prisoners' abilities to navigate successfully through life's many options (Coeyman, 1998). Prison education programs remind prisoners that there is a hope for ex-convicts, and that the society has not given up on them (Tootoonchi, 1993).

Results of Lack of Prison Education

The failure of adequate and appropriate education in prisons can have a big impact on society. According to CBS News (June 30, 1993, cited in Tootoonchi, 1993), 62 percent of prisoners released on parole commit another crime and return to prison. Recidivism rates in United States ranged from 41 percent to 60 percent depending whether statistics are drawn from the re-arrest rate (more than 60 percent) or the re-imprisonment rate (about 40 percent) (Frolander-Ulf

& Yates, 2001). In North American jurisdictions, the re-incarceration rate for released prisoners is 40 to 50 percent (Dunguid & Pawson, 1998). In addition to these, the number of custodial sentences is increasing and getting longer (Forster, 1997). These indicate that a large percentage of inmates do not receive adequate education to change their attitudes before they are sent back to society (Tootoonchi, 1993). Without changes in their attitudes for better, the imprisonment only postpones the probable repetition of their criminal acts (Marsh, 1976).

Prisoner education takes place whether or not a formal prison education exists (Germanotta, 1995). Philosophically, formal prison education has three roles. First, prison education should function as an agent of change for both the inmates and the system. Second, it should maintain its integrity of providing education as a fundamental right. Third, prison education should study, evaluate, and respond to all areas involving individuals, the system, and society that will benefit from educational processes, product, and associated social reform (Marsh, 1976).

In reality, there are three components to today's prison education: literacy, vocational education, and life-

skill programs (McCollum, 1994). Adult literacy programs provide prisoners with another chance to learn to read and write, while adding a much needed aesthetic dimension to prisoners' experiences (Collins, 1995). Vocational education offers a variety of fields such as business education, horticulture, computer sciences, and similar high-employment and reasonably paid fields of work. Because these fields are also in high demand by prison work and maintenance crews, job assignments offer hands-on experience (McCollum, 1994).

Life skills programs can vary from behavior modification (e.g. drug and other dependency control and anger management) to learning about humanity (Forster, 1997). According to Paup (1995), classes on humanity teach about empathy, good will, and understanding. Humanities teach that people must never violate the dignity of another human being, which may make prisoners think twice before harming or taking from another person again (Paup, 1995).

In prisons, education is not taken for granted (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001). Some prisoners come to class to study to obtain their GED. Some come because the challenge of class materials serves as an antidote for boredom. Many attend because they earn days off their

sentences (Winfred, 1997). In a study by Goldader (1998), the primary reason most prisoners enrolled in prison courses was for the opportunity for self improvement. People in prisons are human beings, and in the right circumstances all eager to learn and capable of considerable insight (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001). The second reason for enrollment in prison education was to obtain marketable skills (Winfred, 1997). Up to 1994, the number of occupational training programs offered by community and junior colleges had increased (McCollum, 1994). A close third reason for attending classes in prison was to enhance chances of not committing another crime (Winfred, 1997). According to Paup (1995), humans have the ability to heal, and prison education can offer effective treatment for callused minds.

Impact of Prison Education and its Obstacles

The outcomes of prison education are tremendous. There is a positive correlation between higher education and post-release success (McCollum, 1994). Studies show that higher the level of schooling attained, the lower the rate of recidivism (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001).

According to Coeyman (1998), recidivism rates of inmates who took degrees through two Ohio prisons were 18

percent versus a state average of 40 percent. Also, 25-year study by Boston University (cited in Coeyman, 1998) revealed that inmates who earned a BA degree while in prison had a recidivism rate of less than five percent versus the national rate of 65 percent. Duquid & Pawson (1998) studied 654 Canadian former Federal prisoners who had been part of a liberal arts program during their imprisonment. After release, 75 percent of the prisoners remained free of re-incarceration for at least three years.

In a New Mexico study, 15 percent of prisoners who completed one or more college courses during their imprisonment were re-arrested and/or re-incarcerated, compared to 68 percent for those who did not complete any college course during their imprisonment (Fairchild, 1990). A Folsom prison study in the early 1980s reported zero recidivism for college graduates within three years of release compared with 55 percent for the general prison population (Fairchild, 1990).

Why so much success? According to Tootoonchi (1993), most former prison inmates (98 percent of the survey respondents) felt that taking college courses helped to increase their self-awareness, self-confidence, and self-esteem. Moreover, 87 percent of the respondents revealed

that prison education helped them realize that they do not have to act violently to get what they want. According to Frolander-Ulf & Yates (2001), the more classes the inmates take, the more likely they can envision themselves as productive members of society.

Despite many examples of successes of prison education, there still exist many challenges and obstacles (Ripley, 1993). The first obstacle is the negative attitudes of people in society. William Weld, a former governor of Massachusetts, is well known for his toughness on criminals. He has commented that prisoners are in prison to be punished, not to receive free education (Tootoonchi, 1993). With public's growing cynicism, many correctional programs are shying away from academic programs (Paup, 1995).

A second obstacle is the funding for prison education. Education in prisons needs resources like any other educational service (Forster, 1997). In 1994, Congress voted to discontinue the use of grants for prisoners, and many states followed by cutting off tuition assistance to inmates (Coeyman, 1998). This has had a traumatic impact on prison education. In 1990 there were 350 higher-education programs nationally for inmates, but by 1997

there were only eight (Center on Crime cited in Coeyman, 1998). At least 25 states have cut back on vocational and technical training programs since Pell Grants were cut off (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001).

Fiscal problems do not end in just cutting available programs to inmates. They also affect the conditions of education. Many prisons do not have enough classrooms or adequate lighting (Thomas, 1995). The inmates have to rely on donated books (Goldader, 1998). Also, lack of money means lack of viable pool of instructors who would be willing to teach in prisons (Thomas, 1995). Even when there are instructors willing to teach in prisons, they may lack adequate training concerning interpersonal skills, delivery, or emotional survival skills that are unique to prison teaching (Paup, 1995).

A third obstacle is the administrative set-up of prisons themselves. The regimentation and tightly controlled nature of prisons often conflicts with the flexibility required for effective implementation of education (Thomas, 1995). Lockdowns are one of the most frustrating obstacles. Lockdown, which is used as a security measure, confines prisoners to their cells for an indefinite period of time. This means prisoners cannot

leave their cells to attend classes. Moreover, classroom notes and papers get destroyed, confiscated, or lost in searches during lockdowns (Thomas, 1995). Prisons place more emphasis on custody and less on care (Forster, 1997). Prisoners are inmates first and students second (Paup, 1995).

Another obstacle that has a big impact on prison education is a competition between education and work assignments. Prisoners can work and earn money during incarceration. Therefore, when a choice is given between working and earning money versus going to classes, work assignments invariably win. Education has a very low and decreasing status within prisons (Frolander-Ulf & Yates, 2001).

English-as-a-Second Language in Prison Education

Most non-English-speaking inmates in prisons are Spanish speaking. They are people who have immigrated to the United States for employment and for better living standards. Some unaware non-English-speaking Hispanics get employed by drug rings who pose as legitimate employers. When they get caught, the drug rings just hire more men to replace them (Rockwell, 1994). In Washington State prisons, about 15 percent of inmates are from countries

other than United States. The majority of these men are from Spanish-speaking countries, and are primarily convicted of non-violent drug offenses (Paup, 1995).

For inmates mentioned above, ESL (English as a second language) classes can offer many benefits. First, ESL classes offer a free way to study English, which can have immediate and future economic and personal benefits in and outside prison. Second, ESL classes can provide a non-threatening environment where the authority is directed toward language learning instead of ostensible behavior control. Third, ESL classes can offer a place of camaraderie, especially for students of similar cultural background. Fourth, Latinos place a high cultural value on education. Last, ESL classes provide time and place for students to avoid an unpleasant environment and escape from their cells (Paup, 1995). Meaningful and genuine ESL classes are much needed for inmates who desperately seek a way to connect what they learn to the building of a productive future on the outside (Cordero & Pousada, 1995). The following is an example of an ESL program that has been offered in a prison.

In New Mexico prisons, an eight-module curriculum of survival ESL was created for prison inmates. This

curriculum is designed to help Spanish-speaking inmates develop English skills needed for social use, communication with prison staff and attorneys, and expression of their needs and expectations. The curriculum also designed to increase their self-respect and respect for others while lessening the tension among inmates and staff. Examples of course content are learning staff commands and expected responses, how to ask permission for something, positive and negative attitudes in prison, how to earn money, and medical terminology (Rockwell, 1994).

Positive outcomes of prison education are well documented throughout history. But because of the negative social views of prisons and inmates, prison education constantly faces obstacles and oppositions. Through better education of society, prison education can be enhanced. And through enhanced prison education, society can be enhanced through reduced recidivism and improved citizenship.

English for Specific Purposes

Introduction to English for Specific Purposes

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a branch of English Language Teaching (ELT) that is concerned primarily

with learning and the ability to perform particular communicative tasks (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Learners' needs determine ESP content.

Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system (Dudley-Evans, 1997). ESP students are usually adults who already have some knowledge of English. They are learning the language in order to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions (Schleppegrell & Bowman, 1986). ESP courses, however, can be designed for near beginners (Dudley-Evans, 1997).

The purpose of ESP course is not to teach subject content in English. Rather, the purpose of ESP course is to teach the language that enables the learners to learn the subject content. Instead of studying the language as an abstraction, the language is used to increase both knowledge and skill in a specific area of study which is academically or professionally relevant (Yates-Knepp, 1993). Being able to apply what they learn in their English classes to their field of study serves as a great motivation (Schleppegrell & Bowman, 1986). This has been one of the most important elements in the development of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

After the Second World War in 1945, there was an enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical, and economic activity on an international scale. This generated a demand for an international language, and English became that international language (Asenavage, 1998). But as English became the accepted international language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners of English. These learners knew specifically why they were learning the language. Businessmen and women wanted to sell their products (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). A whole new group of people wanted to learn English, not for the pleasure or prestige of knowing the language, but because English was the key to the international currencies of technology and commerce.

The new group of learners had different needs and interests than previous learners. English needed by a particular group of learners could be identified by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their professional area of work or study (Barron, 1992). "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" became the guiding principle of ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.8).

The growth of ESP was brought about by a combination of three important factors: need, new ideas about language, and new ideas about learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Need refers to the expansion of demand for English to suit particular needs. The phrase "new ideas about language" refers to the developments in the field of linguistics. The phrase "new ideas about learning" refers to the developments in the field of educational psychology (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

English for Specific Purposes versus General English

As mentioned earlier, ESP is a branch of English Language Teaching (ELT). ELT can be divided into three branches: English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and English as a Mother Tongue (EMT). EFL and ESL branches can be sub-divided to General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

There are two main types of ESP, English for academic study and English for work or training. English for academic study is known as English for Academic Purpose (EAP), and English for work or training is known as English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Vocational Purpose (EVP), or Vocational English as a Second Language (VESL). English for academic study and English for work or

training apply to all three branches of ESP: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE), and English for Social Sciences (ESS). ESP is one branch of ESL/EFL (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Appendix B presents a diagram of the tree representing ELT.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is not about teaching just vocabulary. Learners can not learn just vocational English without learning the foundations of the language. ESP takes into account the needs of the learner, and focuses on the language forms and functions which are specific to that need. ESP focuses on language use rather than language structure. ESP concentrates on teaching language use in context, rather than concentrating on teaching grammar and other language structures (Yates-Knepp, 1993).

What distinguishes ESP from General English is not the existence of a need, but rather an awareness of the need (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). From the early days of ESP in the 1960s, the starting point has always been what learners need to do with English (Dudley-Evans, 1997).

Needs analysis is fundamental to ESP (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). It is used to determine the course content, materials, and methodology of teaching.

Two questions to ask during needs analysis are the following. What knowledge and abilities will the learners require in order to be able to perform to the required degree of competence in the target situation? What does the expert communicator need to know in order to function effectively in this situation? (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). After identifying the needed skills and activities, a more focused analysis of the genres and language involved in each of these skills activities can be carried out (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre. ESP is most effective when it uses the methodology that learners are already familiar within their educational studies or professional work (Dudley-Evans, 1997). In EFL all four language skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing) are equally emphasized. In ESP, a needs analysis determines which language skills are most needed by the students, and the program is focused accordingly (Schleppegrell & Bowman, 1986).

Course Design and Instructors

The purpose of an ESP course is to enable learners to function adequately in a target situation in which the learners will use the language they are learning (Isenstead, 1997). The ESP course design process should first identify the target situation, and then carry out a rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) referred to this as target situation analysis. After the target situation analysis is completed, an appropriate teaching approach or method can be selected.

An approach or method derives not from a view of language, but from a view of learning. The learning theory helps to explain how people learn by providing a theoretical basis for the methodology. Theories of learning are not confined only to how people learn a language, but can refer to learning any kind of knowledge, including how to drive a car (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). All communication has a structural level, a functional level, and a discoursal level. They are not mutually exclusive, but complementary, and each may have its place in the ESP course.(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) The ESP teacher needs to recognize that the various approaches are

different ways of looking at the same thing (Yoshida, 1997).

Language-Centered Approach. The language-centered course design process is the simplest form of course design process, and is probably the one most familiar to English teachers. ESP course content is heavily connected to target situation analysis, and is particularly prevalent in ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The language-centered approach starts with the learner, learner analysis, syllabus, and materials used in the classroom; then includes evaluation of mastery of the items on the syllabus.

First, the learners help to identify and analyze the needs of the target situation. The results of the target situation analysis are used to determine the content of the course with little further reference to the learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In a language-centered approach, the syllabus is the prime generator of the teaching materials, and the determiner of the entire course (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Skills-Centered Approach. The skills-centered approach is based on the assumption that there is a common reasoning and interpreting process in all language use

regardless of the surface forms. This enables the extraction of meaning from discourse (Noguchi, 1998). The skills-centered approach focuses on underlying interpretive strategies rather than the surface forms of the language. These interpretive strategies can enable the learner to cope with the surface forms (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

A skill-centered course presents its learning objectives in terms of both performance and competence. The emphasis in the ESP course, then, is not on achieving a particular set of goals, but on enabling the learners to achieve what they can within the given constraints (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The skill-centered model sees the ESP course as helping learners to develop skills and strategies which will continue to develop after the ESP course itself. Its aim is not to provide a specified body of linguistic knowledge, but to make the learners into better processors of language. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987)

The skills-centered approach does not fully take the learner into account, although as in the language-centered approach. The learner is used to identify and to analyze the target situation needs. Unlike the language-centered approach, in a skills-centered approach the syllabus is not a prime generator of activity. There is a degree of

negotiation between texts and skills (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Classroom activities depend on students' abilities.

Learning-Centered Approach. A learning-centered approach is aimed at maximizing the potential of the learning situation. The methodology is considered from the start and cannot be just added on to the end of an existing selection of syllabus items and texts (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). To achieve this, the syllabus is used dynamically with methodological considerations, such as interest, enjoyment, and learner involvement, to influence the content of the entire course design. With a learning-centered approach, factors concerned with learning are considered at all stages of the course design process, which makes the process more dynamic and interactive (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The syllabus and materials evolve together, influencing each other. And this allows the syllabus to be used creatively as a generator of relevant learning activities (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

There are five key roles that ESP instructors assume (Dudley-Evans, 1997). ESP instructors must clearly teach the language, including the skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. The ESP instructor also becomes a course designer and materials provider, usually responsible

for selecting teaching materials. The instructor chooses available materials, makes changes if needed, or writes the materials if no suitable materials exist. As a collaborator, the ESP instructor engages with the students to ensure appropriateness of the teaching materials to meet students' needs. Another role of an ESP instructor is to become a researcher. It is important to keep up with research being published in the field of ESP. Last, the ESL instructor becomes an evaluator. The instructor evaluates learners' achievement, the course, and teaching materials during and at the end of the course (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

In light of so many roles to assume, many ESP instructors feel unprepared, especially in the field of science and technology (Carreon, 1996; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). These feelings may have resulted from unfamiliarity with the genre forms and discourse conventions used in science/technology profession, in addition to unfamiliarity with their purposes and functions (Carreon, 1996). When problems arise, ESP instructors do not have a ready-made resource to turn to for answers (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). A successful ESP instructor teaching program needs to address key concepts and topics in the subject field,

subject-specific genre and genre analysis, and strategies and approaches for teaching subject-specific genre (Carreon, 1996).

ESP has been in existence for decades. English is taught, not as an abstraction, but within a context and with a purpose. The purpose is to teach English to meet learners' needs in various target situations. Many difficulties are still apparent in the field of ESP, such as lack of adequate training for instructors and lack of suitable teaching materials. But as with any growing field, new research and publications bring new information and solutions to further develop the field of English for Specific Purposes.

Content-Based Instruction

What is Content-Based Instruction?

English as a second language (ESL) classes teach students how to read, write, speak, and listen to basic English. When these skills are mastered, students enter subject-specific programs, such as science or social studies. The ESL program graduates can confidently converse with fellow native English students and teachers without much difficulty. But when these same students

encounter academic work, they face a great difficulty. Although they are proficient in basic English, they are not able to perform classroom tasks that involve cognitively complex academic language (Crandall & Tucker, 1990). As time continues, the students fall even further behind their English speaking peers (Crandall & Tucker, 1990).

Delayed academic language instruction can be detrimental to eventual success of ESL students in the school system (Short, 1991). Students can master social language skills in one to two years, yet mastering academic language skills can take four to seven years of additional instruction (Cummins, 1981; Collier, 1989). Content-based language instruction (CBI) aims to prevent this problem.

Content-based instruction (CBI) integrates contents of subject matter with aims to teach the language (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989). Many educators have started to integrate language and content objectives, even with beginning level students, in attempt to minimize the time gap between learning English and learning content instruction (Short, 1991). Although the topics, texts, and tasks are drawn from the subject matter, the focus is on teaching language. Academic language skills are taught to enable students confidently and to successfully participate

in content instruction. Students become proficient not just in social language skills, but also in academic language skills (Crandall & Tucker, 1990). This approach to language teaching acknowledges that people do not learn language first then use it; instead, people learn language by using it (Eskey, 1992).

By learning the language through use, CBI increases motivation for more effective learning (Brinton et al., 1989). There is no greater motivation for learning a language than being able to express an opinion in that language, on a subject about which students care (Valentine & Repath-Martos, 1992). Therefore, to enhance students' motivation, careful choice of topic of students' interests is crucial along with relevance of the topic to students' educational goals (Valentine & Repath-Martos, 1992).

CBI offers ESL students an education that allows them to learn English in a meaningful way (Freeman & Freeman, 1992). CBI offers students meaningful and relevant materials to use during English lessons (Short, 1991). The language is taught through a focus on contextualized use (Brinton et al., 1989). Learners acquire the understanding of the meaning (Snow, 1993). This enables students to use the second language productively (Snow, 1993), which add to

achieving academic and social success (Freeman & Freeman, 1992).

There are four features that characterize content-based language courses (Anderson, Allen, & Narvaez, 1993). First, the organization of the curriculum is derived from subject matter, rather than the form or functions of language itself. CBI aims to teach the content while using English as the medium of instruction (Wiesen, 2000). The sequence of curriculum is determined by the language problems students encounter as they learn the subject matter (Brinton et al., 1989).

Second, the core materials are selected primarily from those produced for native speakers of the language (Anderson et al., 1993). With authentic texts, learners are drawn closer to target language culture which enhances both the enjoyment and motivation for learning (Little, Devitt, & Singleton, 1989). Authentic text materials related to students' professional objectives can assure both the increased motivation and learner confidence (Wiesen, 2000). Although many teachers incorporate authentic materials when possible, adapted materials may be used as supplements (Short, 1991).

Third, students use the target language to acquire new information and to evaluate that information based on their crosscultural understanding. Fourth, the students' cognitive and affective needs, as well as their proficiency level structure the instruction (Leaver & Stryker, 1989). As students strengthen their higher-order cognitive skills, they shift their thought patterns from the language of the content course to English. This promotes critical thinking skills (Short, 1991) and enables the ESL students to succeed in using academic language with increasing sophistication throughout the course (Fredrickson & Hagedorn, 1991).

Through CBI, students learn English with meaning, meaning that is relevant to their social and academic growth. CBI prepares students for success by providing them with not only English skills, but also needed subject matter. By incorporating the language and subject matter simultaneously, CBI also promotes cognitive skills.

Content-Based Instruction versus English for Specific Purposes

There are many similarities between CBI and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Both movements started as practitioners realized that separating language instruction

apart from its actual use in contexts was a disservice to the students. In both movements, efforts are made to discover and use genuine discourse forms in the real world. This reflects target situations that are represented as realistically as possible in the language classroom. Students engage in meaningful use of language rather than just learning the language (Wong, 1992). Both CBI and ESP promote utilization of language skills and content in real life through genuine language instruction and authentic classroom activities (Johns, 1992).

However, ESP and CBI differ on the following points. ESP prides itself in being an international movement, whereas CBI takes place in domestic ESL programs. CBI offers education mostly to children in the K-12 setting through sheltered English programs (which will be discussed later). But ESP teaches groups of adults who have specific, identified needs. CBI is generally a multi-skill approach integrating the four skills, reading, writing, listening, and speaking; whereas ESP is often limited to one skill, reading (Johns, 1992).

CBI, apart from ESP, is appropriate for domestic teaching settings, where the students can apply the learned knowledge continuously in its native culture. Because the

knowledge is multi-skilled, students are well prepared to move forward to the next level of education/application.

Theme-Based Language Instruction

Theme-based language instruction (TBI) assumes that all ESL instruction can be based on themes (Master, 1992). The theme becomes the backbone of the course curriculum by dictating the course syllabus (Brinton et al., 1989). According to Master (1992), TBI allows students to develop all language skills and sub-skills, such as reading, listening, grammar, and oral skills, at same time. Also, TBI promotes higher-order critical-thinking skills such as separating fact from opinion. In order to accomplish these successfully, a course syllabus must be based on a theme or a topic of importance that is meaningful in context, while utilizing a rich array of language items or activities (Brinton et al., 1989).

A student population of TBI is comprised of groups of adults of various backgrounds and proficiency levels who share some common areas of interest (Brinton et al., 1989). Teacher training is required for curriculum and materials development (Turner, 1992). This is especially important when performing needs assessment to select a theme based on students' interests (Master, 1992). Teachers also need

training in adjusting the language to learners, and planning activities for both mixed and equal proficiency groups (Peck, 1992).

Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD) had a theme-based model in its Transitional Program for English Department. Limited English proficient (LEP) students in grades 5 to 7 receive English instruction based on themes, such as consumer education and map skills. These students received instruction from teachers who were trained in content ESL instruction techniques (Brinton et al., 1989).

A more in-depth example of a theme-based instruction was the American Language Center (ALC) evening series courses offered at University of California, Los Angeles. This program was geared to the needs of the general population of second-language speakers living in the Los Angeles area. Students were from relatively well-to-do economic backgrounds, and had either some academic background and/or academic motivation (Brinton et al., 1989).

The theme-based courses consisted of three to four thematic units such as gun control and computer crime. Alternatively, the course consisted of one large theme such as environmental concerns, and was divided into several

subunits such as air pollution control. Classroom activities consisted of listening to audiotapes, reading supplementary articles from newspaper and magazines, and then following up with a composition assignment. Other activities were added as needed, such as role-playing and vocabulary activities (Brinton et al., 1989).

Theme-based instruction is based on the theme of the course. Therefore, the course content is derived from the theme. For students who have similar interests or needs, theme-based instruction may be appropriate.

Sheltered-Content Instruction

In sheltered-content instruction, the ESL students are sheltered from native-English-speaking students (Master, 1992). The course can be taught by both a content instructor or an ESL instructor, who is often a native-English speaker (Brinton et al., 1989). This approach aims to provide a low-anxiety environment, where ESL students do not have to compete with native speakers (Master, 1992) or be intimidated by their presence. Sheltered instruction is also useful in teaching ESL students crucial academic skills such as test taking, lecture note taking, textbook reading, and study skills (Kinsella, 1992).

Sheltered-content instruction is appropriate for all age groups (Brinton et al., 1989), though it is often seen in high schools, community colleges, or university setting where the subject mastery becomes more crucial (Master, 1992). Nonetheless, students are not expected or assumed to have any prior experience with the subject matter (Brinton et al., 1989).

Sheltered-content instructors must be knowledgeable, and be able to modify the course content for ESL students. This can include choosing appropriate texts for students, using visual materials rather than printed text when possible, and demonstrating procedures using real objects and materials (Rosen, 1992). The content instructor's speech may need to be adjusted to compensate for the students' developing listening skills (Brinton et al., 1989; Master, 1992).

Following is an example of a successful sheltered instruction at a high school algebra/ESL class. The class consisted of 25 students of various ethno-linguistic backgrounds and are of varied English proficiency. All students had been in United States for less than four years. Although the instructor provided some direct presentation, the majority of the learning was cooperative.

More advanced mathematics students or more English-proficient students helped those students who were less advanced in mathematics or less proficient in English. A textbook was available, but was often supplemented with materials which focused on language. Students practiced writing and speaking, as well as algebra. There were other classes taught through an integrated language and content approach at this school. Enthusiasm was high and so was the success rate, manifested by the fact that 85% of the students who entered school stayed and graduated (Brinton et al., 1989)

Another example of a sheltered instruction is a bilingual program at University of Ottawa in Canada. It is a common knowledge that Canada has two languages, English and French. The University of Ottawa offered programs for students to develop their second language through sheltered instruction. Second-language students had the same professor, lecture content, reading assignments, and final multiple-choice examinations as the native speakers. But they were taught separately from the native speakers. The students were taught by the content professor and an ESL instructor in the same class. The ESL instructor taught language with an emphasis on developing listening and

reading comprehension skills that were essential to understanding the lectures and readings of the content taught by the content instructor (Brinton et al., 1989).

Sheltered-content instruction provides a low-anxiety atmosphere for ESL students, where they can freely learn and express their needs. Sheltered-content instruction, when applied properly, can greatly strengthen students' English skills, content knowledge, and other academic skills before they are immersed with native-English-speaking students.

Adjunct Language Instruction

Adjunct language instruction is a parallel instructional design, also referred to as paired courses (Crandall & Tucker, 1990) where content courses and language courses are taught side by side, mutually coordinated. The content teacher teaches the content, and the language teacher teaches language skills that are necessary to understand and to perform successfully in the content class (Brinton et al., 1989). The language teacher usually attends the content class, for the content guides the syllabus for instruction in the language class (Master, 1992). A good working relationship between the content teacher and the language teacher is essential. Some of the

challenges for language teachers caused by content instructors include disregard for language ESL as a discipline, or the content instructors' unfamiliarity with second language learning (Gee, 1992).

The adjunct model is appropriate for adults with academic goals whose proficiency level is high intermediate to advanced. Students do not need prior experience with the subject matter (Brinton et al., 1989).

An example of an adjunct model was found in Malaysia, with a program called ITM/MUCIA (Institut Teknologi MARA/Midwestern Universities Consortium for International Activities). This program was geared toward preparing foreign students before they enter United States. One adjunct model course is known as "Pre-science." This course was developed through cooperation between the ESL, physics, and chemistry departments. The experiments were selected and organized by the science departments while the ESL department planned the linguistic aspects of the course. The course was taught by lecturers from both the ESL and the science departments. Meetings were held regularly between the lecturers to mutually coordinate the course (Fredrickson & Hagedorn, 1991).

A more detailed adjunct model can be found at University of California Los Angeles with its Freshman Summer Program (FSP). The intent of the program is to prepare high-risk incoming freshmen academically before the regular school starts. Students enroll in both the ESL and the content course, which are mutually coordinated. The language class is 10 to 12 hours weekly, and the content class is approximately eight hours weekly. Series of planning sessions are held for both the ESL and the content teacher before the classes begin. After the classes begin, meetings are held weekly to ensure continued cooperation between the language and content teams. The goal of the program is to use authentic content materials through improved reading and study skill strategies taught in language class. Evaluations gathered at the completion of the program strongly support the adjunct model. Students appreciate the tight integration between the language and content courses. The content-based language class becomes meaningful and relevant by providing students with the academic language skills required for success at the school (Brinton et al., 1989).

When provided with adequate staffing and resources, adjunct language instruction may be an ideal way to teach

students English and the content material, and still allow ESL students to academically grow at the same rate as the native-English-speaking students. The language instructor and the content instructor must coordinate the classes well for the ESL students to succeed in the adjunct program.

The success of CBI is dependent on the appropriate choice of instructional method, adequate teacher training, appropriate text materials, and a proper and continuous coordination between the content and the language instruction. Through careful planning and thorough execution, all the above can be achieved and ultimately lead to better-educated students.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

English-as-a-Second Language Nutrition Education Situated in the Prison Context

The individual's motivation is formed by the learning situation of his or her past. This situated learning is comprised of two major components, cultural conditioning and individual choices. Making new eating choices that are more nutritional requires active intervention. The lesson plans presented in Appendix C provide information, but this information only becomes life-changing if the actual learning is powerful enough to overcome the learning situated in the past. Therefore, lesson must be presented in a learning situation unique to this context.

A current learning situation provides many opportunities to choose either to follow the ways of cultural conditioning, or to choose to apply new knowledge. The target students of this project have choices to make in the cafeteria and at Canteen, the in-house supermarket. Students can continue to eat the way they have been, or eat in a healthier manner by observing, receiving, and eating therapeutic diets that are provided. Students can also

choose to continue to buy pork rinds and potato chips, or pretzels or baked potato chips. The choice is dependent upon the success of education.

A Theoretical Model of Content-Based Instruction

The five key concepts presented in the previous chapter, motivation, content-based instruction (CBI), English for specific purposes (ESP), situated learning, and prison education, form a theoretical foundation that applies to this curriculum project. Prison education provides means to situated learning through utilization of ESP, with course designs derived from CBI. Success of this model is highly dependent upon driving force, the individual's motivation.

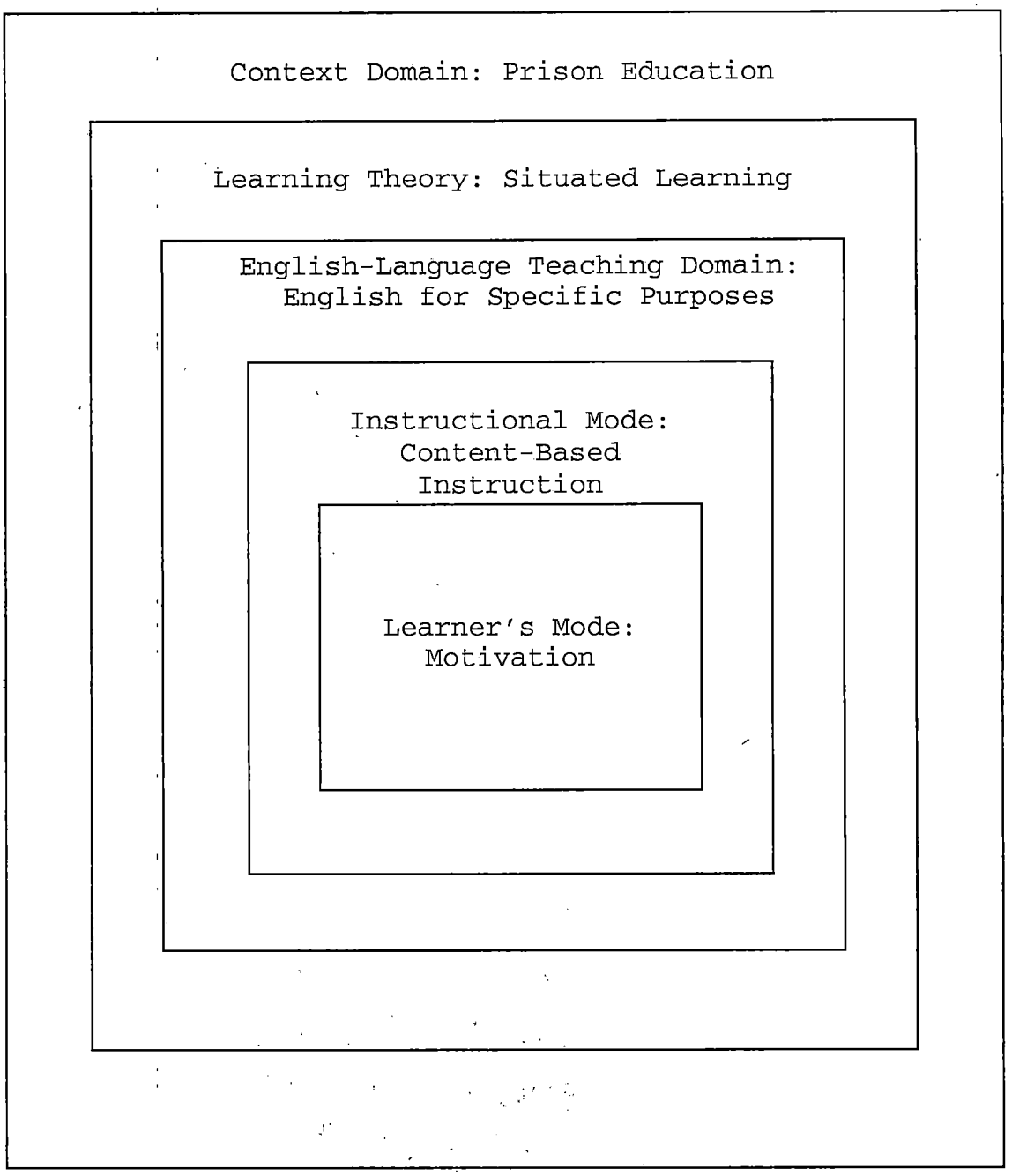


Figure 1. A Theoretical Model of Content-Based Instruction

Content Domain: Prison Education

Prison education is a fundamental right for every incarcerated individual. Many studies have shown reduced recidivism for inmates who received prison education compared to those who did not. Reduced recidivism benefits the inmates and the society in which they reside.

The target audience of this project is mentally disabled adults who are judicially committed to a forensic mental institution. Forensic mental hospital is different from regular prisons; therefore, patients have privileges that inmates at regular prisons don't have. Although they are referred to as "patients," because of the nature of their confinement, the following instructional plans are considered to be part of prison education.

Patients who are conditionally released from the forensic mental institution often come back because they are unable to care for themselves. This is especially true for patients who have chronic diseases such as diabetes. By providing proper education, patients can better care for themselves, thus leading to fewer patients returning to the institution after their conditional release. Thus the environment of prison education serves as the context domain for the instructional unit.

Learning Theory: Situated Learning

Education, when provided in contextual environment, can lead to learning that is higher in retention, application, and cognitive thinking compared to education that is provided in abstract. Likewise, ESL instruction provided in a contextual environment can lead to higher retention, application, and cognitive thinking.

The target students receive various types of education throughout their confinement. Part of that education is management of their medical conditions. Every day patients are provided with therapeutic diets, appropriate medication, and instructions on the nature of their medical conditions and how to manage them. Teaching ESL and medical nutrition therapy supports the theory of situated learning by enabling the patients to obtain knowledge through their daily living. To be considered situated, the learning is specifically modified and adapted to the constraints of the prison environment, including its resources.

English-Language Teaching Domain: English for Specific Purposes

Traditional ESL classes teach reading, writing, speaking, and grammar regardless of students' need.

English for specific purposes (ESP) teaches the same set of skills with emphasis on one or more skills based on students' need. Moreover, the content of the class is also based on student need. Although ESP is mainly utilized abroad, it has its place in the United States.

The purpose of this project is to introduce ESL classes specifically for patients who need to benefit from medical nutrition therapy. Therefore, instructional plans are set to meet patients' needs for skills and content. The lesson plans are based on ESP components as a key domain of ELT.

Instructional Mode: Content-Based Instruction

A well-known advantage of content-based instruction (CBI) is that it minimizes the time spent in teaching English language and the subject matter that students need to learn. Through CBI, students can learn English and the subject matter at same time. Thus CBI provides the chief instructional mode by which the content and language can be mutually reinforced.

By eating therapeutic diet foods, patients learn what foods they should and should not eat. But patients who do not speak English often do not know why certain foods are healthy, and why certain foods are not healthy. The reason

is that medical nutrition therapy is usually offered in English. With exposure to content-based English, patients will recognize English words during counseling, understand them, and utilize them. Utilization of language leads to retention of the language.

Learner's Mode: Motivation

Motivation is crucial in learning. Regardless of the time, environment, content, and instructor, without motivation, students cannot learn. Therefore, sources of students' motivation for learning must be considered. The chief input to this curriculum unit by the learner is his or her motivation.

Target students of this project have many sources of motivation. The two biggest sources are their health and their release from the institution. Contrary to some people's beliefs, patients are very concerned about their health. They do not want to feel bad. They also do not want the pain. They like to feel strong and healthy. Because many of the patients are not able to receive proper medical treatment outside the hospital, they are very excited to be able to receive it during confinement.

Patients who have chronic medical conditions such as diabetes must be able to exhibit thorough knowledge and

ability to care for themselves before they are considered for release into the community. Patients' desire for release is a great source of motivation.

This combination of factors--context domain, learning theory, English-language teaching domain, instructional mode and learner's mode--together function to create success for the prison nutritional program. Each one of these factors is incorporated into the lesson plans.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Rationale for the Design

Based on the theoretical framework model presented in Chapter Three, a unit plan is designed to help students learn basic nutrition through learning the Food Guide Pyramid. Each lesson plan covers a building block of the Food Guide Pyramid, which, when combined, make a complete pyramid. The unit integrates five key concepts: motivation, prison education, situated learning, English for specific purposes, and content-based instruction.

The instructional unit is intended for adult inmates in a forensic mental hospital who are under treatment for chronic diseases related to nutrition. The unit is designed to provide practical and immediately needed English skills to enable the inmates to benefit from their treatment, medical nutrition therapy. The unit also contains basic components of a sentence (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) which can lead to future lesson plans in sentence composition.

The teacher is an expert in nutrition and English. The teacher in this curriculum gives fundamental

information and instruction on the importance of nutrition in health while providing the English skills necessary to better utilize available treatment.

Each lesson plan features several focus sheets and work sheets followed by an assessment sheet. Focus sheets present information to be learned during the lesson, and work sheets provide the means to exercise that information. Both the focus sheets and work sheets contain many pictures to facilitate student learning. Vocabulary is heavily emphasized in the lesson plans. Because the target audience for this curriculum is provided many educational pamphlets and treatment counseling, vocabulary is essential in recognizing and understanding the information. Assessment sheets test students' knowledge.

Content of the Lessons

Five lesson plans are included in the curriculum. The unit lesson sequence is designed to complete the Food Guide Pyramid, starting at the base of the pyramid and working upward to the top. The base of the pyramid is the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group, and the next level is the Fruit and Vegetables Group. The third level is comprised of the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group as well as the Meat,

Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts (MPFDBEN) Group. The top of the pyramid, the smallest in size, is taken by the Fats, Oil, and Sweets Group. Each lesson plan is preceded with small group discussion among five or six students. Each discussion is started with a prompt provided by the instructor. Each group picks a leader who facilitates the discussion to involve all participants without calling on specific student in the group.

Lesson Plan One, the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group teaches different foods in this group and their serving sizes. The lesson also teaches the recommended intake of these foods for health. To open doors for teaching adjectives, the texture of various foods is also discussed.

The next lesson plan, the Fruits and Vegetables Group, teaches vocabulary, serving sizes, and also recommended intake for proper nutrition. Because some of the information provided during medical nutrition therapy emphasizes certain colors of fruits and vegetables for different conditions, colors are discussed in this lesson plan.

In Lesson Plan Three, the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group, vocabulary is limited. Therefore, the lesson

emphasizes the importance of these foods for health. Because this lesson is shorter compared to other lessons, nouns, verbs, and adjectives are introduced, with an emphasis on nouns ending in -um, such as plum and aquarium.

In the next lesson plan, Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts (MPFDBEN), verbs are reinforced from the previous lesson plan in addition to vocabulary and serving sizes. The verbs in this lesson are essential because of widespread use of these verbs in educational pamphlets and treatment counseling sessions.

The final lesson plan, Fats, Oils, and Sweets, emphasizes vocabulary. These vocabulary words are used frequently when patients are instructed to avoid or limit intake. It is important that students know which food is high in fat and sugar for different medical conditions. Also, adverbs are introduced to follow the verbs in the previous lesson plan, and to complete basic components of a sentence. At the completion of the instructional unit, the students will be able benefit from medical nutrition therapy, and be ready to learn to compose simple sentences.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT OF INSTRUCTION

The assessment of students' learning is takes place after each lesson. The assessment method includes final assessment sheets and oral presentations. Both methods evaluate the knowledge gained through task chains in each lesson plan. The assessments may seem simple, but they are appropriate and necessary for students with mental illness. The ultimate assessment of success will be manifested through students' improved health. The manifestations can be weight loss, improved lipid profile, improved blood sugar, increase in energy, and feeling well overall. But, because of the length of time needed to assess above items, they are not mentioned in the instructional plans.

The first lesson utilizes the Final Assessment Sheet to assess student's knowledge of common foods in Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta group. This includes the serving sizes and the recommended number of servings per day.

The Final Assessment Sheet in the second lesson plan evaluates vocabulary, recommended number of servings, and also different colors represented by different fruits and

vegetables. The assessment attempts to evaluate students' learning through a simple, yet practical way.

In the third lesson, Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese, the Final Assessment Sheet not only evaluates student's knowledge of vocabulary, but also the differentiation between noun, verb, and adjective. The student evaluates the adequacy of given intake and finds ways to increase the intake of food from the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese group.

The final assessment for the fourth lesson, Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts, is different from others. It does not use an assessment sheet. The assessment of knowledge is done through oral presentation. The oral presentation, for a passing grade, must include information from not just this lesson, but also from Lessons One through Three. The oral presentation allows group work, practice of oral presentation skills, and a chance to share students' favorite dish.

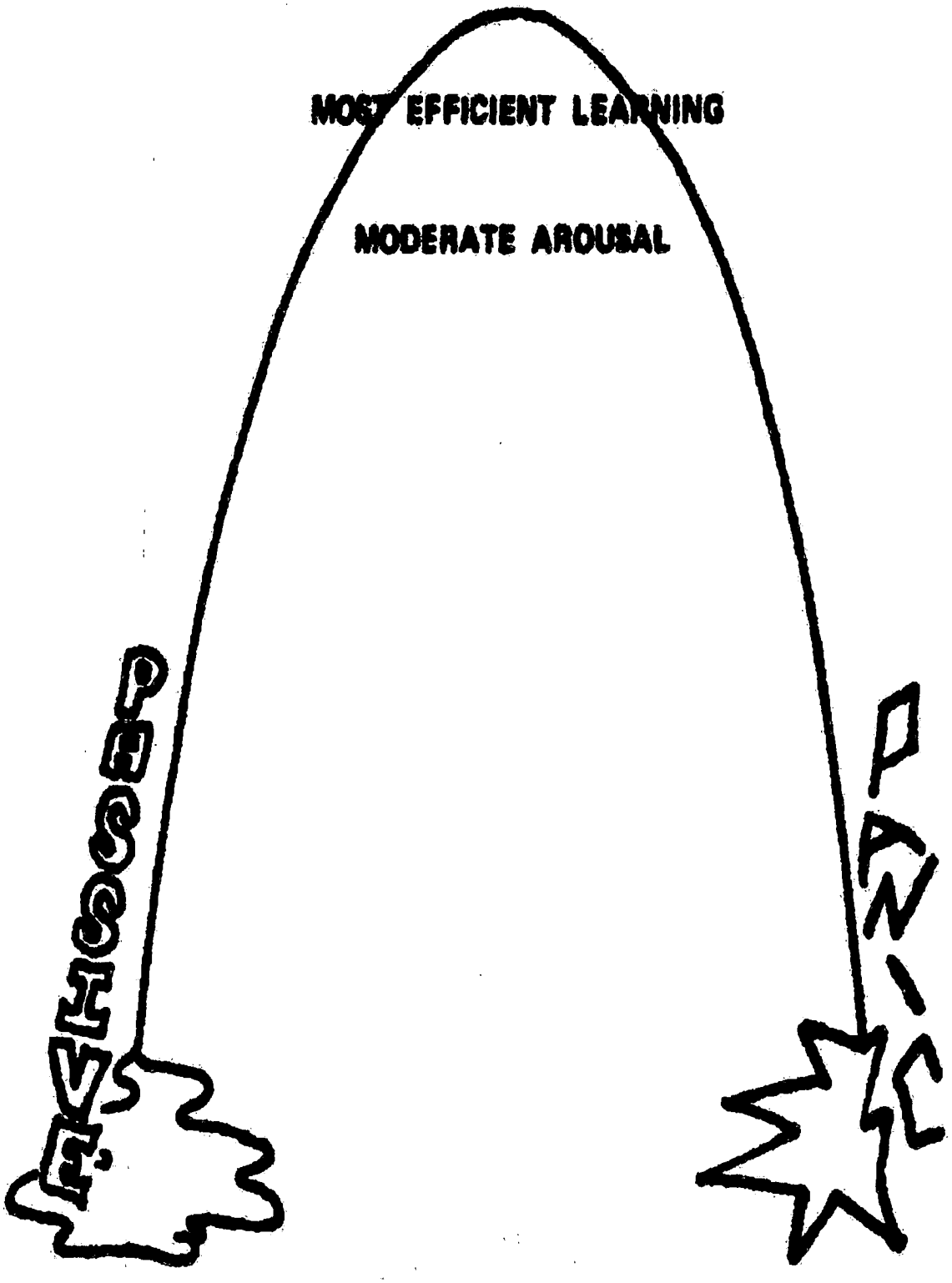
The last lesson plan uses the Final Assessment Sheet to assess student's knowledge on various foods. It assesses students' knowledge of fat and sugar contents of various foods and the nutritional risks of over-consumption of these foods. By knowing which foods are high in fat

and/or sugar, students can improve their nutritional status by avoiding or limiting their intake of these foods.

In summary, the content-based lesson plans for this project have been developed based on many aspects. In Chapter One, Introduction, the background of the project was revealed. In Chapter Two, Review of Literature, five key concepts were discussed. In Chapter Three, Theoretical Framework, was presented based on the key concepts in Chapter Two. Chapter Four, Curriculum Design, described the contents of the five lesson plans. And lastly, Chapter Five, Assessment of Instruction, described various assessments that are used for each lesson plan. The lesson plans are presented in Appendix C, Content-Based Instruction Unit Plan. These will be beneficial for adult ESL learners who need simple instructions to master nutrition-related English skills.

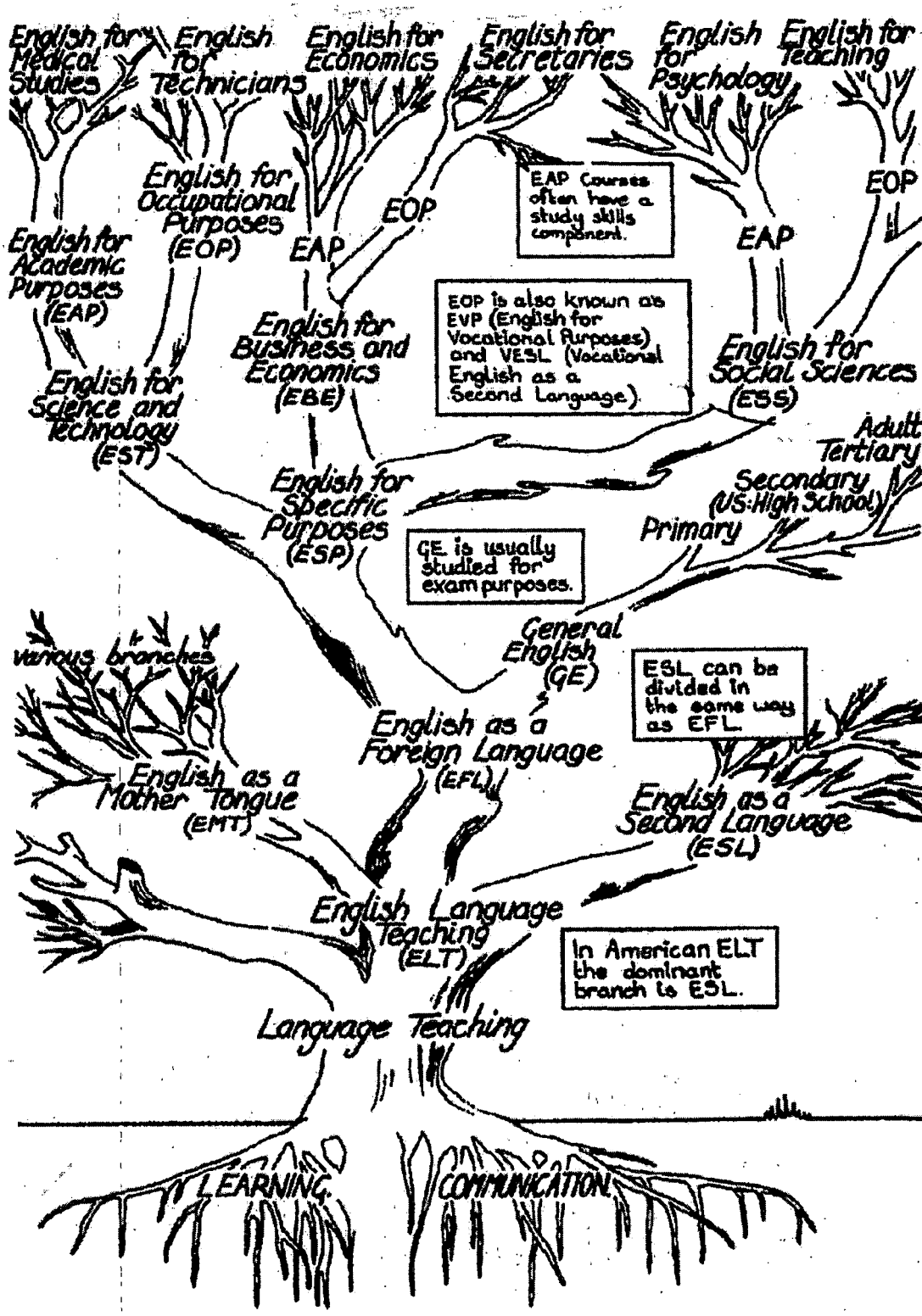
APPENDIX A

CURVE OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AROUSAL AND LEARNING EFFICIENCY


MOST EFFICIENT LEARNING
MODERATE AROUSAL
DEPRESSION
PANIC

APPENDIX B

THE TREE OF ENGLISH-LANGUAGE TEACHING


English for Medical Studies
English for Technicians
English for Economics
English for Secretaries
English for Psychology
English for Teaching
English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)
EOP
EAP
EAP Courses often have a study skills component.
EOP
EAP
English for Academic Purposes (EAP)
EOP is also known as EVP (English for Vocational Purposes) and VESL (Vocational English as a Second Language).
English for Business and Economics (EBE)
English for Social Sciences (ESS)
English for Science and Technology (EST)
Adult
Tertiary
Secondary (US: High School)
Primary
English for Specific Purposes (ESP)
GE is usually studied for exam purposes.
General English (GE)
various branches
ESL can be divided in the same way as EFL.
English as a Foreign Language (EFL)
English as a Mother Tongue (EMT)
English as a Second Language (ESL)
English Language Teaching (ELT)
In American ELT the dominant branch is ESL.
Language Teaching
LEARNING
COMMUNICATION

APPENDIX C

CURRICULUM UNIT PLAN

Introduction to Lesson Plans

Instruction Time: 1 hour

Instruction Topic: Food Guide Pyramid

Instruction Level: Beginners

Instruction target: The following lesson plans are for adult patients at a forensic mental hospital who are not native-English speakers and have some type(s) of medical problems related to nutrition (e.g. diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, obesity). The lessons are designed to familiarize patients with common English words used during medical nutrition therapy. Vocabulary is strongly emphasized because it is essential that these patients know common terminology used during medical nutrition therapy to benefit from such therapy.

Instructor: The instructor should be a Registered Dietitian, Dietetic Technician Registered, or someone who is very knowledgeable in nutrition and medical nutrition therapy, as well as have experience in teaching English-as-a-second-language (ESL).

Instruction Goal: The goal of the lesson plans is to provide adult patients with appropriate English language in order for those patients to benefit from medical nutrition therapy. Also, the English learned aids patients to benefit from many health-related pamphlets and written materials that are available in English.

Setting of Curriculum Design

Target students of the instructional plan have no prior formal nutrition education other than what has been provided at the forensic mental hospital. Due to a language barrier, these patients often have gained little knowledge on nutrition.

The students are comprised of 80 percent Hispanics, 15 percent Asian and Pacific Islanders, and five percent Europeans. Different cultures play a key role in learning by de-conditioning the cultural conditioning of unhealthy nutritional practices.

With the constraints of prison and flexibility of a hospital, students are able to choose what food they will consume. Students are able to choose healthy versus unhealthy foods in the cafeteria at meal times. Moreover, students have the ability to shop for food during the day at Canteen, the in-house supermarket. Available foods vary from water and fruits to soda and potato chips. Students make nutrition-related choices continuously throughout each day.

Pre-Warm Up Exercise

Objective: Enable students to get to know each other's meal time culture.

Instruction: The teacher divides the students into groups of five or six each. The teacher instructs the group to select a leader who will facilitate the group discussion to include everyone in the group without calling on a specific person. The teacher provides a prompt to each group. The group talks about any vocabulary words that one or more members of the group do not understand. Then the actual discussion of the prompt begins. Allow 10 to 15 minutes for the activity.

Prompt: Each prompt will address one or more of the corners of the diagram below.

Prompt #1

"What is your Comfort Food?"

Roberto eats tortillas every day at home. Sue eats rice and vegetables every day at home. Hashim does not eat pork because it is against his religion. But he likes to eat beef and chicken every day. What food did you eat a lot at home?

Instructional Plan One: The Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Food Guide Pyramid

Level: Adults, Beginning

Objectives:
1. Correctly match the names of food with food models
2. Identify and write different textures of food
3. Recognize serving sizes of food

Warm Up: The teacher hangs up the Food Guide Pyramid (FGP) poster (Focus Sheet WU.1) in the classroom. The teacher asks to share any information related to the poster. The teacher then describes the importance of FGP in health management, limiting information to two or three sentences.

Task Chain 1: Know the Food Items in the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group

1. The teacher divides the class into groups of five.
2. The teacher passes out Focus Sheet 1.1, Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta.
3. The teacher passes out a bag of food models and a bag of vocabulary cards to each group.
4. The teacher instructs the groups to match the vocabulary cards with correct food models, allowing five minutes for this activity. (Teaching Aid 1 contains the list of vocabulary words.)
5. The teacher walks around the classroom to check students' work.
6. The teacher reviews the answers with the entire class, pronouncing each food name, as the class repeats them.

Task Chain 2: Know the Color and the Texture of Food

1. The teacher distributes a bag with real food items to each group of students. (Teaching Aid 2 features the food items.)
2. The teacher asks students to touch and feel each food, and discusses the differences in texture.
3. The teacher goes around and asks each group to

pick one food and describe its texture, repeating until all food is covered. (Teaching Aid 3 contains vocabulary words to emphasize.) The black board is used for food and vocabulary words.

Task Chain 3: Serving Size of Food in the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group

1. The teacher refers to the FGP poster and discusses its impact on health with focus on the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group, limiting the information to two sentences.
2. The teacher discusses the recommended number of servings per day of the above food group.
3. Using the food models and Focus Sheet 3.1, Serving Sizes, the teacher discusses serving sizes of each food item.
4. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.2, Sample of 24-Hour Diet Recall.
5. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3.1, Blank 24-Hour Diet Recall.
6. The teacher instructs students to write down all the food in the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group that they consumed during last 24 hours and their amounts on Work Sheet 3.1.
7. The teacher instructs students to calculate the total number of servings of Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group they consumed using Work Sheet 3.1.
8. The teacher allows students to self-evaluate the adequacy of their food intake compared to the FGP.
9. Using Work Sheet 3.1, the teacher has each student write down what and how much they need to eat, more or less, to meet the recommendation of the FGP.

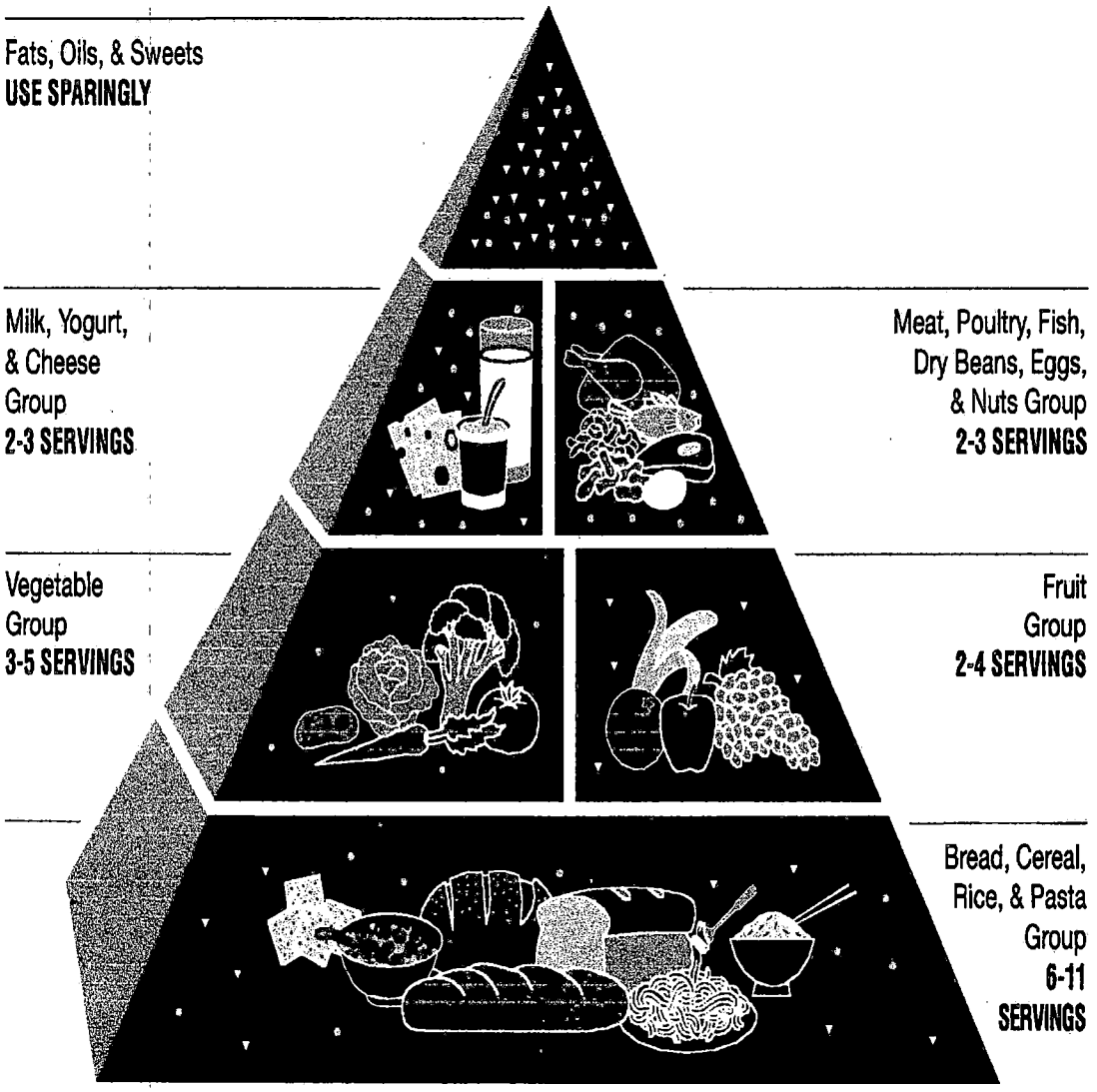
Final Assessment: Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta

The teacher hands out the Final Assessment Sheet to assess students' understanding of the above objectives.

Focus Sheet WU.1

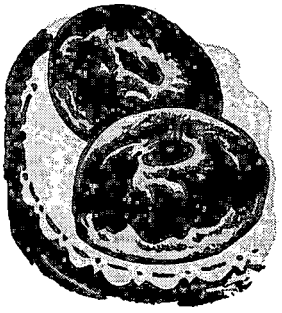
The Food Guide Pyramid

A Guide to Daily Food Choices

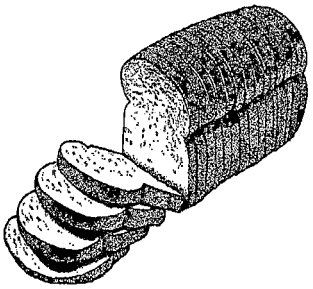


Focus Sheet 1.1

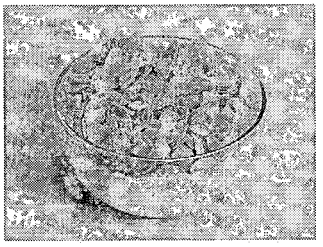
Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta



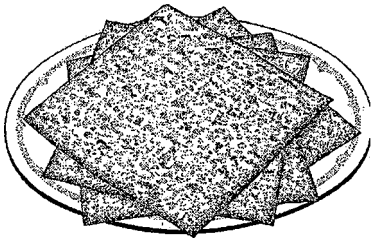
bagel



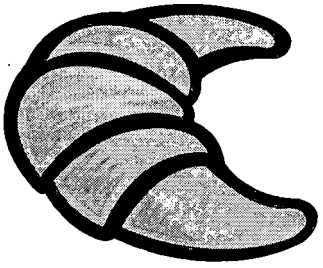
bread



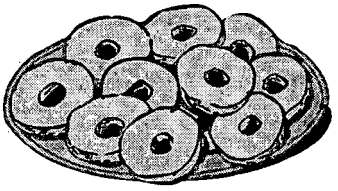
cold cereal



crackers

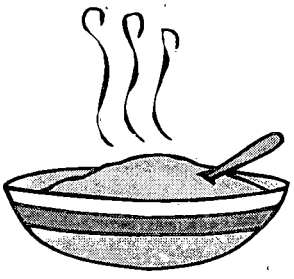


croissant

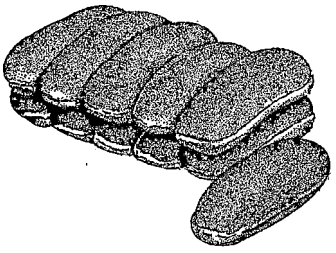


donuts

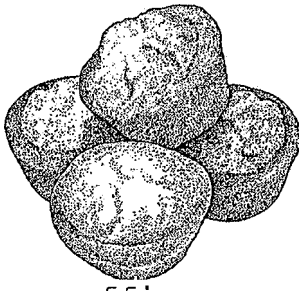
hamburger buns



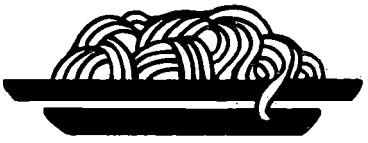
hot cereal



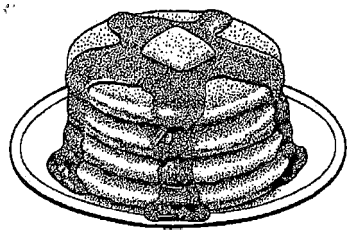
hot dog buns



muffins



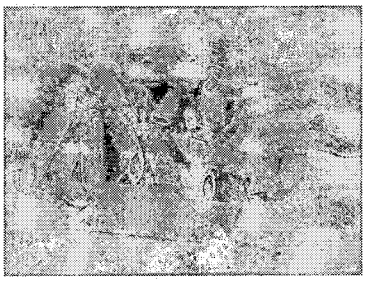
noodle



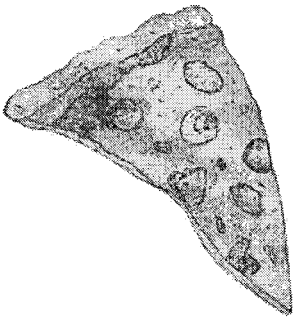
pancakes

Focus Sheet 1.1

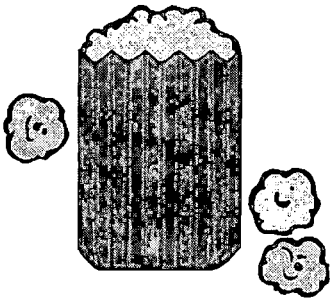
Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta



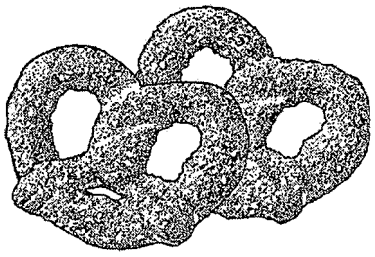
pasta



pizza crust

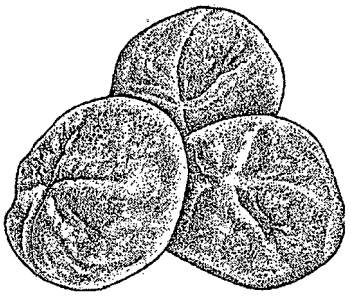


popcorn

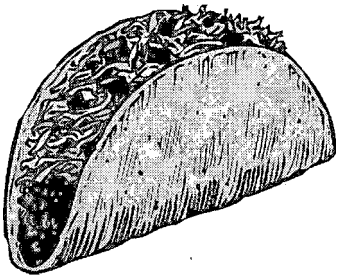


pretzel

rice



rolls

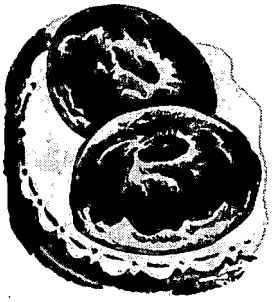


taco shell

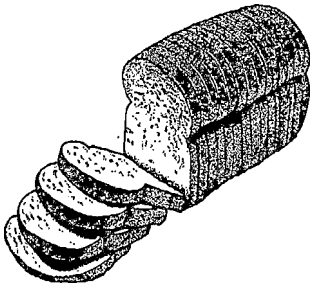
tortilla

waffles

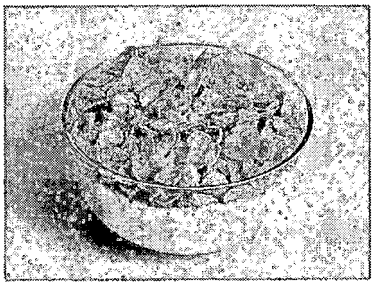
Focus Sheet 3.1
Serving Sizes



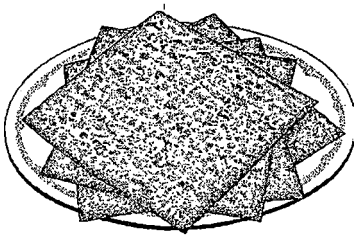
1/2 bagel



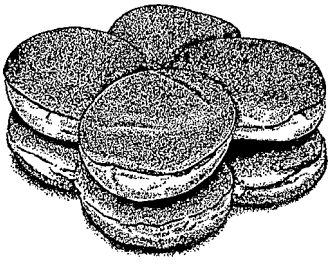
1 slice bread



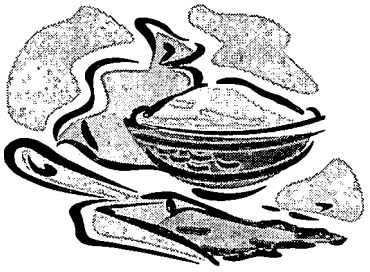
3/4 cup cold cereal



6 crackers

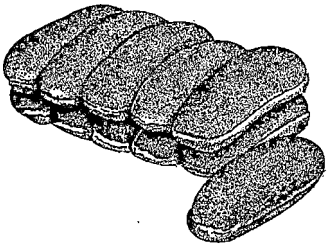


1/2 hamburger bun



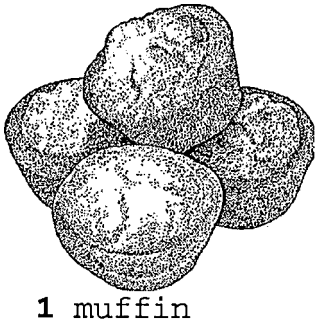
1/2 cup cooked rice

1/2 cup hot cereal



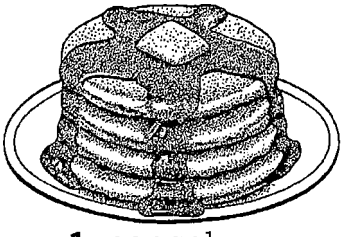
1/2 hot dog buns

1 tortilla



1 muffin

1/2 cup noodle



1 pancake

Focus Sheet 3.2
24-Hour Diet Recall

Names of Food	Amount Eaten	Number of Servings
Breakfast		
toast	2 slices	2
Lunch		
tacos	2	2
Dinner		
Spanish rice	1 cup	2
small tortillas	2	2
Snack		
pretzel	1 oz	more than 1
Total		9

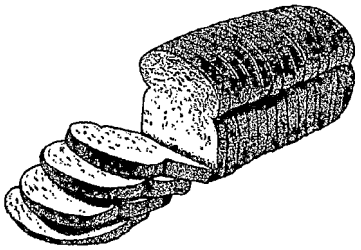
Work Sheet 3.1
24-Hour Diet Recall

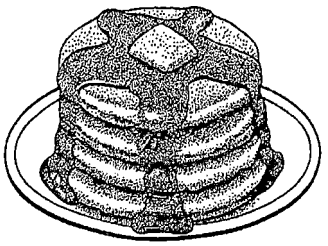
Names of Food	Amount Eaten	Number of Servings
Breakfast		
Lunch		
Dinner		
Snack		
Total		

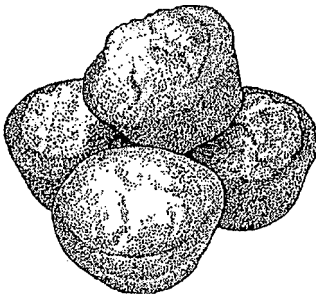
Final Assessment

Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta

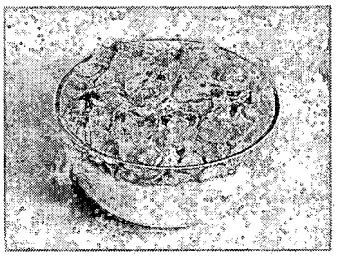
1. Write the names of the food pictured below.

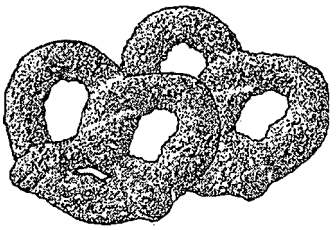


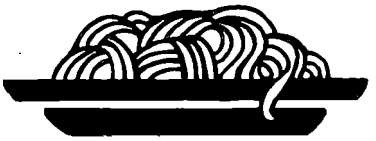




_____ _____ _____







_____ _____ _____

2. Write in the correct answer.

	Texture	Serving Size
bread	_____	_____
flour	_____	_____
crackers	_____	_____

3. What is the recommended number of servings per day?

_____ servings

Teaching Aid 1

Vocabulary Words for Vocabulary Cards

bread

cold cereal

crackers

croissant

donuts

hamburger bun

hot dog bun

hot cereal

muffins

noodle

pancakes

pasta

pizza crust

popcorn

pretzels

rice

rolls

taco shell

tortilla

waffles

Teaching Aid 2
Food for Texture

1/2 croissant

1/4 cup cooked pasta (e.g. macaroni)

1/4 cup uncooked pasta (e.g. macaroni)

1 sliced bread

1/4 cup flour

1/4 cup uncooked rice

Teaching Aid 3

Texture of Food

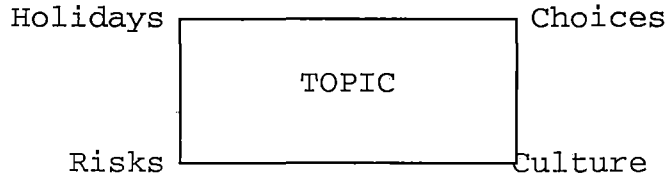
Food	Texture
croissant	soft, flaky
cooked pasta	soft, mushy, wet
uncooked pasta	hard, dry
sliced bread	soft
flour	powdery, smooth
uncooked rice	hard, grainy

Pre-Warm Up Exercise

Objective: Enable students to make a choice by weighing risks that are involved.

Instruction: The teacher divides the students into groups of five or six each. The teacher instructs the group to select a leader who will facilitate the group discussion to include everyone in the group without calling on a specific person. The teacher provides a prompt to each group. The group talks about any vocabulary words that one or more members of the group do not understand. Then the actual discussion of the prompt begins. Allow 10 to 15 minutes for the activity.

Prompt: Each prompt will address one or more of the corners of the diagram below.



Prompt #2

"What should José do?"

Miguel invited José to dinner at his house. José was very busy that day. At 7 PM, José hurried to Miguel's house to eat dinner. Miguel's wife, Rosa, prepared lots of different food, which smelled very good. When José sat at the table to eat, he remembered, he forgot his insulin! What can he do?

Instructional Plan Two: Fruits and Vegetables

Level: Adult, Beginning

Objectives:
1. Name ten new fruits and vegetables.
2. Write five words that describe the colors of fruits and vegetables.
3. State recommended numbers of servings of fruits and vegetables per day.

Warm-Up: The teacher displays the Food Guide pyramid used during previous lesson and reviews the Bread, Cereal, Rice, and Pasta Group.

Task Chain 1: Names of Fruits and Vegetables

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1.1, Fruit and Focus Sheet 1.2, Vegetables.
2. The teacher uses available food models of fruits and vegetables to review the vocabulary words on Focus Sheet 1.1 and 1.2, pronouncing the names of fruits and vegetables as the students repeat after the teacher.

Task Chain 2: Colors of Fruits and Vegetables

1. The teacher divides the class into groups of five.
2. The teacher distributes bags of food models to each group. (Teaching Aid 1 features a list of food models for bags.)
3. The teacher instructs each group to work together to find colors in English words for each food model. Groups may use available resources to find information.
4. The teacher reviews the colors of each food item as a class, using the blackboard to write the name of each food and its color.

Task Chain 3: Recommended Number of Servings of Fruits and Vegetables

1. By using the FGP from the Warm-Up activity, the teacher explains the recommended numbers of serving of fruit and vegetables per day.
2. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3.1, 24-Hour Diet Recall.
3. The teacher instructs the students to write down

all the fruit and vegetables eaten during last 24 hours and their amounts on Work Sheet 3.1.

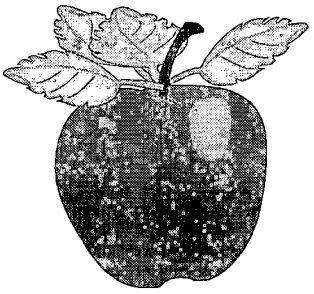
4. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.1 Serving Sizes to students.
5. Using Focus Sheet 3.1, the teacher instructs students to calculate the total number of serving of fruits and vegetables they consumed from Work Sheet 3.1.
6. Using Work Sheet 3.1, the teacher has each student write down what and how much is needed to eat, more or less, of to meet the recommendation on the FGP.

Final Assessment:

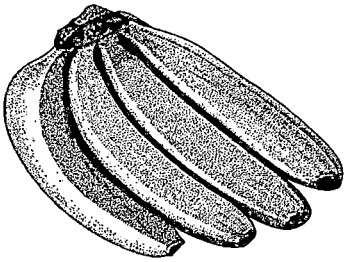
The teacher uses the Final Assessment Sheet to assess students' understanding of the above objectives.

Focus Sheet 1.1

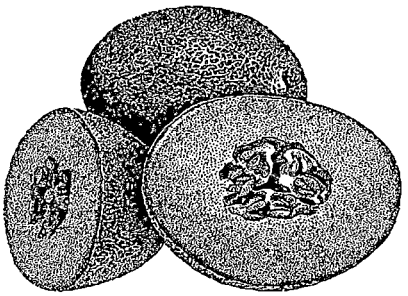
Fruits



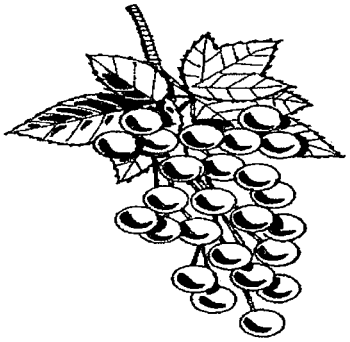
apple



banana

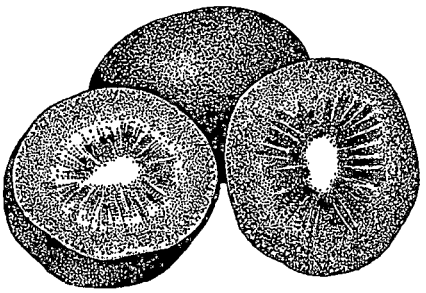


cantaloupe

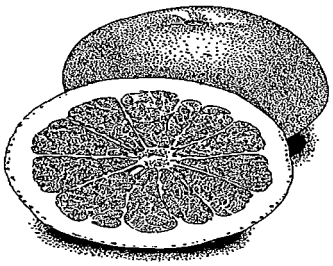


grapes

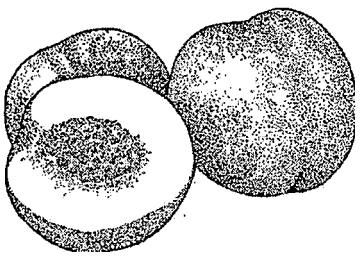
blueberries



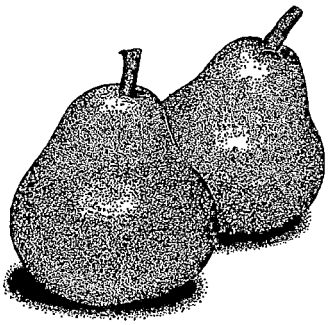
kiwi



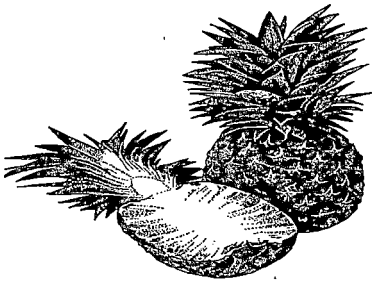
orange



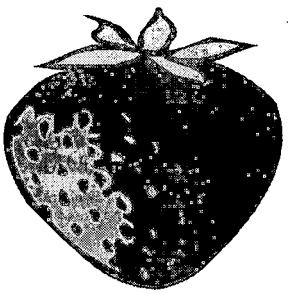
peach



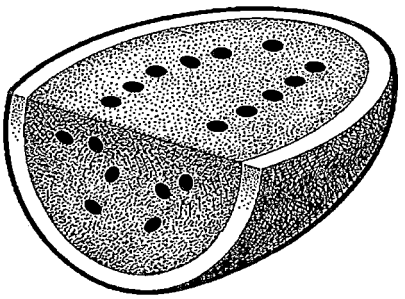
pear



pineapple



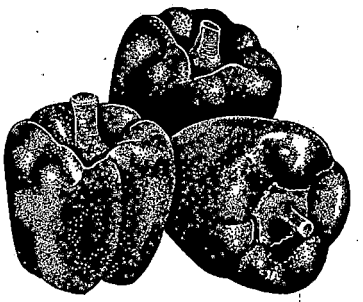
strawberry

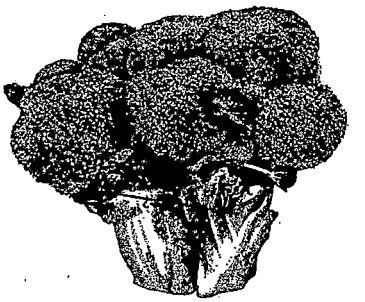


watermelon

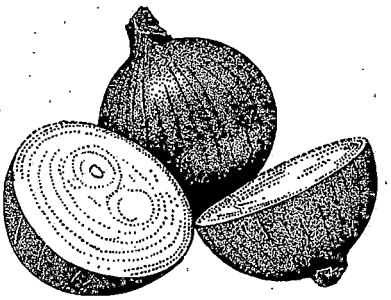
Focus Sheet 1.2
Vegetables

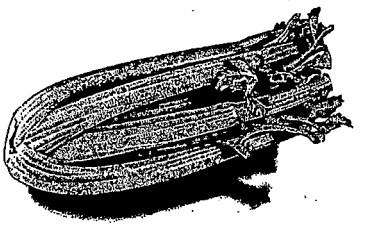
spinach

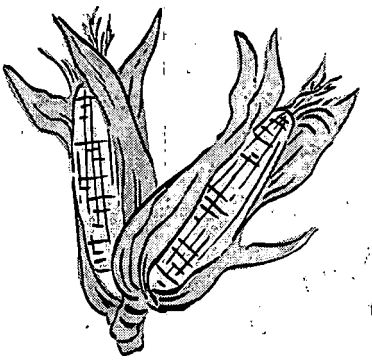

bell pepper


broccoli

carrot


onion


celery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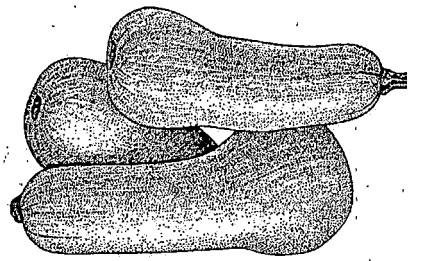
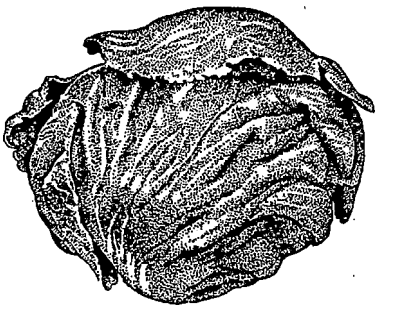
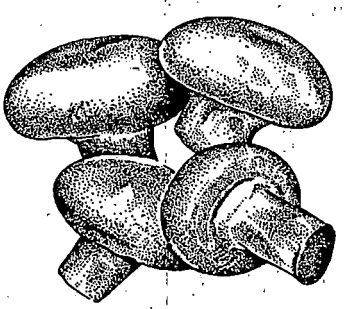
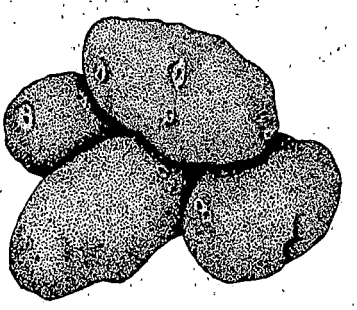
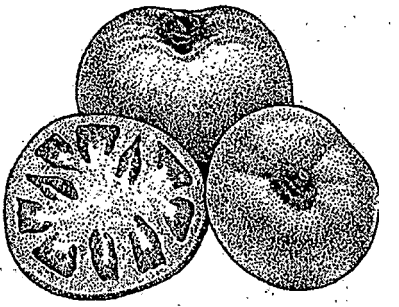

squash


iceberg lettuce


mushroom

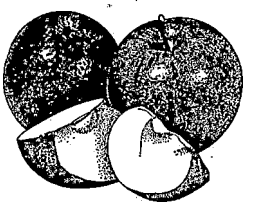

potato

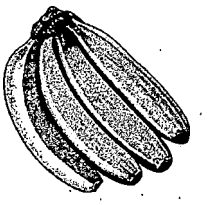

tomato

Focus Sheet 3.1
Serving Sizes

Fruits

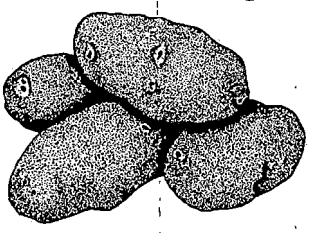
Food	Serving Size
Whole fruit, medium	1 each
Fruit, raw or canned	1/2 cup
Fruit juice	3/4 cup

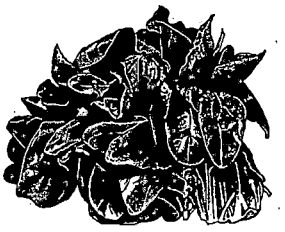




Vegetables

Food	Serving Size
Vegetables, leafy, raw (e.g. spinach)	1 cup
Vegetables, chopped (e.g. onion)	1/2 cup
Vegetables, cooked (e.g. broccoli)	1/2 cup
Vegetable juice (e.g. V8 juice)	3/4 cup





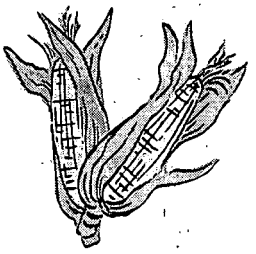
Work Sheet 3.1
24-Hour Diet Recall

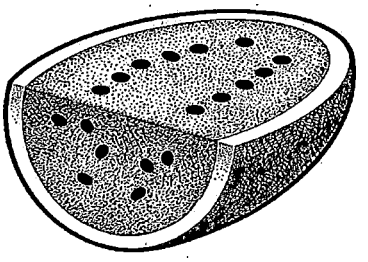
Names of Food	Amount Eaten	Number of Servings
Breakfast		
Lunch		
Dinner		
Snack		
Total		

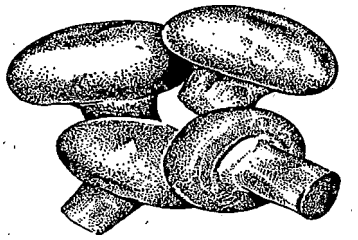
Final Assessment

Fruits and Vegetables

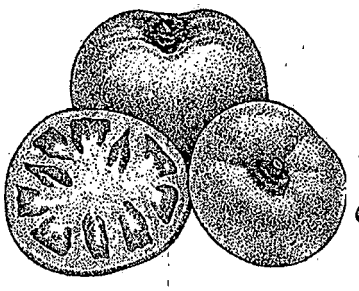
1. Write the names of the fruits and vegetables pictured below.

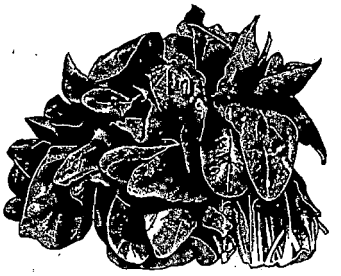


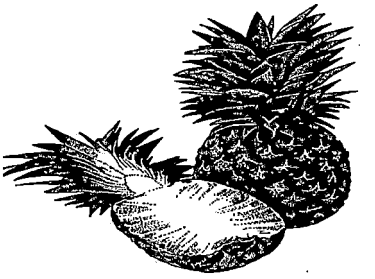




_____ _____ _____

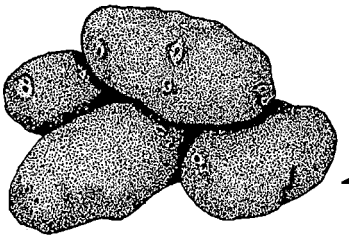


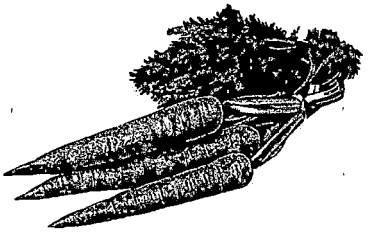


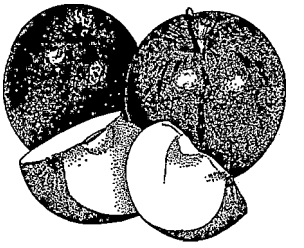


_____ _____ _____

2. Write the color of these fruits and vegetables.







_____ _____ _____

3. Write the number of recommended servings per day.

Fruits _____ servings

Vegetables _____ servings

Teaching Aid

Colors of Fruits and Vegetables

Each bag should contain food models of following fruits and vegetables.

tomato - red

banana - yellow

orange - orange

broccoli - green

Russet potato - brown

mushroom - white

Pre-Warm Up Exercise

Objective: Enable students to make a choice by weighing risks that are involved.

Instruction: The teacher divides the students into groups of five or six each. The teacher instructs the group to select a leader who will facilitate the group discussion to include everyone in the group without calling on a specific person. The teacher provides a prompt to each group. The group talks about any vocabulary words that one or more members of the group do not understand. Then the actual discussion of the prompt begins. Allow 10 to 15 minutes for the activity.

Prompt: Each prompt will address one or more of the corners of the diagram below.

Prompt #3

"Holidays are About Food"

The United States has many holidays. On Easter, Americans usually eat ham. On Independence Day, people usually have a barbeque. And on Thanksgiving, Americans eat turkey, yam, and pumpkin pie. In your home country, what holidays do you celebrate with food? With what food do you celebrate them?

Instructional Plan Three: Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group

Level: Adult, Beginning

Objectives:
1. State names of food in the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group and their importance in diet.
2. Recognize words ending in -um as nouns.
3. State recommended number of servings of Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group per day and the serving size of each food.
4. Generate solutions for a diet lacking in milk, yogurt, and cheese.

Warm-Up: Review Fruit and Vegetable Group using the Food Guide Pyramid from the previous lesson.

<u>Task Chain 1: Names of the Food in the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group and their Importance</u>

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1.1, Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese to students.
2. The teacher reviews the names of food in the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group.
3. The teacher discusses in three sentences the importance of this food group for health including one sentence each for calcium.

<u>Task Chain 2: Words Ending in -um are Nouns</u>

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2.1, Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives and explains the differences among these parts of speech with an emphasis on nouns.
2. The teacher randomly selects words and asks students to identify them as noun, verb, or adjective. Use available props, pictures, and body language to explain words.
3. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2.2, Nouns and explains that words that end in -um are usually nouns.

<u>Task Chain 3: Recommend Number of Servings per Day and Serving Sizes</u>

1. The teacher discusses recommended number of servings of the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group

using the Food Guide Pyramid from the Warm-Up activity.

2. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.1, Serving Sizes of Food.
3. The teacher displays a transparency copy of Focus Sheet 3.1 and reviews serving sizes of food in the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group, using food models if available.
4. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 3.1, What is a Serving? to students and allows five minutes for the activity.
5. The teacher reviews the answers to Work Sheet 3.1.

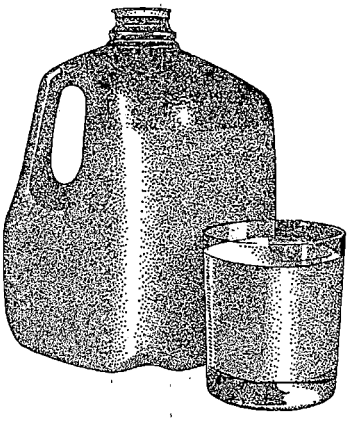
Task Chain 4: Generate Solution for a Diet Lacking in Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese

1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 4.1, 24-Hour Diet Recall and discusses any vocabulary words with which students are unfamiliar.
2. The teacher instructs students to add food from the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group at each meal and snack to provide at least three servings of food from the group, allowing 10-15 minutes for this activity. Students may work in pairs.
3. The teacher reviews answers to Work Sheet 4.1.

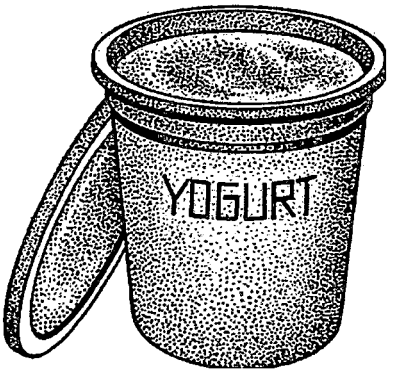
Final Assessment:

The Final Assessment Sheet is used to evaluate students' understanding of the above objectives.

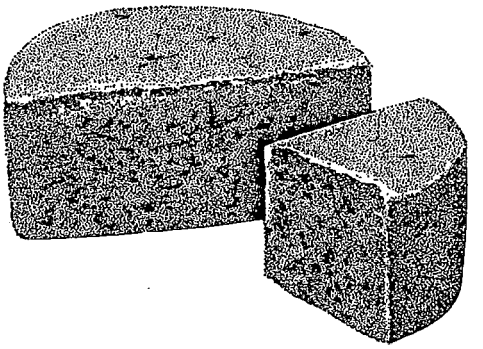
Focus Sheet 1.1
Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese



milk



yogurt



cheese

Focus Sheet 2.1
Noun, Verb, and Adjective

Noun is a person, place, or thing.

baby

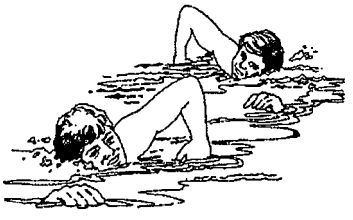
California

pears

Verb is an action word.

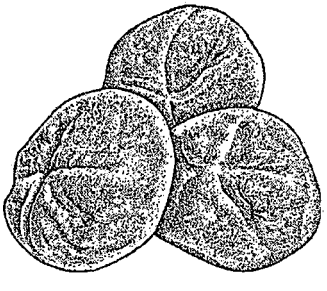
eat

read

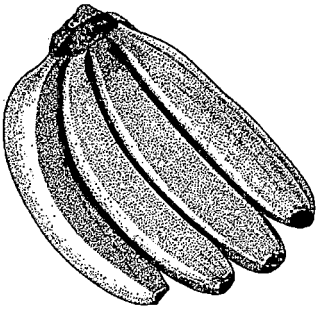


swim

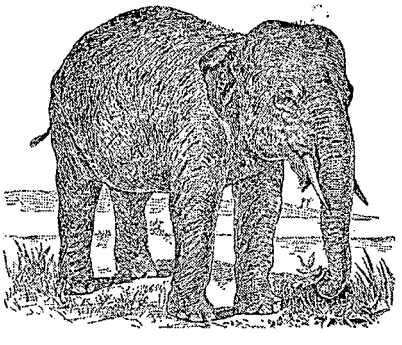
Adjective describes a noun.



soft bread



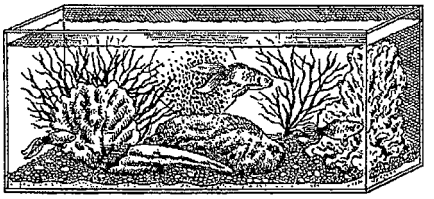
yellow banana



big elephant

Focus Sheet 2.2

Nouns

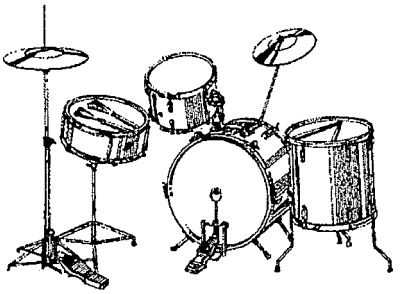


aquarium

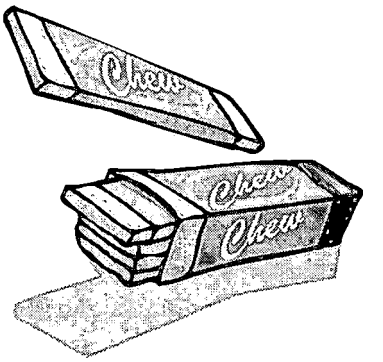
bum

chrysanthemum

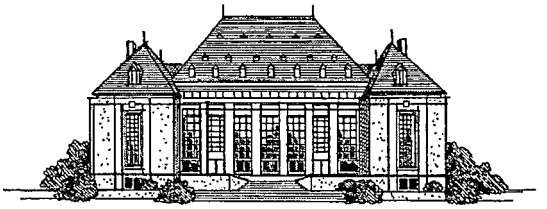
chum



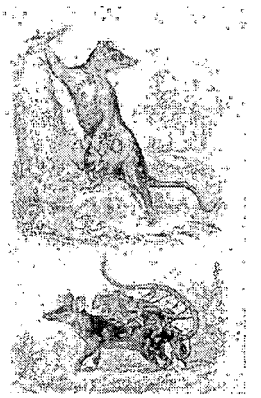
drum



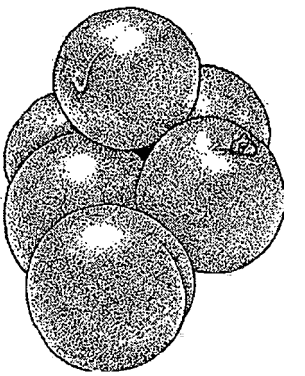
gum



museum



opossum



plum

Focus Sheet 3.1
Serving Sizes

Milk

Food Item	Serving Size
Milk, fluid	1 cup
Goat milk	1 cup
Rice milk	1 cup
Soy milk	1 cup
Evaporated milk	1/2 cup
Dry milk	1/3 cup

Yogurt & Ice Cream

Food Item	Serving Size
Yogurt	1 cup
Frozen yogurt	1 cup
Ice cream	1-1/2 cup

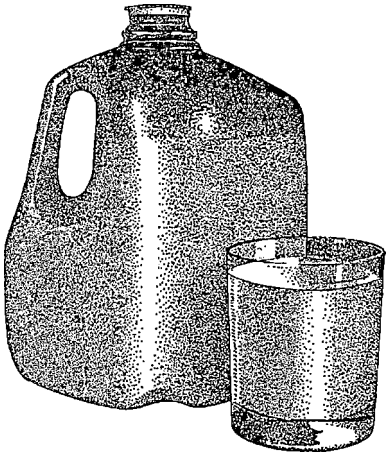
Cheese

Food Item	Serving Size
Cottage cheese	2 cups
Mozzarella & ricotta cheese	1/2 cup
Other cheese	1-1/2 to 2 oz

Note: There are many dairy foods that are not included in the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group, because they are not good sources of calcium. They include cream cheese, Parmesan cheese, cheese spread, sour cream, half and half, whipped cream, and butter cream.

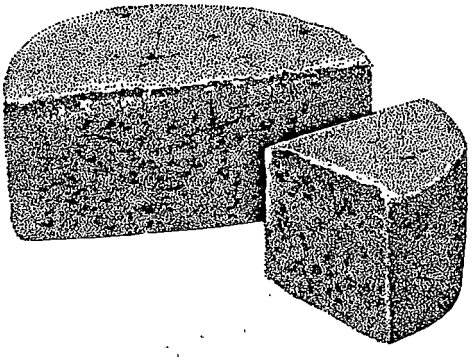
Work Sheet 3.1
What is a Serving?

Write the serving size for each food.



milk, fluid _____ cup

yogurt _____ cup



cheese _____ oz

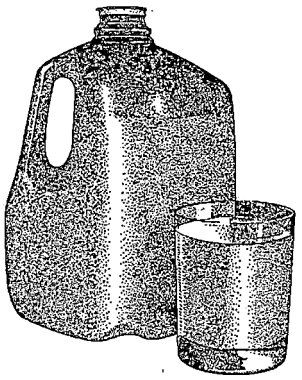
Work Sheet 4.1
24-hour Diet Recall

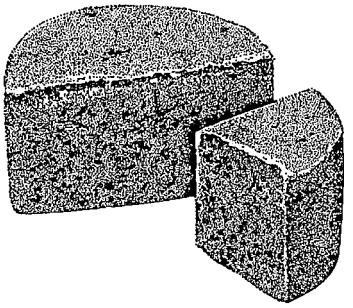
The diet recall below lacks foods from the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese group. Write in additional foods at each meal and snack to provide at least three servings of foods from the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group.

Names of Food	Amount Eaten
Breakfast	
Toast	2 slices
Margarine	2 spoonfuls
Coffee with cream	1 cup
Lunch	
Hamburger	1 each
French fries	Handful
Coke	20 oz
Dinner	
Rice	1 cup
Chicken	4 oz
Broccoli	1/2 cup
Iced tea	16 oz
Snack	
Cookies	10 each
Ice cream	1 cup

Final Assessment

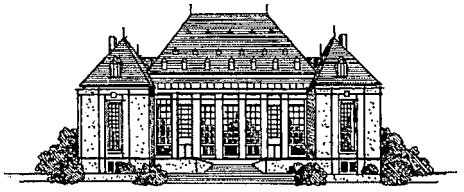
1. Write the names of each food.



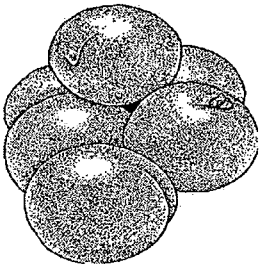


a._____ b. _____ c._____

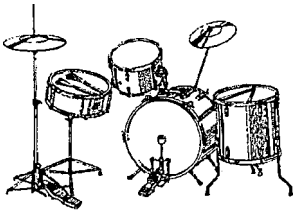
2. Write noun, verb, or adjective in the blank.



museum



plum



drum

_____ _____ _____

3. Below is a sample lunch. What can you add or change to increase foods from the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese group?

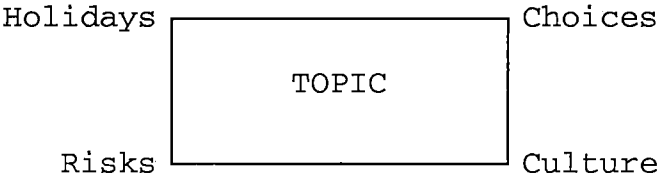
1	turkey sandwich (2 slices of bread, turkey, lettuce, tomato, and mayonnaise)
1 bag	potato chips
1 cup	fruit juice

Pre-Warm Up Exercise

Objective: Enable students to make a choice by weighing risks that are involved.

Instruction: The teacher divides the students into groups of five or six each. The teacher instructs the group to select a leader who will facilitate the group discussion to include everyone in the group without calling on a specific person. The teacher provides a prompt to each group. The group talks about any vocabulary words that one or more members of the group do not understand. Then the actual discussion of the prompt begins. Allow 10 to 15 minutes for the activity.

Prompt: Each prompt will address one or more of the corners of the diagram below.



Prompt #4

"Umm Ice Cream"

Maria has been receiving NO DAIRY diet for three weeks now. She is on an antibiotic that interacts with calcium from dairy food. It is lunch time, and a food service worker put an ice cream cup on her diet tray by mistake. Maria loves to eat ice cream but she knows that she is not supposed to eat dairy food as long as she receives the red diet tray. Should Maria tell the food service worker that she is not supposed to have ice cream or just take it and eat it?

Instructional Plan Four: Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts (MPFDBE&N) Group

Level: Adults, Beginning

Objectives:
1. Recognize names of food in the MPFDBE&N Group.
2. Use verbs, in present tense, associated with cooking foods in MPFDBE&N.
3. State the recommended number of servings per day.

Warm-Up: Review the Milk, Yogurt, and Cheese Group using the Food Guide Pyramid (FGP) from the previous lesson.

Task Chain 1: Names of Food in the Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts Group

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 1.1, Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts Group.
2. The teacher reads each name of food aloud, and the students repeat aloud.
3. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 1.1, Match the Pictures with the Words, allowing five minutes for the students to complete the exercise.
4. The teacher reviews the answers to Work Sheet 1.1.

Task Chain 2: Verbs Associated with Foods in MPFDBE&N

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 2.1, Cook the Food.
2. The teacher explains each vocabulary in Focus Sheet 2.1, Cook the Food.
3. The teacher explains that words in Focus Sheet 2.1, Cook the Food are verbs (action words). Refer to Instructional Plan 3, Task Chain 2, Focus Sheet 2.1, Nouns, Verbs, and Adjectives if necessary.
4. The teacher asks students to think back to what they ate for dinner last night identify what cooking method(s) was used to prepare their dinner.

Task Chain3: Recommended Number of Serving per Day of the Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, and Nuts Group

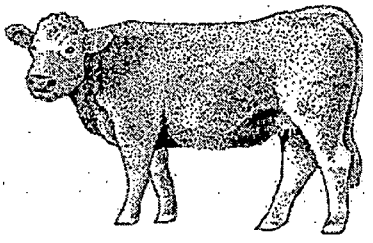
1. The teacher uses FGP from the Warm-Up activity and discusses the recommended number of servings per day.
2. Using Focus Sheet 3.1, Serving Size, the teacher explains to students what one serving size is for each food, using available food models to show their actual size.
3. The teacher explains briefly the importance of protein in the diet.

Final Assessment:

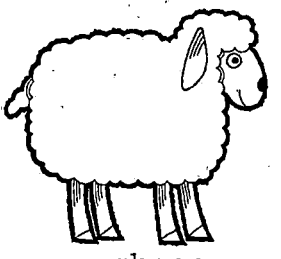
The teacher divides the class into groups of three and instructs each group to choose one food from MPFDBE&N and prepare an oral presentation on preparing their favorite dish. Students need to use proper vocabulary, cooking methods, and encourage use of food from Instructional Plans one to three. The teacher allows 10-15 minutes for preparation of oral presentations.

Focus Sheet 1.1

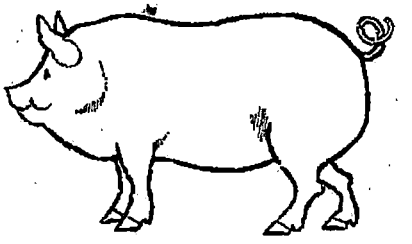
Meat, Poultry, Fish, Dry Beans, Eggs, & Nuts



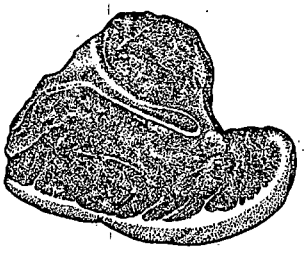
cow



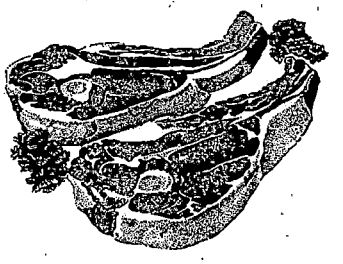
sheep



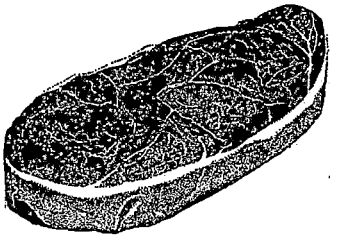
pig



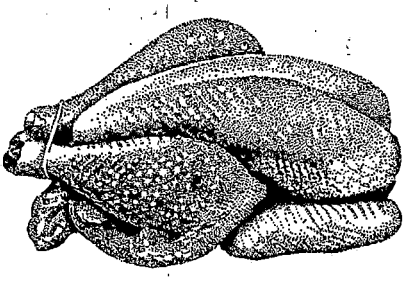
beef



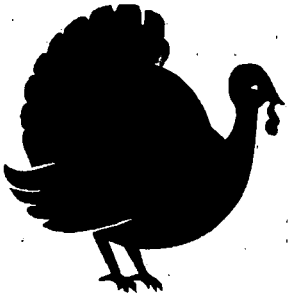
lamb



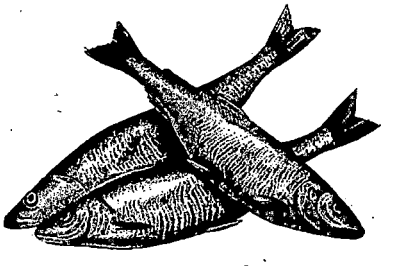
pork



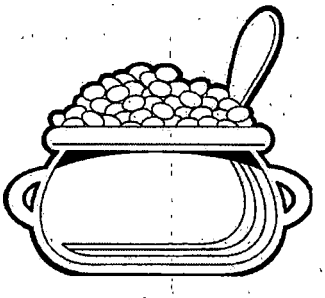
chicken



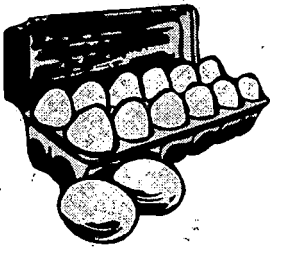
turkey



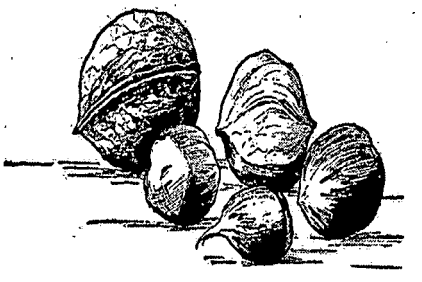
fish



beans

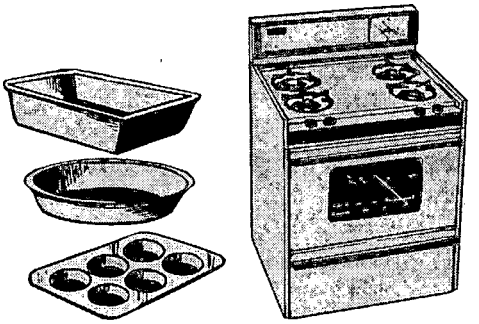


egg

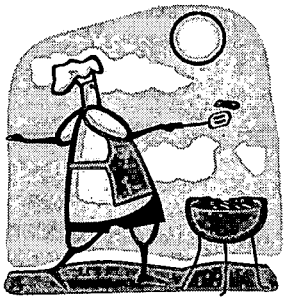


nuts

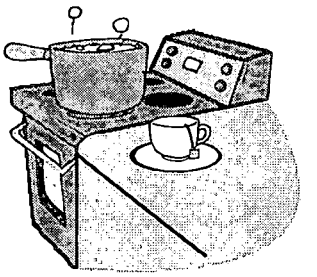
Focus Sheet 2.1
Cook the Food



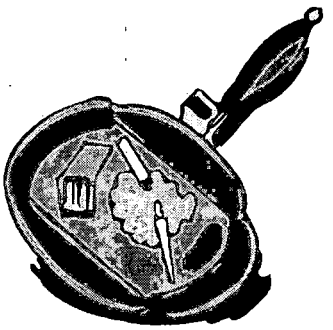
bake



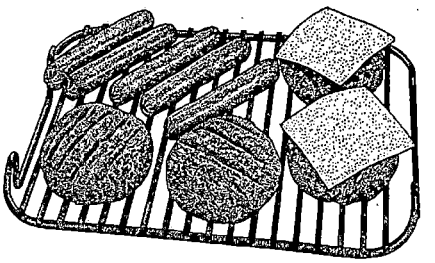
barbeque



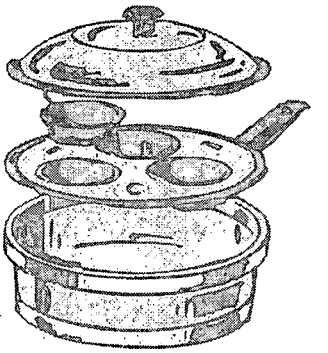
boil



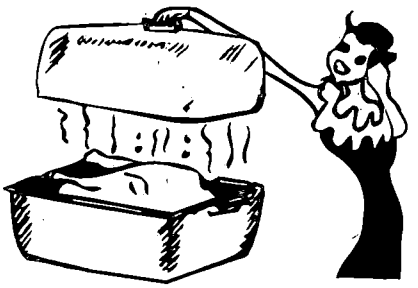
fry



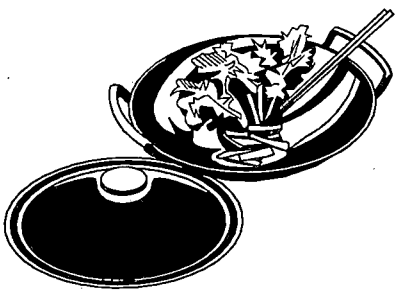
grill



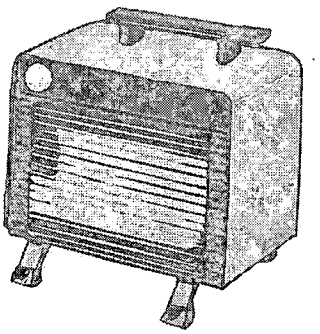
poach



roast

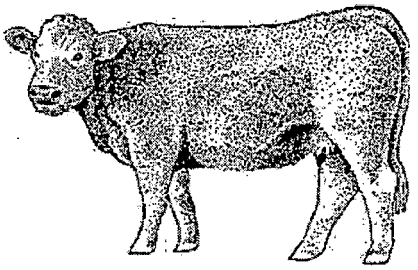


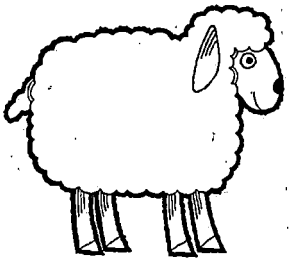
stir-fry

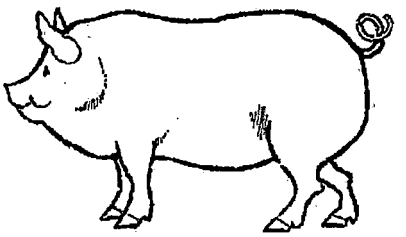


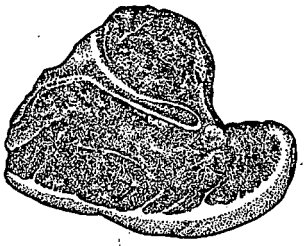
toast

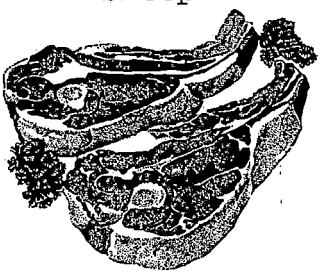
Focus Sheet 3.1
Serving Sizes

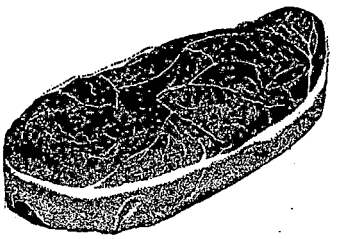

cow

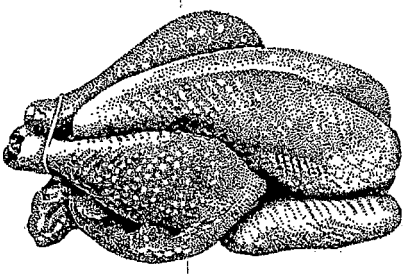

sheep

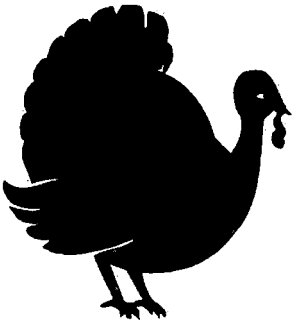

pig

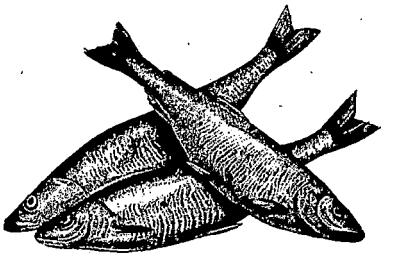

2-3 oz cooked

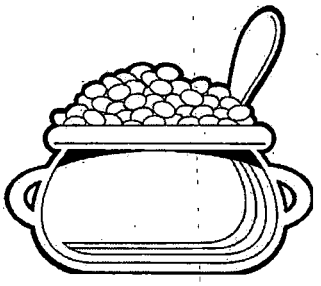

2-3 oz cooked

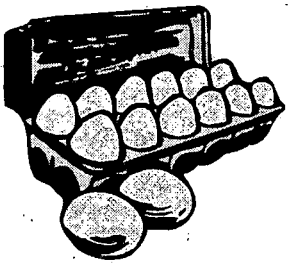

2-3 oz cooked

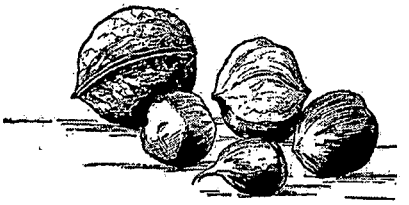

2-3 oz cooked


2-3 oz cooked


2-3 oz cooked


1 cup cooked

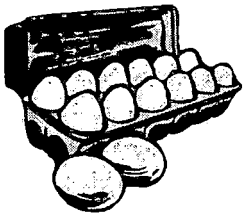

3 each


1 cup

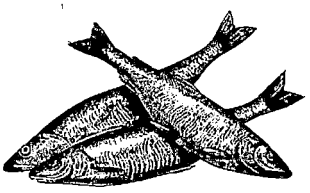
Work Sheet 1.1

Match the Pictures to the Words

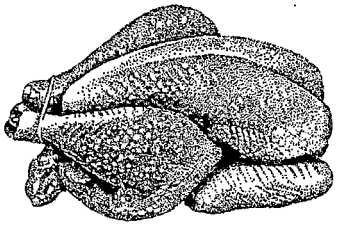
Draw a line matching each picture with correct vocabulary word.



nuts

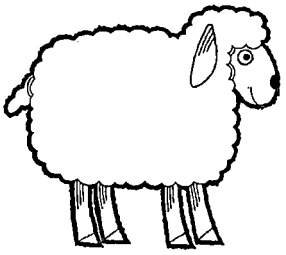


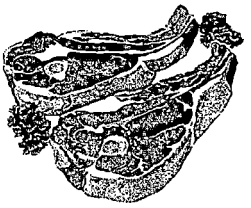
lamb



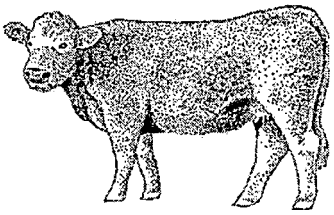
egg

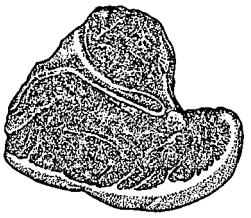
fish





beef





chicken

Final Assessment

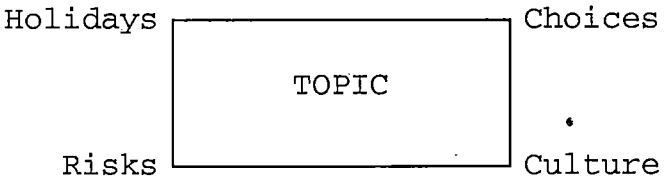
The teacher divides the class into groups of three and instructs each group to choose one food from MPFDBE&N and prepare an oral presentation on preparing their favorite dish. Students need to use proper vocabulary, cooking methods, and encourage uses of food from Instructional Plans One through Four. The teacher allows 10-15 minutes for preparation of the oral presentation.

Pre-Warm Up Exercise

Objective: Enable students to make a choice by weighing risks that are involved.

Instruction: The teacher divides the students into groups of five or six each. The teacher instructs the group to select a leader who will facilitate the group discussion to include everyone in the group without calling on a specific person. The teacher provides a prompt to each group. The group talks about any vocabulary words that one or more members of the group do not understand. Then the actual discussion of the prompt begins. Allow 10 to 15 minutes for the activity.

Prompt: Each prompt will address one or more of the corners of the diagram below.



Prompt #5

"Only One Cigarette"

David quit smoking two weeks ago. The doctor and the dietitian said his blood pressure was very high and that smoking is bad for high blood pressure. But today, David has a hard time not smoking. Today the cigarette smells very good. David's roommate Bob offers a cigarette. If you are David, what will you do?

Instructional Plan Five: Fats, Oils, and Sweets

Level: Adult, Beginning

Objectives:
1. Name foods in the Fats, Oils, and Sweets Group.
2. Identify the risks associated with over-consumption of foods in the Fats, Oils, and Sweets Group.
3. Recognize words ending in -ly as adverbs.

Warm Up: Review each block of the Food Guide Pyramid using the Food Guide Pyramid from previous lessons.

<u>Task Chain 1: Names of Food in the Fats, Oils, and Sweets Group</u>

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheets 1.1 and 1.2, Fats, Oils, and Sweets.
2. The teacher reviews each food by saying the names aloud, as students repeat after the teacher.
3. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 1.1, What's in Fats, Oils, and Sweets? Five minutes is allowed for this exercise.
4. The teacher reviews the answers to Work Sheet 1.1 with the class.

<u>Task Chain 2: Risks of Over Consumption of Fats, Oils, and Sweets</u>

1. The teacher writes the word "sparingly" on the board and asks students to define the word, and write these definitions on the board. Students are allowed to use their native language dictionary, if available, to look up the word. Make certain that all students understand this word.
2. The teacher discusses the risks of over-consumption of fat and sugar.
3. The teacher distributes Work Sheet 2.1 and 2.2, Where are the Fat and the Sugar? Allow ten minutes for this activity. Students may work in pairs.
4. The teacher reviews the answers.

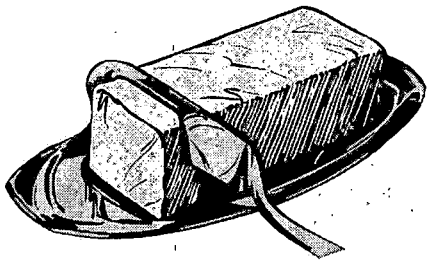
Task Chain 3: Words with -ly ending are Adverbs

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.1, Adverbs and explains what adverbs are.
2. The teacher explains each phrase on Focus Sheet 3.1, Adverbs, how adverbs in bold describe the verbs.
3. The teacher pairs the students and instructs each pair to come up with one phrase of verb and adverb. Each pair acts out the phrase. The teacher encourages creativity.

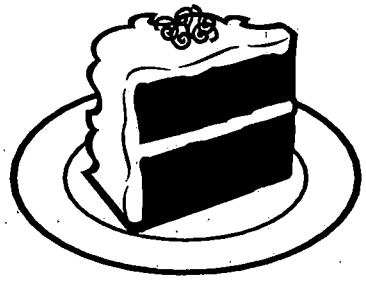
Final Assessment:

The teacher uses the Final Assessment sheet to assess students' understanding of the above task chains.

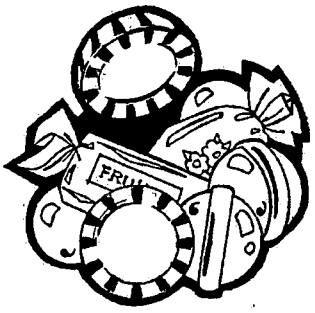
Focus Sheet 1.1
Fats, Oils, and Sweets



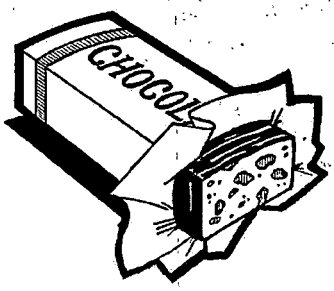
butter



cake



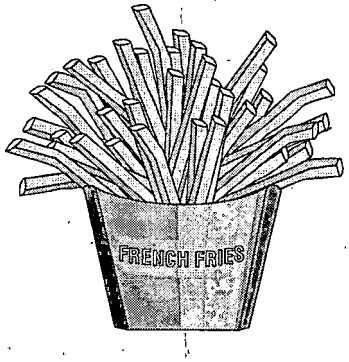
candy



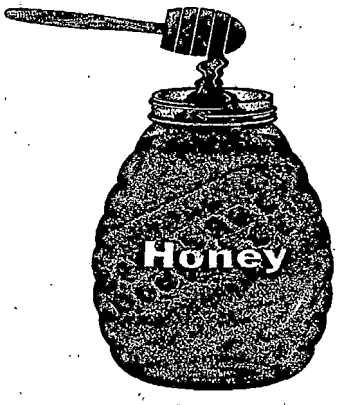
chocolate bar

cookies

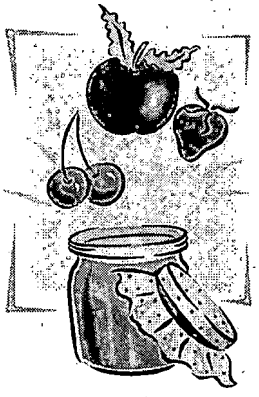
cupcakes



french fries



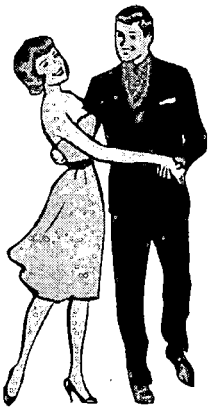
honey



jam

Focus Sheet 3.1
Adverbs

cry **sadly**



dance **gracefully**

drive **carefully**

read **quietly**

ride **joyfully**

shout **loudly**

sleep **soundly**

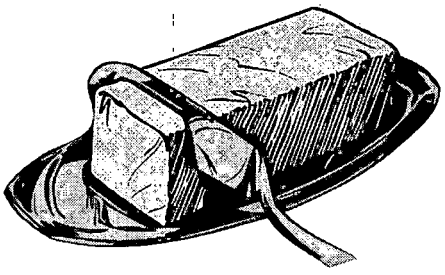
smile **happily**

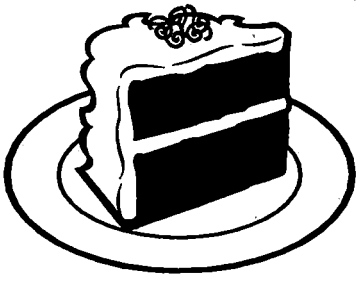
surf **dangerously**

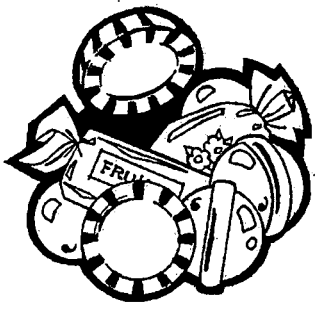
Work Sheet 1.1

Fats, Oils, and Sweets

Write names for each food below.







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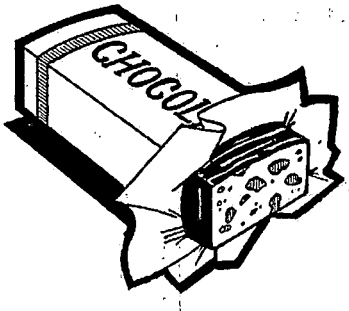
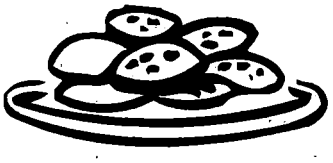
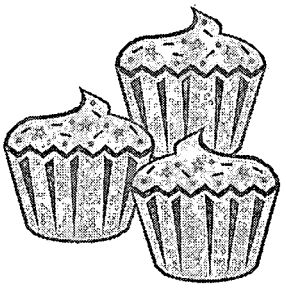
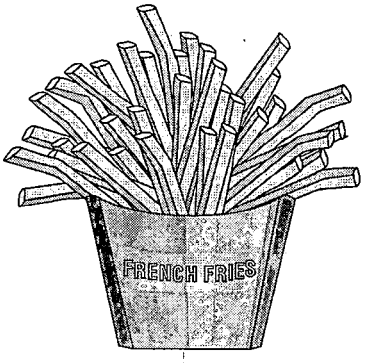
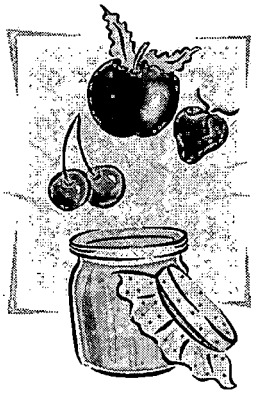






_____ _____ _____



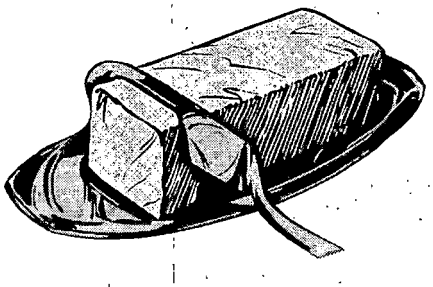


_____ _____ _____

Work Sheet 2.1

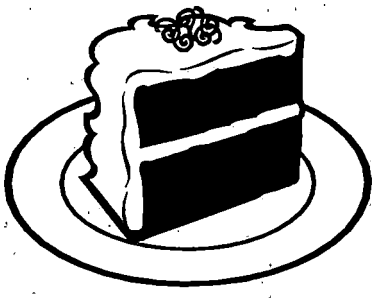
Where are the Fat and the Sugar?

Write **FAT** for high fat food, **SUGAR** for high sugar food.



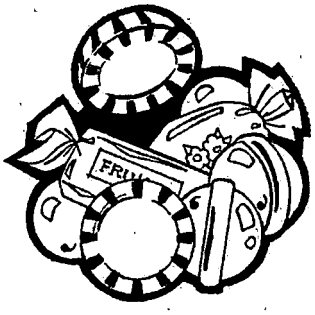
butter

_____



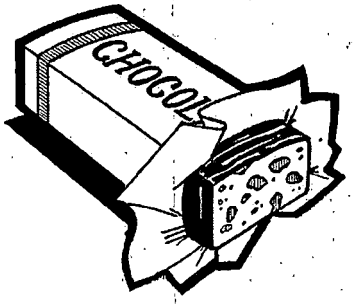
cake

_____



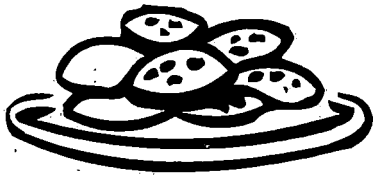
candy

_____



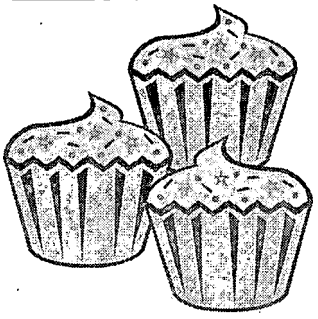
chocolate bar

_____



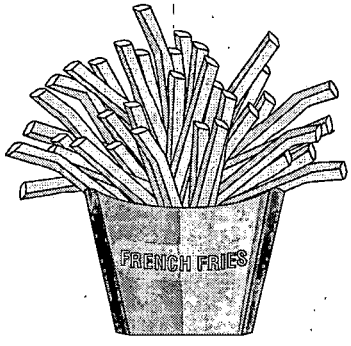
cookies

_____



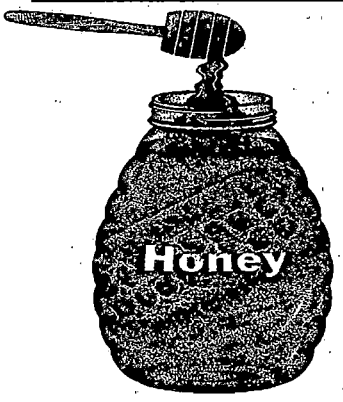
cupcakes

_____



french fries

_____



honey

_____

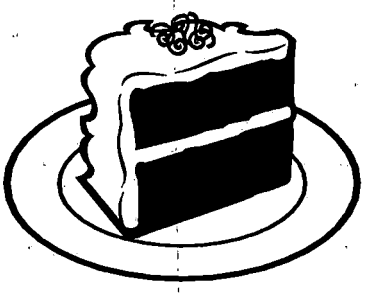
jam

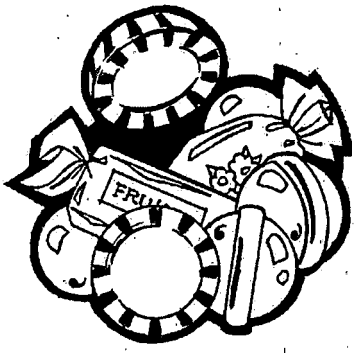
_____

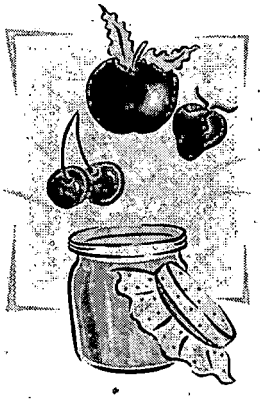
Final Assessment

1. Write the name of the food for each food.

2. Write FAT for high fat food, SUGAR for high sugar food, and FAT and SUGAR for foods that are high in both fat and sugar.

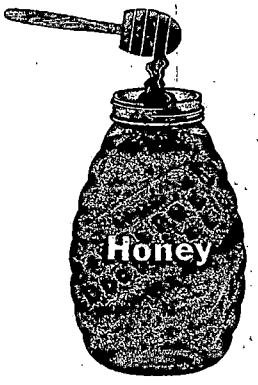


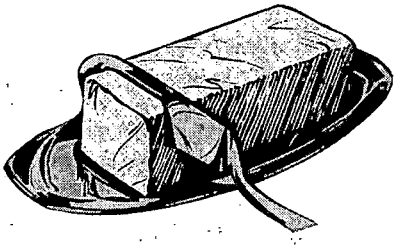




1._____ _____ _____

2._____ _____ _____





1._____ _____ _____

2._____ _____ _____

3. Write the recommended serving per day of Fats, Oils, and Sweets.

4. Write three risks of eating too much fat and/or sugar.

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