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DEVELOPING METAPHORIC COMPETENCE THROUGH SCHEMATA-
BUILDING FOR ENGLISH LEARNERS IN JAPAN

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

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Kyoko Suda
June 2004

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Approved by:



Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader



Dr. Thom Gehring, Second Reader

April 27, 2004

Date

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ABSTRACT

In Japan, there is little attention to teaching knowledge of vocabulary and metaphorical concepts even though students often face difficulties and acquire assistance in acquiring this knowledge. Japanese students who are learning English spend much time in rote learning, preparing for competitive entrance examinations; to communicate in English, they need more strategies. Therefore, strategic learning is a major key to overcoming current pedagogical drawbacks in teaching and learning vocabulary and metaphorical concepts in Japan.

The purpose of this project is to propose teaching methods that facilitate the development of vocabulary knowledge and metaphorical concepts for students in Japan. This project reviews research literature on schema theory, vocabulary acquisition, metaphor, metaphorical competence, and reading and writing relationships, and combines these concepts into a theoretical model. This model, in turn, is used in a sample curriculum. Therefore, teachers can gain a clear idea how they can provide students with alternative strategies which will meet individual student's needs.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

Background of The Project

Many Japanese take English education very seriously. All secondary students take English courses, and the curricula of many universities include required English courses. Why are so many Japanese eager to pursue English education? Because it is supported by a widespread myth in Japanese society: most Japanese believe that people who have high English proficiency can obtain better career advancement or gain social advantages compared to people who do not. Many foreign and Japanese companies require high English proficiency of their employees. In addition, studying abroad, especially in the U.S., is very popular in Japan, and the experience is a common way to improve English proficiency and gain further education.

Although many Japanese acknowledge the importance of English proficiency, they may lack the knowledge of how to acquire it. Most Japanese think that people who have graduated from high-level universities have good English proficiency. Actually, this is not always true because those students may be able to answer questions about English grammar and usage, but lack communicative

competence. In fact, the average Japanese TOEFL score is very low compared with other Asian countries, and many Japanese lack English proficiency for daily use. This is the biggest problem with English education in Japan. An English education curriculum mandated by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology has a host of problems that need to be considered.

The History of English Education in Japan

According to Umemoto (2002), English was first taught in Japan in the early 1800s. At that time, few Japanese could speak English. The Tokugawa government realized English education was important because it noticed that Japan was far behind Western countries, especially those in which English was spoken. The government acknowledged that to introduce Western culture and to catch up with Western technology was necessary for Japan's future. Since that period, English has been taught to a small number of people in order to train English specialists. Until World War II, native speakers of English taught listening and speaking skills as well as reading and writing skills in Japan.

As mentioned above, Japan has a long history of English education, but methods of English education changed after World War II, with more emphasis on meaning

and grammar instead of pronunciation or listening. A focus on correct grammar as well as meaning is still common in Japan today. However, syntax and word meaning are essential components of English acquisition for students who are learning English as a foreign language. If Japanese people do not know the grammatical structures and meanings of English words, they will not be able to express themselves in English. Therefore, it can be said that syntactic and vocabulary knowledge help Japanese students to build a fundamental understanding of English.

Current English Education in Japan

Because the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology does not require English education in public elementary schools, most Japanese students start studying English when they enter the first year of junior high school at age twelve. At this time, students mainly study English in order to enter a high school, so many students attend cram sessions ("jyuku") in addition to studying English in public schools. In the Tokyo area, 75% of the junior high students attend a *jyuku*. As a result, many students make an effort to memorize and learn about English grammar for the purpose of scoring well on examinations for high school, rather than to use English as a communication tool. Moreover, many students lose

their interest in English, and it gradually becomes their least favorite subject even though they recognize the importance of English proficiency in their future careers.

In high schools in Japan, the situation of English education is no different from that of junior high schools; the curriculum is still controlled by the guidelines of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. At this time, students expect their English teachers to teach them how to translate English into Japanese as well as Japanese into English because they need these skills to score well on the university entrance examinations.

Communication with foreign people is a low priority. Therefore, English teachers are required to teach correct translation and to explain difficult grammar points. Most Japanese university entrance examinations do not require performance in English, but they do require considerable knowledge about English, which sometimes makes even English native speakers confused.

The Need for English Education

Though many Japanese people think that high English proficiency is important in their career, they do not need to use it in their daily lives because Japanese language and culture are highly homogeneous. Almost all Japanese

people are monolingual in Japanese, so English proficiency is seldom required in daily communication. This is why many Japanese students want to go to foreign countries where English is spoken to study English and other subjects.

For example, in the situation of international business, which is important for the Japanese economy, few people really need to have a high-level English proficiency. Therefore, they prefer to study that kind of English at academic institutions in foreign countries, such as in master of business administration (MBA) and teaching English for speakers of other languages (TESOL) programs.

Target Level of My Teaching Career

This project is targeted toward teaching at a private junior high or high school because their curricula are not influenced by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology as much as that of public schools. Because most private junior high schools are attached to companion high schools, they can have special English courses. This situation provides good opportunities for teaching and learning English because Japanese English teachers at this level can plan more

flexible curricula for six years as a whole without being concerned about high school entrance examinations.

Throughout these six years, teachers will be able to give students the opportunity to acquire English skills for everyday use from the beginning by increasing their motivation for English. Gradually students can acquire English skills that can be used in more academic areas, which can help them later to study abroad. This plan helps students acquire fundamental English proficiency, based on daily use of English.

Purpose of the Project

This project discusses a range of theories to address these problems and demonstrates how English teachers in Japan can modify the grammar-translation method and offer meaningful lessons for junior high and high school students. The cognitive linguistic research used for the project is based on theories of schema building, which is how people acquire language as they develop their cognitive systems. It helps students fill in the gaps between Japanese and English as well as expand their knowledge of the world. The method of teaching reading and writing together will be discussed in the Chapter Two literature review.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five chapters. Chapter One offers background information about English education in Japan and the purpose of the project. A review of literature relevant for the study is presented in Chapter Two. Chapter Three discusses the significance of literacy skills in junior high and high school for intermediate-proficiency students, and proposes a theoretical framework based on the literature review. Chapter Four explains the curriculum design based on the framework in Chapter Three. Finally, Chapter Five explains how the lessons should be in assessed this project.

Significance of the Project

This project synthesizes theoretical concepts and suggests a curriculum for effective English teaching to students in Japan. It addresses the challenge of current English education in Japan and offers Japanese junior high and high school teachers creative ideas for teaching English to their students. This project is also applicable to English teachers who are teaching English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) students whose English level is intermediate. It provides practical lesson plans based

on current theory and on strategies that are used in Japanese English education.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Schema Theory

To be successful in second-language acquisition (SLA), second-language (L2) learners need to develop their four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) in order to acquire communicative skills. For example, many people use e-mail as one of their daily tools for communication. Therefore, when second-language learners correspond with target-language speakers, the learners need to understand and respond to e-mail in the target language. In successful language exchange, schema theory plays an important role because schematic knowledge coded as linguistic knowledge is an essential component of verbal communication (Cook, 1997). Schema theory can explain second-language learners' comprehension of L2 contexts, and presents the kind of background knowledge that learners need. Therefore, the next sections discuss the definition of schemata, the schematic processes connected to comprehension processes, and pedagogical implications for language teaching.

Definition of Schema

Schema theory was introduced by Bartlett (1932). He proposed that people's knowledge of the world is organized into interrelated patterns which are based on their prior experiences. As to reading comprehension, Bartlett's study indicated that when people were asked to recall a reading passage, they adjusted the original content to make it correspond more closely to their own ways of looking at the world. In other words, people interpreted new content by fitting it into their own frames of reference. Bartlett (1932) called these schemata.

Bartlett's schema theory has been developed by various researchers, and has become an important component of discourse analysis and applied linguistics (Widdowson, 1983). Recent studies have expanded the pedagogical applications of schema theory as a way of teaching language structures in second-language acquisition. Kitano (1990) said, "Schemata are defined as highly organized, generic knowledge structures with slots or placeholders for each component" (p. 148). Therefore, because schemata help second-language learners to construct hierarchically organized knowledge of the world around them, learners build linguistic structures about the world as the process of restructuring takes place.

A recent study defined a schema as "an abstract knowledge structure. A schema is abstract in the sense that it summarizes what is known about a variety of cases that differ in many particulars" (Anderson & Pearson, 1988, p. 42). A schema is a mental representation of a typical instance that helps people make sense of the world more quickly because they understand new experiences by activating relevant schemata in their minds.

According to this view of a schema, people will be able to understand new information including oral, written, and multimedia through schemata. A commonly used example to explain the function of schemata is the restaurant case (Cook, 1997). In a restaurant, people expect to sit in a chair, order something to eat, and pay for it. This knowledge of the restaurant is organized by a schema, such as what a restaurant should be like, and sub-schemata, such as how people behave. Thus, people can understand discourse in which interlocutors say they went to a restaurant last night without needing to ask them exactly what they did.

Schemata are not only engaged when processing incoming information, but also when information is related retrospectively to established patterns (Widdowson, 1983). Schemata work prospectively, to project anticipation about

what is to come. A schema is a particular pattern of neurological activity which has become established (Widdowson, 1983). In other words, schemata are cognitive constructs or configurations of knowledge which people place over an event so as to bring the event into arrangement with familiar patterns of experience and belief. In fact, in the restaurant case, people know how to behave in a restaurant based on their restaurant schemata. When the interlocutors report something different from the original schemata, such as they sat on the floor and cooked by themselves, people can adjust their understanding accordingly. In this example, the new experience is then processed in terms of its deviation from the stereotypical version (Cook, 1994). People build new schemata and adjust the existing schemata when they need to adapt them to new experiences.

Kinds of Schemata

There are three main types of schemata: formal, content, and abstract (Oller, 1994). "Formal schemata involve a higher degree of determinacy. They are probabilistic. That is, they enable judgments about proportions of some range of facts observed in the past as contrasted with what can be expected in the future" (Oller, 1994, p. 15). In other words, formal schemata

involve typical ordering of facts in a real or functional world that guides people's behaviors and judgments. For example, a hotel lobby may look quite physically different from one hotel to another. Yet, there will be formal similarities that enable an observer to identify various lobbies and distinguish them from restaurants. The similarities of the defined facts, which are judged by inductive reasoning, depend on structures and arrangements that are abstracted from the particular facts of any given context.

Formal schemata mainly depend on inductive reasoning and define particular cases such as how to behave in a restaurant (Oller, 1995). A new experience is understood by comparison with a stereotypical version of a similar experience held in a person's memory. From this viewpoint, Oller (1995) claimed that formal schemata relate what exist or not to what is likely or unlikely. This means that formal schemata can be used to judge proportions of some range of facts which have been observed in the past as contrasted with what can be expected in the future.

Content schemata are less general than formal schemata and concerned with particular arrangements of things and events in the material world as known through

perception. Content schemata are "derived from the individuals' life experiences: checking out library books, purchasing license plates, going to the dentist's office" (Long, 1989, p. 33). Content schemata explain the physical world of visible objects. They are based on definitive judgments about particular facts and states of associations, and they are structural in that they involve complexes of particular things, qualities, events and relationships (Oller, 1994).

As one specialized type of content schemata, Kitano (1989) discussed the event schema, which consists of conventional information about a situation, such as singing in the karaoke bar or swimming in the pool. Using an event schema, people can understand a particular discourse without asking for detailed information like the restaurant case.

According to Oller (1994), content schemata consist of information which is grounded in people's life-time experiences. Therefore, content schemata vary according to sociocultural norms and individual experiences because they help to determine how people make meaning of things, like restaurants. In the restaurant example, the schemata of restaurants, such as whether restaurants are expected to serve alcohol, whether they are routine or special

places to eat, etc., are determined by sociocultural norms or individual experiences. That is, a given context determines which schemata are the most applicable at a given time. Therefore, Lally (1998) wrote, "cultural content may and must be taught" (p. 273). Cultural content needs to be taught throughout tasks such as pre-reading activities, vocabulary work, and brainstorming.

As to abstract schemata, Oller (1996) wrote, "Abstract schemata carry the inductive integration to the completely general level of pure symbols" (p. 286). For example, if restaurants are businesses that aim to make a profit, they must generally charge more for their services than those services cost the owners. If restaurants are merely fronts for money-making, the inductive reasoning will not apply because a given restaurant will be something else and not really just a restaurant.

So far, the general concepts of schema are reviewed. There are three kinds of schema: formal, content, and abstract. Each schema is well-organized information in order to use understanding the material world. Therefore, the information processing is discussed in the next part.

Schematic Information Processing

In Fass and Schumacher's (1981) view of schema organization, schemata are abstract and stereotyped

descriptions of things in the world and events which contain slots for storing important information. Schemata serve as devices for categorizing and arranging information so it can be interpreted and retained. Fass and Schumacher's notion of schema organization, it can be said that schemata organize information hierarchically and categorize it for retrieval.

Additionally, Nassaji (2002) wrote that individual pieces of information cannot exist in people's minds on their own. Rather, the information is integrated into organized and coherent global representations such as schemata. Adamson (1990) wrote that a schema is usually larger than a concept. For example, the conceptual category "furniture" consists of the essential features shared by chairs, stools, couches, and so on. The concept will not contain the feature "no back," because that feature applies only to stools. However, a schema for furniture may consist of more than just the shared features. Thus, it can be said that schemata are a network arrangement which includes all the features of all the different kinds of furniture, and which shared the relationship of chair to couch, chair to stool, and so on. The network is called schematicity (Clausner & Croft, 1997). It shows an interactive relationship among

schemata generalization. People encode or decode information from the network, which is seen as not only facilitating acquisition of new information, but also as structuring the information for encoding and decoding. Therefore, to facilitate activation of second-language learners' schematicity will help the learners to acquire their target language.

Information Decoding Processes. There are three schematic decoding processes: top-down, bottom-up and interactive process (Bernette, 1989). The bottom-up process includes discrimination of sounds and letters, recognition of word order and structure, and translation of individual words (Lally, 1998). Because the bottom-up process is an inductive process, it is based on both formal and abstract schemata. For example, when people encounter the word "pager" in the medical discourse, they are able to imagine a network of related ideas. The pager is associated with phrases, such as "a pocket on clothes," "a white coat," "a doctor," "a hospital," and so on. People retrieve the medical schemata from a specific entry to general entries by making single schema interact in schematicity.

The top-down process is focused on what people bring to the contexts in terms of world knowledge (Lally, 1998).

Because this process is deductive, it is partly based on the content schemata. For example, when people encounter the word "Thanksgiving Day" in the meal context, other ideas will be imagined, such as "special occasion," "gathering people," "eating food," "eating turkey," and so on. People retrieve the meal schemata from a general entry "Thanksgiving Day" to a specific entry "eating utensils" in schematicity.

The interactive process combines strengths of both the top-down and the bottom-up processes (Bertbette, 1989). The whole process of comprehension of contexts requires the top-down process in order to make sense of incoming information and to fill in where the bottom-up information is incomplete or distorted (Jannuzi, 1997). As a consequence of this relationship between the top-down and bottom-up process, comprehension of contexts processes is considered to consist of both the top-down and the bottom-up processes. The interactive process holds that people process information in both the top-down and the bottom-up processes simultaneously.

Information Encoding Processes. In the processes of encoding information, decoding plays important role. According to Fass and Schumacher (1981) the interpretation and storage of information in people's mind is guided by

the schematic-decoding processes. The decoded schemata guide peoples' reconstruction of new information. Fass and Schumacher (1981) noted that people are able to encode schemata effectively when other schemata, which had been decoded, are contextually similar to the encoded schemata. That is, the organization of the encoded schemata are based on the original schemata, and the role of the original schemata is providing adequate cues to the schematic encoding processes to interpret new information and establish its new schemata successfully.

The Role of Schema in Comprehension

The processes of decoding and encoding mentioned above are well researched in L2 reading and listening comprehension. In early theories of reading and listening comprehension, those two skills were considered to be passive, bottom-up activities (Lally, 1998). Reading and listening were only decoding processes in which readers and listeners reconstructed meanings from the smallest textual units. However, Goodman (1970) proposed that reading and listening are interactive processes between texts and readers or listeners, rather than only a decoding process.

Reading and listening comprehension have been conceptualized as constructive processes in which people

use strategies and procedures which depend on their background knowledge, strategy use, and contexts (Gonzales & Yawkey, 1994). Reading and listening comprehension are considered cognitive activities that are related to people's varied background knowledge. Reading and listening comprehension involve the processes of predicting, sampling and revising (Hauptman, 2000). These processes are also found in schema retrieving. Therefore, it can be said that schematic information processing plays significant role in people's comprehension of language, so that second-language learners need to facilitate their schema retrieving processes in order for successful second language acquisition to occur.

Implications of Schema Theory

Cullen (1996) suggested that L2 schema-building tasks help second-language learners to consolidate previously acquired language during the acquisition of new linguistic knowledge and to facilitate schema-retrieving processes which encourage the classification of linguistic knowledge. Building L2 schema in context-based language learning facilitates second-language learners' acquisitions of skills in describing and discussing in the target language.

Moreover, schema-building tasks facilitate the learners' processes of retrieving information from texts in semantic contexts, including the input of new information. Cullen (1996) concluded that schema-building tasks facilitate the learning of grammar and vocabulary in the target language. Thus, schema theoretic approaches to L2 learning are beneficial for second-language learners.

In addition, metacognitive learning strategies facilitate second-language learners' schema-building (Williamson, 1996). Abha (2000) wrote in her experience as a tutor, "when we build on students' metacognitive knowledge of language and reading (i.e. what children already know about language), our teaching becomes more effective" (p. 370). In other words, when teachers engage second-language learners in metacognitive processing, the learners become productive learners who are more capable of assuming responsibility for their own learning.

Metacognition while reading texts is usually understood to consist of two types of cognition: people's knowledge of strategies for learning from texts, and the control readers have of their own actions while reading for different purposes (Carrell, Pheis, & Liberto, 1989). Metacognitive learning strategy in reading comprehension is defined as the ability of readers to use elaborate

strategies to solve problems as they monitor their own reading processes. At the same time, readers need to recognize their reading comprehension objectively (Block, 1992). Carrell, Pheis, & Liberto (1989) stated the following: "metacognitive control, in which the reader consciously directs the reasoning process, is a particularly important aspect of strategic reading" (p. 650). When readers can read a text strategically, they can access and apply schematic information from their previous reading experiences of other texts. Thus, metacognitive learning strategy is helpful to decode and encode second-language learners' schematic information. Also, their metacognitive awareness of learning styles will help to improve their language skills.

From the viewpoint of metacognitive learning strategy in schema-building tasks, writing tasks should be combined with reading tasks. For this purpose, teachers should pose appropriate questions related to texts and encourage second-language learners to think about the questions (Williamson, 1996). If second-language learners are the intermediate level of acquisition, teachers should guide the learners to write their own questions about texts. These activities are part of schema-building tasks because second-language learners

will try to comprehend texts using their schematic information instead of searching for answers in the texts. Teachers should allow advanced learners to write their own questions based on texts. Furthermore, second-language learners should write their own opinions as answers to the questions. At this time, the learners' schemata will work for both decoding and encoding information.

Summary

This section has discussed the definition of schema theory and associated schematic processes, along with pedagogical implications. Schemata are abstract representations of general concepts for objects, events, or situations in the world. Schemata may exist like a network in people's minds, and help people to encode and decode information representing objects, events, or situations. The processes of matching incoming information to previously acquired knowledge structures consist of three types: top-down, bottom-up, and interactive. These three processes are important for second-language learners to use to improve their listening and reading skills.

Schema-building tasks are one way to facilitate second-language learners' information-retrieving processes. Schemata-building tasks enable second-language

learners to acquire describing and discussing skills, and knowledge of grammar and vocabulary in reading and writing tasks. In addition, metacognitive learning strategies should be added to schemata-building tasks because metacognitive awareness also facilitates second-language learners' schematic processes. Therefore, the following sections introduce vocabulary acquisition, metaphor, metaphoric competence, and reading and writing relationships as components of schema-building tasks.

Vocabulary Acquisition

According to Krashen (1985), students who are studying a second language (L2) usually carry a dictionary with them instead of a grammar book because they think that acquiring vocabulary is more important. However, until recently, vocabulary acquisition had received little attention and had not been a main subject of study in second language acquisition (SLA) research (Meara, 1984; Gass, 1988). As a result, the study of vocabulary acquisition lacked implications for pedagogy compared with other fields of SLA studies such as grammar and phonology (Gass, 1988; Laufer, 1990).

However, during two decades, this situation has changed (Gass, 1988). During this period, many aspects of

vocabulary acquisition were studied by various researchers. Therefore, the importance of vocabulary, aspects of vocabulary knowledge, the processes of vocabulary acquisition, incidental and explicit learning of vocabulary, and implications for vocabulary teaching are discussed in this section.

Importance of Vocabulary

Vocabulary serves important functions in production and comprehension of L2. According to Laufer (1990), knowing a vocabulary word implies knowledge of its full meaning, appropriate situations for its use, how the word combines with other words, and the relationship among words within a lexical set. This means that knowing a vocabulary word involves the ability to supply its written form within an appropriate sentence structure in writing. In reading, knowing a vocabulary word is the recognition of meaning from its written form.

In spoken communication, grammatical errors are generally understandable, whereas lexical errors may interfere with communication (Gass, 1988). In other words, grammatical errors will lead to a situation in which people can still understand what one another are saying, whereas vocabulary errors often lead to a situation in which people misunderstand the entire

communication. For example, in spoken communication, when people do not understand each other, they try to reach understanding by negotiating meaning. However, when people do not recognize the misunderstanding caused by lexical errors, they do not negotiate the situation, so the misunderstanding may remain.

For instance, the following may occur: a student who is learning English in America asks her adviser what "tragedy" she needs to follow for his or her thesis. The adviser may assume that she wants to write about a certain genre of literature, so the adviser may propose a course of action. Then, the student will be confused because this is not what he or she intended to say, and he or she will wonder why the adviser has proposed that course. In this situation, the student wanted to say "strategy" instead of "tragedy." These two words might have become mixed up in the student's mind because of spelling or sound similarity.

Thus, finding the lexical errors is difficult, especially in the context in which errors allow interlocutors to continue their dialogue smoothly. According to Gass and Selinker (2001), speakers of the target language find lexical errors to be more troublesome than grammatical errors. The lexical errors lead to

confusing situation more often than do grammatical errors. Regarding these errors, the grammatical errors tend to decrease according to the degree of the learners' L2 proficiency, whereas the lexical errors do not decrease in proportion to L2 proficiency (Ijaz, 1986). Therefore, second-language learners need to acquire vocabulary as much as possible regardless of their level of L2 proficiency.

Basic Vocabulary Knowledge

According to Laufer and Paribakht (1998), there are different types of vocabulary knowledge: passive and active. Passive knowledge means understanding the meaning of words, and it is normally connected with listening or reading. Active knowledge means producing words according to context, and it is connected with speaking or writing.

Therefore, the meaning of a word should be learned before it is used in actual situations. Schmitt (2000) assumed that second-language learners learn words passively first and later achieve active knowledge. In other words, words which are acquired passively will be a large part of second-language learners' knowledge, but words which are used actively will only be a small part of the learners' knowledge.

However, Laufer and Paribakht (1998) also admitted that the relationship between passive and active knowledge is not clear. This means that framing mastery of vocabulary only in terms of passive and active knowledge is vague. According to this view, Schmitt (2000) wrote, "we also need to consider the various facets of knowing a word" (p. 5). Vocabulary knowledge entails other aspects: Nation (1990) suggested that knowing a word means knowledge of the word's meaning, the written forms, the spoken forms, the grammatical behavior, the collocations, appropriate register use, the associations, and frequency of the word. Most or all of these types of vocabulary knowledge are necessary to be able to use a word in the wide variety of language situations.

Moreover, vocabulary knowledge has two dimensions: breadth and depth (Quian, 2002). Breadth of vocabulary knowledge refers to the size of vocabulary, or the number of words the meaning of which second-language learners have at least some surface knowledge. Depth of vocabulary knowledge relates to how well people know a word, including pronunciation, spelling, meaning, appropriate register use, frequency, morphological, syntactic, and collocation properties. Therefore, it can be said that to acquire vocabulary in the target language means to expand

these two knowledge dimensions in second-language learners' language systems.

According to Schmitt and Meara (1997), these kinds of word knowledge are interrelated and affect each other in fundamental ways. For example, frequency is related to formality, which is part of register, and indicates whether a word is formal or vernacular. The strong level of collocation within idioms has a different meaning from meanings which the word was analyzed separately. Schmitt and Meara (1997) proposed that, even though more studies on these interrelationships are needed, both of these aspects of vocabulary knowledge are useful to explain as scaffolds of vocabulary acquisition related to SLA. Therefore, these aspects of the vocabulary knowledge will be discussed in detail in the following section.

The Knowledge of Word Meaning

The relationship between a word and its referents is considered knowledge of word meaning (Schmitt, 2000). A referent is a person, thing, action, condition, or case, real or imagined. Schmitt (2000) suggested that referents do not always have direct relationships with words. For example, a proper noun has direct referents, but other types of words, such as "love" or "uniform" do not have direct relationships between the word and the referents.

Rather, these types of words relate to people's concepts (Schmitt, 2000). Take, for example, the word "uniform"; there are many kinds of uniforms, and so the single word "uniform" cannot exactly describe each one. People know that "uniform" is a standardized form of dress, but would be quite flexible referentially as to differences in color and insignia. The concept of "uniform" depends on a person's exposure to uniforms of various types. Schmitt concluded that words are usually labels for concepts which themselves encapsulate people's limited personal experience of the actual world reality. In other words, a word's meaning is normally attached to a concept, which consists of people's individual experiences rather than representing a discrete physical entity.

People tend to generalize a word by its semantic features (Aitchison, 1992). Take, for example, the word "bird"; because people have experienced a wide variety of birds, a description of one bird is insufficient to represent for all birds. People need to determine the characteristics that describe the concept of "bird" to generalize the idea of "bird." Aitchison (1992) referred to Lakoff and Johnson's (1987) work that people have prototypes for their concepts. Instead of assuming that concepts are defined by a number of semantic features,

people use their best examples of a concept to compare potential members. The basic examples are called prototypes. In the case of "bird," people usually use a prototype like a robin or common blackbird.

In addition, some meaning attributes are essential to a particular meaning sense, while other meaning senses are less critical and depend on peoples' experiences (Schmitt, 2000). One particular meaning sense is core meaning, the most basic features of a concept, and the kind that dictionaries try to capture in their definitions. Another meaning sense is encyclopedic knowledge, which consists of the additional information people know about a word. For instance, for the word "bachelor," the core meanings define the word as human, male, and unmarried. Encyclopedic knowledge adds other information, such as "often young," "dates women," and "has an exciting lifestyle." From these viewpoints, it can be said that the core meanings are shared by people in the same communities as the common meanings. On the other hand, encyclopedic knowledge is personal to each individual person, depending on that person's experience and personal beliefs in particular societies.

In SLA, when second language learners have acquired the core meaning, they then learn how far the meaning can

be extended from additional exposure to the target word in contexts (Schmitt, 2000). In other words, second-language learners acquire the literal meaning of words before more figurative meanings. Therefore, learners of second language need frequent exposure to a variety of vocabulary words to extend their encyclopedic knowledge.

The Vocabulary Knowledge of Register

Laufer (1990) defined that the vocabulary knowledge of register as a variety of language distinguished according to use. In other words, register describes the stylistic variations that make each word more or less appropriate for certain language situations or language purpose.

Variation divided according to where the language is spoken is called geographical variation (Schmitt, 2000). Schmitt gave an example for this variation. In the example, he wrote that people who live in Idaho call the small storage space on the passenger side of a car "jockey box." However, people who live in Minnesota call the space "glove compartment." When people are exposed to the spoken or written discourse of someone outside of their immediate language community, they will notice these different lexical choices.

The phenomenon of social variation is that people in privileged classes typically have a different lexis from people in less privileged class (Schmitt, 2000). For example, in academic discourse, "we" has traditionally been preferred to "I," even in cases of a single author, in order to avoid sense of subjectivity. In academic discourses, the use of passive voice is preferred to the use of active voice. Moreover, social variation covers the role of power or social relationship between interlocutors, which directly affects the level of formality each uses (Schmitt, 2000). This notion also concerns syntax and word choice. Second-language learners need to be aware that there are register variations in the vocabulary which people use, depending on where they come from and with whom they are communicating.

Vocabulary Knowledge of Word Association

The vocabulary knowledge of word association pertains to the organization of the mental lexicon (Hall, 1992). According to Hall (1992), mental lexicon consists of internal representations of word assemblies which are coded like a thesaurus and serve as the basis for language comprehension and production. In the mental lexicon, a word is described as a set of properties, or features (Laufer, 1990). A word has a complex of forms, meanings

and distributions, so it can be indexed in people's minds. For example, in people's minds, a word "cat" is stored in a category "animal." It is also assembled in a category "noun," or even in a category "furry." When people try to find a word which is related to furry, they need to go through the category "furry" in their mental lexicon quickly and look up all those words which are related to furry. This may lead people to make errors like "coat" or "bear" or even "rabbit" for "cat" because all these items are furry. Therefore, more information is needed when people want to retrieve only "cat" from their mental lexicon. Hatch (1983) defined the mental lexicon as a set of dictionary entries. Each dictionary entry is coded with syntactic, phonological and semantic information, as well as with a way that the information assembled in each category connects with other such information.

In the category of syntax, the mental lexicon is indexed by its syntactic features, such as distinctions among parts of speech (Hatch, 1983). According to Laufer (1990), when people make a lexical error, they do not substitute a verb or an adjective for a noun. Instead they usually substitute a word with the same part of speech. For example, people hardly make errors like "he is angrying," or "you are mistaking." In addition, the

mental lexicon has selectional restrictions for syntactic categories (Hatch, 1983). For instance, the word "weigh" as a verb will be coded to show that it cannot be selected if the focus of the sentence is to be passive. For example, people do not say, "Five pounds was weighed by the sugar." Thus, parts of speech and selectional restrictions are two of the major syntactic organizational categories by which people select and retrieve lexical items.

Semantics. The mental lexicon is also organized by semantic features (Hatch, 1983). This means that words are classified by their semantic classes and groups. For example, "parts of the body" responses are given to the word "hand." An "edible" class includes vegetables and fruits. In addition, the criteria for classification and grouping not only consists of concrete images, such as food, color, birds, and so on, but also consists of conceptual images, such as time and space.

Phonology. Phonological shape constructs the criteria for categorization and systematizing of entries (Laufer, 1990). The metaphor section will discuss this in detail. Hatch (1983) concluded that the mental lexicon is indexed so that words beginning with the same initial consonant sound constitute a major group and numbers of

syllables and middle and final consonants constitute subgroups. In other words, people most frequently remember the first sound of a word. The number of syllables, the stress, and the final sound are less remembered. Even though stress and final sounds of words constitute a subgroup, they are important aspects because people identify rhyming words using stress and final sounds of words.

Retrieval. Laufer (1990) defined retrieval as the process of matching these three features (syntax, semantics, and phonology) with linguistic structures. In other words, when people access the mental lexicon to retrieve the vocabulary item that they want, they look up phonologically listed words that have also syntactic and semantic features, and they attempt to match information from each category. When people access the mental lexicon, they decode and encode vocabulary meanings to comprehend contexts or to produce meaningful sentences.

The mental lexicon mentioned above is the first-language (L1) mental lexicon, but this can be adapted to L2. According to Wilks and Meara (2002), the L2 mental lexicon does not exist separately from the L1 mental lexicon because second-language learners automatically look up unknown L2 words in the L1 mental lexicon.

Because the mental lexicon is a kind of dictionary in people's minds, it can be said that the L1 mental lexicon underpins L2 vocabulary acquisition because it seems to be the way of retrieval and of storing words for L2.

According to Meara (2002), the L2 mental lexicon shows the importance of connectivity between L1 and L2; these two mental lexicons form a complex, interactive network. In other words, the L2 mental lexicon explains what and how vocabulary is acquired by second language learners through means of comparison with L1 lexical knowledge.

Vocabulary Knowledge of Written and Spoken Forms of Words

Vocabulary knowledge of written is orthographical knowledge (Koda, 1997). Affirming the importance of orthographical knowledge, Schmitt (2000) suggested that the most common unsuccessful strategy of vocabulary learning is the overuse of orthographical knowledge. As second-language learners guess unknown words from context, they may mistake unknown words for known words that are similar orthographically, such as "optimal" and "optional." Second-language learners tend to ignore various contextual clues that highlight the semantic incongruity resulting from the misidentification when they

incorrectly assume they know a word because of similar orthographies (Koda, 1997).

Schmitt (2000) divided orthographical knowledge into two parts: receptive and productive processes. The receptive process is recognition of written words, whereas spelling is the productive process. Therefore, orthographical knowledge includes both reading and writing skills. Reading requires a great deal of receptive sight vocabulary. Second language learners need to develop visual images of words that are exceptions to spelling rules in addition to their knowledge of sound-symbol correspondences.

Looking at the relationship of orthography to language, there are three major orthographic systems represented by the languages of the world: logographic, syllabic, and alphabetic (Koda, 1997). In the logographic systems, the grapheme represents a concept, as in the Chinese writing system. In the syllabic systems, the grapheme represents syllables, as in the Japanese hiragana. In the alphabetic systems, the grapheme corresponds to phonemes. According to Koda (1997), each of these systems lead to different processing approaches, particularly concerning the importance of visual versus phonological processing. In addition, experimental data

showed strong connections between the L1 orthographic systems and L2 processing procedures. Therefore, when second-language learners have similar orthographic systems to their L1, they can acquire spelling with less effort.

Vocabulary knowledge of spoken involves phonological knowledge. According to Schmitt (2000), adequate phonological knowledge involves being able to manage both verbal input and output processes of vocabulary. Input processes allow second-language learners to separate out and understand the acoustic representation of a word from the continuous flow of speech. Output process involves the learners being able to pronounce the vocabulary clearly enough in connected speech for other people to successfully input what is said. In other words, second-language learners need to know the individual phonemes that make up a word, and then they need to know how these phonemes sound when tied together in the sequence particular to the word.

Finally, second-language learners need to know how words are divided into syllables. In the beginning stages of L2 learning, second-language learners rely more heavily on acoustic clues than do target-language speakers because they cannot compensate with native-speaker-like knowledge of semantic and syntactic constraints to predict and

decode words (Schmitt, 2000). Therefore, phonological awareness is important to acquire vocabulary because phonological similarity among words can affect second-language learners more seriously than target-language speakers during listening comprehension. For example, target-language speakers will seldom mistake "aptitude" for "attitude" because the context would make clear the correct choice even if they did not hear the word clearly. On the other hand, when second-language learners do not have enough language proficiency to understand the context, they will rely solely on correctly hearing the word.

Moreover, both orthographic and phonological knowledge will be affected by language transfer (Sirahata, 1992). Language transfer is the principal barrier to L2 acquisition, stemming from interference factors created by the L1 systems (Koda, 1997). There are information gaps between L1 and L2 vocabulary knowledge. So, when language transfer succeeds, it becomes positive transfer; when this it fails, it becomes negative transfer (Shirahata, 1992). In other words, when L1 systems interfere with L2 systems during second-language acquisition, the interference can throw second-language learners into confusion. This is an example of negative transfer.

When second-language learners match L1 information from their L1 systems with new L2 vocabulary, and the matching helps the learners understand the word more clearly, the interference becomes positive. Second-language learners' lexical errors mainly consist of negative transfers (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). Therefore, it is important for second-language teachers to avoid negative transfer in second-language learners' vocabulary acquisition processes.

The Incremental Processes of Vocabulary Acquisition

According to Gass and Selinker (2001), vocabulary is not acquired at once. Second-language learners are gradually taught over a period of time from numerous exposures to various vocabulary items. Learners have all had the experience of being able to recognize and understand vocabulary when they see it in a text or hear it in conversation; then they use it in their writing or speaking.

To explain the incremental process of L2 vocabulary acquisition, exemplar and specific exemplar are defined by using summaries of Krashen (1985) and Chaudron's (1985) definitions. They pointed out when second-language learners are given exemplars of vocabulary by second-

language teachers, the learners do not acquire all exemplars at one time. Yet, some parts of exemplars are acquired. These acquired exemplars are called specific exemplars.

The relationship of exemplar and specific exemplar is similar to the relationship of input and intake. For instance, a group of second-language learners are learning about the word "break," which has many meanings. Suppose they are given a set of exemplars about "break," such as "break one's neck," "break the tradition," "break the vase," and so on. Second-language learners do not acquire these exemplars all at once (Schmitt, 2000). Rather, they acquire exemplars gradually. According to Schmitt (2000), second-language learners acquire the core meaning of a word before the figurative meaning. When second-language learners learned two usages and meanings of "break": two of its usages—"break the vase" and "break one's neck"—are not always acquired together. Because "break the vase" has a core meaning of "break," it will be acquired first. The figurative usage "break one's neck" will take a longer time to acquire.

Moreover, according to Gass and Selinker (2001), second-language learners will direct attention to the

first exposure to vocabulary. Following repeated exposures to the vocabulary, second-language learners can determine relevant semantic and syntactic information. When the exposure is verbal, learners will remember the pronunciation of the vocabulary. When the exposure comes from a written text, learners will remember the first few letters of the vocabulary word. According to Schmitt (2000), when second-language learners can experience repeated exposure to words, they will consolidate other features of the words. Thus, the frequency of exemplars is important to acquire L2 vocabulary. Acquiring L2 vocabulary is a recursive process and does not occur instantaneously (Schmitt, 2000). Therefore, it can be concluded that vocabulary acquisition is a complicated and gradual processes.

Incidental and Explicit Learning of Vocabulary

There are two approaches to vocabulary acquisition: explicit and incidental (Schmitt, 2000). Explicit learning focuses directly on the information to be learned, which offers the greatest chance for vocabulary acquisition. Incidental learning occurs when second-language learners are using language for a communicative purpose. According to Gass and Selinker (2001), incidental learning has been paid great attention in SLA.

Schmitt (2000) wrote that second-language learners will learn L2 incidentally from verbal conversation almost from the beginning, but when L2 learning comes from reading, a certain amount of explicit vocabulary study is necessary as a prerequisite. Therefore, both explicit and incidental learning are necessary for second-language learners.

As to the importance of explicit learning, Prince (1996) wrote that in addition to incidental learning, a greater emphasis on vocabulary is needed for L2 vocabulary learning. The reason why is that second-language learners often make incorrect guesses of word meanings because L2 contexts do not always provide sufficient information to make a correct guess possible even when the learners have advanced L2 proficiency. Schmitt (2000) suggested that certain important vocabulary words make excellent targets for explicit attention because of their frequency, whereas infrequent vocabulary is best left to incidental learning.

Furthermore, some vocabulary knowledge is particularly responsive to both incidental and explicit learning. For example, orthographical and phonological knowledge are facilitated by both explicit and incidental focus (Schmitt, 2000). According to Schmitt, when second-language learners learn vocabulary explicitly in the

beginning, they will automatize orthographical and phonological rules in their mother language systems. As a result of automatized repetitive practice of incidental learning, second language learners speed up their word recognition skills. For these reasons, both incidental and explicit vocabulary learning should be used together in L2 classrooms. The following techniques are examples of incidental and explicit vocabulary learning.

The keyword method is known as an example of explicit learning (Brown & Perry, 1991). It combines phonological form and meaning in mental images. To remember a new vocabulary meaning, a keyword is chosen which is acoustically similar to the new vocabulary, yet has a meaning of its own independent of the new vocabulary meaning. A visual association through an image is then made between the keyword and the new vocabulary meaning (Brown & Perry, 1991). For instance, when English speakers try to remember a Japanese word "katana" which means "sword" in English, they may use the keyword "cat" which is acoustically similar to the Japanese word, and they will imagine that the knight cat is waving its sword. The keyword "cat" serves as a cue for an image, which in turn helps the recall of the meaning of the Japanese word.

Reading in the second language and guessing the meaning from context is a well-known example of incidental vocabulary learning (Partibakht & Wesche, 1997). According to Brown and Perry (1991), written language normally contains a higher proportion of difficult or infrequent words, so second-language learners can use the reading context to increase vocabulary knowledge in their L2. Vocabulary which is not focused upon explicitly can be learned incidentally from reading. These aspects of vocabulary knowledge also relate to whole literacy, which is defined as the ability to use written language based on the context (Ivanic, 1997). Therefore, it can be said that second-language learners can raise their L2 literacy through incidental vocabulary learning.

Vocabulary Acquisition in Schema Theory

Jannuzi (1997) suggested lexical approaches to schema theory enhances L2 vocabulary acquisition because schemata secure linguistic structures in memory when the processes of restructuring take place. Lexical approaches are top-down processes in the sense that second-language learners' prior knowledge of vocabulary, conceptual, and the world comes into use when attention is directed to texts and they are processed with comprehension.

Moreover, lexical approaches are also bottom-up processes in the sense that a vocabulary word is the smallest unit of meaning in texts to occur on its own (Cullen, 1996). In other words, the processing and automatic recognition of separate lexical items might act as a bridge between the lower levels of processing, which are phonemes, graphemes, syllables, and orthographies. The upper levels of processing are syntax, text semantics, and pragmatic considerations.

Implications for Vocabulary Teaching

Schmitt (2000) claimed that vocabulary teaching can be enhanced by connecting incidental and explicit learning with aspects of vocabulary knowledge. In both incidental and explicit learning, the most important way to teach vocabulary is to expose second-language learners to vocabulary frequently and repeatedly. Vocabulary is learned incrementally, so vocabulary acquisition requires multiple exposures to vocabulary. According to Corson (1985), repetitious word exposure is the key means for second-language learners to facilitate their understanding of words. According to Schmitt's study, the chance of acquiring the meaning of a word from one exposure in reading tasks is very low. This clearly means that second-language learners need exposure to

vocabulary repeatedly to acquire vocabulary. Explicit teaching can supply valuable first introductions to vocabulary. In explicit teaching, L2 teachers focus on words which are used frequently in context, to supply second-language learners prerequisite exposure. After the exposure to vocabulary in explicit teaching, second-language learners can gain additional meanings of a given vocabulary word through incidental teaching.

Because word meanings mainly represent concepts rather than particular referents, teachers need to connect second-language learners' concepts with core meanings and give more information to help define word meanings clearly (Schmitt, 2000). Second-language learners need encyclopedic knowledge in order to adequately understand word meanings. Therefore, teachers need to give second-language learners encyclopedic information. The additional information helps learners to delimit the word's meaning. Teachers can give examples of what is and is not in the given category.

In terms of the vocabulary knowledge of register, some types of register are particular to certain communities and are often used in these different speech communities without any awareness of their potential differences. Therefore, teachers need to watch for those

words that may inhibit second-language learners from smoothly integrating with the new speech community and help them find alternatives that are more appropriate (Schmitt, 2000). For example, when second-language learners find themselves in power-inferior positions with interlocutors from whom they desire something, then words with a polite register marking need to be used.

As to orthographic knowledge, second-language learners need to master the sound-symbol correspondences of L2. Therefore, teachers need to familiarize second-language learners with the function of particular orthographic properties in L2 (Koda, 1997). According to Koda (1997), explicit teaching of L2 orthographic and other linguistic systems helps second-language learners to develop conceptual organization of vocabulary.

In the aspect of phonological knowledge, according to Schmitt (2000), second-language learners need to be accustomed to word stress. Therefore, teachers need to offer stress and other phonological information by pronouncing a word individually and explaining that the word can sound differently in speech. As to language transfer, teachers should explain points in which L1 is likely to interfere with L2 in order to avoid negative

transfer (Koda, 1997). Teachers need to recognize negative transfer and pay careful attention to it.

In addition to these implications for vocabulary teaching, Gonzalez (1999) reinforced the effectiveness of dictionary use. He said that second-language learners benefit from dictionaries because dictionaries provide fast and reliable support. Therefore, teachers should provide opportunities for dictionary practice, such as how to look up words.

Summary

This section discussed the importance of vocabulary, vocabulary knowledge, aspects of building vocabulary acquisition, the processes of vocabulary acquisition, and ways to learn vocabulary. The conceptual organization of word meaning plays an important role in vocabulary acquisition. The next section will discuss the conceptual organization called metaphor.

Metaphor

Metaphors have long been associated with the language of novels and poetry. However, the main subject of contemporary metaphor studies is everyday metaphors, those that people use in their daily lives consciously or unconsciously. An everyday metaphor is also called a dead

metaphor because it has lost its metaphor-like characteristics and has become an idiomatic expression (Gibbs & Nayak, 1991). Idioms in daily life are integral parts of vernacular language. People use these metaphors unconsciously.

Applied to second language acquisition (SLA), research on metaphor seeks to reveal and understand the underlying processes of metaphorical language in people's everyday lives. Lakoff and Johnson broke new ground in metaphor studies with their work Metaphors We Live By (1980), a fundamental study of metaphor and human cognitive systems. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), everyday metaphors constitute key conceptual structures of human thought. In Lakoff's other work, Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things (1987), he stated that the core conceptual system of human thinking is embedded in physical experiences. Meaning is based on experiences which people have gone through, so experiences play an important role in metaphor creation and interpretation (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

In SLA, it is also important to be concerned with the sociocultural aspects of language use in everyday life situations. According to Cameron (1999), Vygotskian concepts of interactive language and thought, and

sociocognitive formation of mind, constitute a theory of cognitive development. In Vygotskian theory, the sociocultural and the cognitive are not two separate, independent realms. There is a dialectic relationship between the cognitive and the social, whereby the mind and, by extension, the metaphorical conceptualizations that mediate mental processes, are seen as both products and determinants of the social environment (Cameron, 1999).

One way to explore the social and cognitive relationship is by looking at metaphorical language. Because communication is based on the same conceptual system which people use in thinking and acting, metaphorical language is an important source of evidence. Cameron (1999) suggested, "What we need is a view of language in use which prevents a one-sided or compartmentalized approach, by allowing the social and cognitive to be integral parts of theory and analysis of data" (p. 4). If metaphors are regarded as purely cognitive, or as purely sociocultural, results will be partial and inaccurate because language use in everyday lives is complex and dynamic, both in the forms of language employed and in the skills by which people use it.

Therefore, the following sections will define metaphor, examine conceptual metaphor mapping, the importance of experience, metaphor categorizations, and metaphor systematization from both the cognitive and sociocultural aspects of metaphor. The sections go on to discuss idioms as metaphors which are embedded in people's daily lives.

Definitions of Metaphor

The theoretical approach to metaphor as cognition, traditionally associated with the work of Lakoff and Johnson (1980), holds that the nature of metaphor is the understanding and experiencing of one kind of thing in terms of another. Metaphors are abstractions which are formed from concrete things that people have experienced. A metaphor is a mental phenomenon, sometimes manifested in languages, and sometimes in gestures or in graphic forms (Castillo, 1998; Williams & Dwyer, 1999). Metaphors in language use have been interpreted as figures of speech in which words, phrases, or visual images symbolizing one kind of idea or process are used to indicate similarity or connectivity between two things in order to understand them. Metaphors organize thoughts, and shape the way people perceive reality.

The concept of causation is a basic human activity (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) reported,

Our successful functioning in the world involves the application of the concept of causation to ever new domains of activity—through intention, planning, drawing inferences, etc. The concept is stable because we continue to function successfully in terms of it. Given a concept of causation that emerges from our experience, we can apply that concept to metaphorical concepts (p. 42).

Both concepts and the activities are metaphorically structured. Language is embodied by symbolic models that are paired with linguistic information (MacLennan, 1994). As a result, language is metaphorically structured. One example of basic metaphor use is called juxtaposition or simile terms which denote a set of two apparently different things in order to show similarity, such as "a cloud is like cotton candy." In this sentence, a cloud and cotton candy are compared in terms of similarities like whiteness and fluffiness.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980) and Deignan, Gabrys and Solska (1997), two levels of metaphor are

distinguished. One level is conceptual metaphor, used to represent a relationship between two semantic areas at the level of thought and sensation, such as "anger is heat." Although people cannot actually touch anger physically, they have a sensation of heat for anger. In this case, the conceptual metaphor involves a sensation. In addition, a conceptual metaphor is constructed by people's common sense (Lakoff, 1987). Because common sense differs from culture to culture, conceptual metaphors also differ.

The other level, linguistic metaphor, is the spoken or written figuration of conceptual metaphors, such as "she has got a fiery temper." This metaphor is created from the conceptual metaphor "anger is heat." The connection between the conceptual and the linguistic metaphors shows how people think about anger and how they see themselves when they are angry. According to the essence of metaphor, it is not that anger is a subdivision of heat. Anger and heat are different things, a strong aggressive feeling and the sensation that people actually feel. However, anger is partially structured, understood, performed, and discussed in terms of heat. Metaphorical, linguistic expressions make particular conceptual metaphors. Thus, the conceptual system is not only involved in processing metaphors, but thought is itself

structured metaphorically. The systematicity of metaphor on the surface of language merely reflects the underlying conceptual structures in which something is understood, stored, and processed in terms of something else. Consequently, language is metaphorically structured.

A sociocultural definition of metaphor is appropriate here. According to Gibbs and Steen (1997), ordinary speakers or listeners often make do with incomplete and partial representations of linguistically and socioculturally shared metaphorical concepts. In other words, metaphorical concepts are created in every culture to define a particular reality by means of linguistic expressions. For example, most cultures have the conceptual metaphor "argument is war," so people of various cultures can comprehend a warlike linguistic metaphor such as, "Your claims are indefensible." However, there are some cultures which do not have the conceptual metaphor "anger is heat" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Not every culture possesses conceptual metaphors to the same degree of defined elaboration. In a culture where argument is not viewed in terms of war, where there is no sense of attacking or defending, people from the culture will view and experience the expression differently. Therefore, second-language learners tend to

confuse metaphors used by target-language speakers when the learners' background concepts differ from that of the target-language speakers. From this point of view, metaphors are created in a culture to define a particular reality; so to improve SLA, the target-language learners need to understand the differences in metaphoric concepts between the two languages.

Using metaphors enables people to borrow partial structures for given concepts from aspects of other concepts. The process of people's thinking mainly consists of conceptual metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff, 1987; Gibbs & Nayak, 1991). Metaphors guide people perceive their everyday reality. According to Steen and Gibbs (1997), "... the foundation for metaphor does not lie in language as an abstract system of signs or symbols and rules or conventions; instead, metaphor is a significant part of people's everyday conceptual systems" (p. 2). A metaphor is not an extraordinary language expression. Rather, it is an ordinary language expression which people use in their daily lives. They do not originate at the linguistic level, but from a fundamental level of semantic meaning that lies beneath language. Metaphors do not exist in discrete nodes, but rather in elaborate networks in languages. Metaphor gives people

the semantic basis to negotiate with the world (Kövecses, 2002). In other words, metaphor is one way to compensate for the insufficient linguistic forms of people's thoughts, and it expands people's images of the situation that metaphor describes.

Conceptual Metaphor Mapping

As mentioned above, some particular metaphors work as conceptual metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980); for example, "love is a journey." This conceptual metaphor forms the basis for comprehending and the creating other metaphors. So far, the words "to comprehend" or "to understand" have been used to characterize the relationship between two concepts, such as A is B in metaphorical process. The conceptual domain that people try to understand is called the target domain, whereas the conceptual domain that people use for the understanding is the source domain. Understanding one domain in terms of another involves a set of fixed correspondences between a source and a target domain. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), these metaphorical correspondences are called mapping. When people use a metaphor, they map features from a source domain onto a target domain (see Figure 1). Whenever people try to comprehend meaning in metaphors, metaphoric mappings will be used (Gibbs &

Nayak, 1991; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Lakoff, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

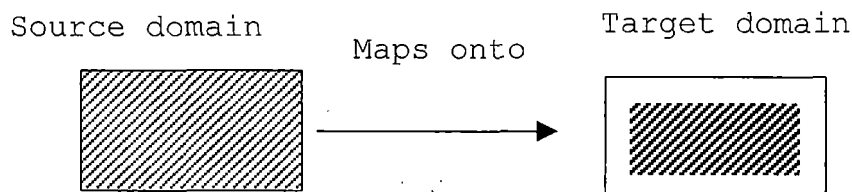


Figure 1. Metaphorical Mapping of Structure
Source: Gozzi, 1999, p. 57

In this process, a source domain contains concrete schemata, and a target domain contains obscure schemata. Fauconnier (1997) advocated the idea that conceptual metaphors are the results of knowledge mapping from concrete, transparent source domains onto relatively abstract, obscure and unfamiliar target domains. For example, the metaphor "love is a journey" is a common but very productive. It maps the properties of the source domain "journey" onto the target domain "love." When used in discourse, this metaphor can be the basis for thinking about love and enables people to generate new insights or points of view on their thoughts about love. People can apply what they know about journeys to what they do not know about love. From this viewpoint, metaphor comprehension is based on metaphoric mapping, so

people can understand obscure concepts which do not have concrete and physical existence, such as emotions, time, and so on.

The sociocultural sources of conceptual metaphors are acknowledged by many researchers (Eubanks, 1999; Gibbs & Nayak, 1991; Lakoff, 1987). These researchers affirmed the importance of sociocultural effects by identifying the underlying sociocultural aspects of conceptual systems. Most metaphors in everyday life are conventional in nature, that is, they are stable language expressions used by people unconsciously. Second-language learners must recognize the underlying source-target pairings in the target language and construct new conceptual foundations. It is these conceptual-linguistic mappings that provide the meaning of metaphorical linguistic expressions. Thus, learning a second language means more than acquiring new linguistic forms; it means acquiring new conceptual foundations in the target language.

The Importance of Experiences

Metaphors cannot be understood by separating them from the experiences which people undergo (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). People can categorize, understand, and memorize obscure metaphors by recognizing that the important part of their comprehension and use is

ultimately grounded in the experiences of their bodies. For example, both English and Japanese have conceptions "precious" and "not to be wasted" for "time." The conception of time in both languages is that of a valuable commodity. Because the concept of work has been associated those two cultures with the time it takes, and time is precisely quantified, it has become customary to pay people by time. Therefore, English and Japanese have the same conception "time is money" as a fundamental prototype.

A prototype is a typical instance of a category, which forms basis of the conceptual metaphor. Prototypes help people to understand how they manage categories and grasp the meanings of linguistic expressions (Qi, 2001). In this notion, people conceive and act as if time is a valuable commodity and a limited resource, just like money. Thus, people can understand and experience time as a thing that can be spent, wasted, budgeted, and so on. Moreover, there are cultures where time is not the same as money (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Therefore, it can be said that a prototype is tied to a specific culture and is not always the same, like conceptual metaphors. A conception which does not consist of concrete prototypes will be understood by connecting it to a fundamental conception

which involves clear prototypes directly based on experiences. That is why experience is considered an important and fundamental part of metaphors.

Metaphor Systematization

Gibbs and Steen (1997) wrote, "Cognitive linguists have used the abundant and systematic presence of metaphors in language as a basis for postulating the existence of conceptual metaphor, which illustrates the move from language to thought" (p. 1). People need metaphors, structured as systematized linguistic concepts, to express and organize their thoughts. In this sense, spatial terms construct the basic concepts of people's sense. This is different from structural metaphor, which is mainly based on comparisons between two different things; and an orientational metaphor, which is mainly based on spatial terms, such as up-down, in-out, and so on (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

According to MacLennan, "the orientational relationships mapped between physical entities in the environment and abstract concepts and experiences in the mind are based on the world interpreted from the particular of human beings" (p. 1). The orientational metaphor structures a whole system of concepts with respect to one another (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Lakoff

and Johnson wrote, "the structure of our spatial concepts emerges from our constant spatial experience" (p. 57). The structure of people's emotions does not emerge from any physical experience, but it can be regarded, like spatial concepts, as a physical experience.

Oriental metaphors can provide concrete concepts that connect the physical experiences to obscure, non-physical concepts. Therefore, people can physically conceptualize their emotions; such as "happy is up," an orientational metaphor whose bases are formed from the systematic relationship between the emotion "happy" and the sense of "erectness" as a physical experience.

Time is also conceptualized by spatial terms metaphorically (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Spatial terms are used to conceptualize time by metaphors, which in turn are embedded in linguistic systems. For example, the spatial term "front/back" closely relates to the temporal term "before/after" (Gentner, Imai & Broditsky, 2002). When people say, "Monday is before Tuesday," they will picture the image which "Monday is in front of Tuesday." Directional prepositions of time support abstract time concepts in similar, concrete, physical and literal ways.

Oriental metaphor plays important role in SLA in terms of cognitive grammar, which was proposed by

Langcker (1987), who advocated cognitive grammar as the way that engages all systematized schemata into language. His idea of cognitive grammar meshes well with the concept of orientational metaphors. According to MacLennan (1994), the physical and psychological context is constructed in similar ways by culture; so physical relationships which prepositions indicate are based on metaphoric associations rather than on literal associations. Therefore, relying on cognitive grammar, English learners who have difficulties with English prepositions because they are related to spatial and temporal terms can learn these prepositions more effectively. For example, learning prepositions is difficult for Japanese English learners because Japanese does not have precise words which work as English prepositions. Thus, promoting Japanese English learners' concepts of orientational metaphors will facilitate their acquisition of English prepositions.

Causation is the other metaphor conceptualization that people use to systematize their physical and sociocultural realities (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). When people think about new information, and decide whether the information is, for example, good or bad, they attempt to reason from their sociocultural norms or experiences.

Those norms and experiences are embedded in prototypes. The concept of causation is based on the manipulation of prototypes, which emerges from experiences (Lakoff, 1987).

Moreover, the concept of causation, which is not only holistic but also analyzable in metaphorical expressions, is expanded by prototypes because characteristics of concepts are recurrent metaphorical expressions (Lakoff, 1987). For second-language learners, learning the target language is certainly an experience of causation because it leads to new situations, filled with the new information expressed in linguistic forms which are aligned with sociocultural norms.

Second-language learners need to match their sociocultural and language prototypes to the target language. For example, in Japanese body language, when Japanese people beckon other people to them, they move their hands in a slight digging movement toward themselves with the palm of the hand turned downward and slightly cupped at the wrist. The motion is directed toward other people and indicates that the person performing the gesture wants the other people to come to them in order to interact. However, in American body language, the motion represents the opposite meaning—go away—instead of coming here. If Japanese English learners do not know the

difference, they will use the motion to beckon American people. When American people leave the Japanese learners, they recognize this situation as a problem. Therefore, the Japanese learners think of other situations in which American people beckon other people to them. Japanese learners compare these two situations and find the difference, the way of waving hands. Then, the next time, the Japanese learners will try to wave their hands like American people when they beckon other people. After this experience, Japanese learners will conceptualize a new prototype which is the way of beckoning other people and it will contribute to fundamental background knowledge of English culture.

Metaphor Categorization

Lakoff (1987) wrote people categorize many things automatically and unconsciously in their conceptual systems. Because people have prototypes that result from systematized metaphorical concepts, they can categorize many things without being conscious of the prototypes themselves. Using metaphorical definitions of prototypes, people can easily manipulate things and experiences which had been already categorized or recategorized. Therefore, people will attempt to find similarities to metaphorize their understanding of new categorized or recategorized

information and experiences (Lakoff, 1987). Similarities in metaphors are the results of categorization or recategorization.

According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), "the metaphor, by virtue of giving coherent structure to a range of our experiences, *creates similarities of a new kind*" (p. 151, emphasis in original). Similarities which are stimulated by metaphorical definitions of prototypes are not only likenesses between two types of experience, but, rather, the likeness is a new concept, structural similarity (Lakoff, 1987). Through structural similarity, people can understand what and how given experiences relate to each other, and they can recognize coherence between them.

When people categorize their experiences of new things, it inevitably happens that one category will be downplayed or hidden by highlighting another category (Lakoff, 1987). When focusing on one category, people pay little attention to other categories. Familiar categories are used to understand new categories in order to highlight of the new relationships. Grady, Oakeley and Coulson (1997) also wrote, "language and conceptual structure from the 'source' domain of vision is used to depict a situation in the 'target' domain" (p. 102). The

source and target domains can be captured and organized systematically in terms of familiarity.

Metaphorical conceptions form one system to extend subcategories. These subcategorized relationships are entailment relationships between metaphors. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) suggested that "'time is money' metaphor which entails that 'the time is limited resources' which also entails 'time is available commodity'" (p. 9). The relationship, which is the process of extending, is an example of the way in which metaphorical entailments can characterize a coherent system of metaphorical concepts and corresponding coherent system of metaphorical expressions for those concepts.

Sociocultural Variation in Metaphor

As mentioned previously in this section, metaphors closely relate to cultures, so it is assumed that there will be cultural variation in metaphors. There are differences in the conceptual metaphors that are available to languages and to cultures for the conceptualize particular target domains (Kövecses, 2002). Because any culture involves conceptual metaphors for emotions, using them to demonstrate universal aspects of conceptual metaphors will be reasonable. Thus, one is able to identify cultural variations.

The study conducted by Matsuki in 1995 is a good example of sociocultural variation in metaphors. It compared in detail the concept of anger in Japanese and English. According Matsuki (1995), the conceptual metaphors for anger in English which were analyzed by former cognitive linguistic researchers (such as "anger is heat," "the body is container for emotions," and "anger is the heat of a fluid in a container") can also be found in Japanese. This means that the two languages share the same aspects of the conceptual metaphors for anger. According to Kövecses (2002), an elaborated system of metaphors for anger is based on a folk theory that the physiological effects of anger increase body heat, internal pressure, agitation, and interference with accurate perceptions. For that reason, Japanese and English have the same conceptual metaphors for anger, based on bodily experiences. Take an example of a Japanese metaphoric expression for anger in terms of the conceptual metaphor "anger is the heat of a fluid in a container," "*Ikari ga karada no naka de tagirru.*" The literal translation of the expression is that anger seethes inside the body. This example shows that the metaphoric expressions for anger are similar in Japanese and English. When the languages share the same aspects of

conceptual metaphors, the literal translation into the other language will make sense. This is expected because the expression is primarily based on bodily experiences that should be universal among people from both cultures.

However, Matsuki (1995) also found that although Japanese and English have the same conceptual metaphor for anger, "the body is container for emotion" and "emotions are fluid in a container," there is a large number of anger-related expressions in Japanese that group especially around the Japanese concept of "*hara*" (belly in English). According to Matsuki (1995), Japanese metaphorically uses the concepts of *hara* as a container for some conceptual metaphors, such as "emotion is in container." In other words, both Japanese and English share the same conceptual metaphor for anger at the very fundamental level, but concepts are elaborated differently in the two languages. A Japanese expression for anger "*Harawata ga niekurikaeru*" is literally that the intestines are boiling. The literal translation may not be interpreted in its figurative meaning, boiling over with anger, by English speakers, who do not know the Japanese conceptual metaphor "anger is in *hara*." Thus, this culturally significant concept is unique to Japanese

culture, so the conceptual metaphor "anger is in *hara*" is limited to Japanese.

Moreover, there seem to exist other socioculturally distinct concepts that are built around the concepts of *hara* in Japanese. According to Matsuki (1995), "When *hara* is used to refer to the contents of the container, it is the word for something real but hidden" (1995, p. 143). In Japanese, the hidden, honest contents of *hara* are called *honne* "real self." This word is usually used in contrast with *tatemae* "social face." These two words are produced by a Japanese custom of avoiding mention of honest emotions that differ from those of others, and adjusting to the official stance. *Honne* and *tatemae* represent a sociocultural aspect of Japanese. The geographical and historical situation of Japan has worked a strong influence on relationships among Japanese people. They have had to live together in small communities peacefully and harmoniously, so they refrain from expressing their *honne*.

For example, a Japanese expression related to *honne* and *tatemae*, "*Kuchi to hara ga handai da*" literally means that the mouth is the opposite of belly. However, the figurative meaning of the expression is that what one says is to one's real intention. In other words, when Japanese

people use this expression for the other, the person obviously hides his or her real self in his or her belly by saying the reverse of *honne*. When people's true thoughts or emotions are not suitable to be expressed according to accepted standards or common sense, a separation between *honne* and *tatemae* is encouraged (Matsuki, 1995). Because the most important Japanese value, "wa," (a sense of harmony and togetherness) is more important than self-expression, when expressing honest feelings in which "honne" might hurt or offend others, the official stance "tatemae" is expressed to keep peace in the community. So even when a Japanese person gets angry, his/her *honne*, or anger, may be kept inside. Truth and real intentions constitute the contents of *hara*. Thus, when Japanese people keep their anger under control, they are hiding their private, truthful, innermost self and displaying a social face that is called for in the situation designated by accepted standards of behavior.

Although some of the English conceptual metaphors for anger are applicable to the Japanese conceptual metaphors for anger, the concept of *hara* is unique to the latter. The concept of *hara* is further linked with notions of *honne* and *tatemae*, which are embedded in Japanese sociocultural contexts. Culture-specific

concepts are evoked to explain emotional concepts that are embedded in very different systems of sociocultural contexts. Therefore, although people from various cultures associate the same bodily experiences with emotions, the conceptualization of emotions is not exactly the same in every culture, so some specific conceptual metaphors are derived.

Kinds of Metaphor

Metaphor is a general term which represents all kinds of figurative speech. Under the general term of metaphor there are such other terms as simile, personification, metonymy, synecdoche and idiom. Idioms have particular characteristics, so they will be discussed in detail later in this section.

Simile resembles metaphor in that it compares two things (Glucksberg & Keysar, 1990). Simile compares things in terms of resemblances, through expressions such as "A is like B" and "A seems B." Simile is more literal than metaphor, asserting not that A is B, but only that A is like B in a certain implied respect. From this viewpoint, the comparison of metaphors is indirect. On the other hand, the comparison of simile is direct, so metaphors and similes are alike. For example, "John's hair style is like a lion." This sentence directly

compares a lion to John's hairstyle by their similarity. In addition, people do not always need conceptual metaphors to understand the meaning of a sentence because this kind of figurative language serves as a conceptual metaphor for a basic linguistic formula (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Simile provides a base for conceptual metaphors.

Personification is the most obvious metaphor in which a physical object is specified as having human like qualities (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Personification enables people to understand a wide variety of experiences with nonhuman entities in terms of motivations, characteristics, and activities, such as, "his theory explained to me the behavior of chickens raised in factories," and "life has cheated me." These examples suggest people see nonhuman entities as human. For example, "life" cannot "cheat" on anyone because cheating is a human quality.

However, personification permits people to use their knowledge about themselves to understand other aspects of the world, such as life, time, or natural forces. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), every personification differs from nonhuman entities that people pick out. For example, "his theory" will not always be helpful to understand the behavior of chickens raised in

factories. Some people may think other explanations will be better. However, the important aspect of personification is that it is a general category which covers a wide range of metaphors used to better understand nonhuman entities. In this way, people pick out different aspects of nonhuman entities when they look at personification metaphors.

Metonymy is using the name of one thing for another closely related thing. According Lakoff and Johnson (1980), metonymies function primarily as referent, and allow people to use one entity to stand for another. For example, in the sentence, "What would the Pentagon think of the president's new military proposals?" The Pentagon is used instead of the Defense Department, although it is just a building in which the department is housed. In this case, one entity is used to refer to another; the Pentagon for the Defense Department. People try to direct attention to one entity through another entity related to it (Kövecses, 2002). In other words, instead of mentioning the second entity directly, they provide mental access to it through another entity.

Metaphors and metonymies are different kinds of figurative speech because metaphors' primary function is to promote people's understanding. On the contrary, a

metonymy provides a concrete image which stands for an obscure image as a form of allusion. Additionally, metonymies depend on sociocultural differences. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) wrote sociocultural and religious symbolism are special cases of metonymies, such as in the "Pentagon stands for the Defense Department example." The conceptual systems of sociocultural and religions are metaphorical in nature because the symbolic images are grounded in people's everyday experiences. They are embedded in their sociocultural norms and religions. In other words, symbolic metonymical expressions are keys to understand sociocultural and religious concepts.

Synecdoche is using a part of a thing to imply the whole thing (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). A synecdoche is therefore the opposite of a metonymy. For example, in the sentence, "There are hard hats working on this new building," the term "hard hats" refers to construction crews. Instead of mentioning construction crews, the sentence uses the term "hard hats" which represents an outstanding feature of the crews. Metonymies and synecdoche rest on shifts between cause-effect, part-whole, genus-species, and so on (Mooij, 1976). Therefore, metonymies and synecdoche allow people to understand how

others, from different cultures and religions, conceptualize symbolic images.

Definition of Idiom

An idiom is defined as "a speech form or an expression of a given language that is peculiar to itself grammatically or cannot be understood from the individual meanings of its elements" (The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 2002). Idioms are parts of figurative speech which express things without mentioning them directly, like metaphors. An idiom needs to be understood metaphorically, in figurative speech, rather than in literal meaning (Cooper, 1998). An idiomatic expression is a phrase that is structured linguistically but makes little sense when it is taken literally. For example, a common English idiom expression, "the blow made me see stars" does not make sense in its literal form because it is impossible that people actually scatter stars from their eyes. However, people can understand this meaning through metaphoric conceptions: the blow was stunning.

According to Gibbs, Bogdanovich, Skykes and Barr (1997), "idioms might once have been metaphorical, but over time have lost their metaphoricity and now exists in our mental lexicons as frozen, lexical items" (p. 141).

In other words, idioms do not make sense literally, but they make sense when they are taken metaphorically. Although the idioms began as linguistic metaphors, they have lost their freshness as linguistic metaphors. Gibbs and Nayak (1991) wrote that dead metaphors had lost their metaphor-like character, so they became a chunk of vocabulary that exists in daily language uses. Dead metaphors became general expressions in language because they are not a result of metaphorical on-time mappings between the source and target domains. The mapping has been already conceived in people's lexical knowledge, so they are called idioms which lost their metaphoricity, but do not make sense in the literal ways of the understanding.

Characteristics of Idiom

There are mainly two kinds of idiom characteristics. One is frozen idioms which cannot change syntactic forms without changing meanings in sentences (Cooper, 1998). The other is flexible idioms which can change syntactic forms without changing figurative meanings in sentences (Cooper, 1998). For example, the frozen idiom "hit the ceiling" could be used only in the active voice. Its figurative meaning is "to get angry," so the sentence "John hits the ceiling" means that John gets angry. When

the idiom is used in the passive sentence "The ceiling was hit by John," the meaning becomes only literal. According to Kövecses (2002), idioms consist of two or more words. The overall meaning of these words cannot be predicted from the meanings of the constituent words. It can be said that second language learners should be able to easily memorize frozen idioms as chunks of vocabulary.

An example of flexible idioms suggested by Cooper (1998) is "roll out the carpet" (p.257) which means to respect someone. It can be used in active and the passive voice sentences, and it will not change its figurative meaning. The sentences, "John rolled out the red carpet for his boss," and "The red carpet was rolled out for the boss by John" mean that John respected his boss figuratively. Both the sentences also can be taken literally, so people need the context in which the sentences are embedded when they try to interpret whether its meaning is literal or figurative. Therefore, it can be said that frozen idioms will be recognized by their characteristics easier than flexible idioms, so second-language learners should memorize their meaning their associated literal meanings. For learners of target language, flexible idioms are problematic because learners will not be able to rapidly judge that these idioms are

used in a literal or figurative way if they do not have enough knowledge of idioms. It is therefore necessary to promote second-language learners' knowledge of idioms.

In summary, it is discussed that idioms are dead metaphors whose metaphorical characteristics people had not recognized (Lakoff, 1987; Gibbs & Nayak, 1991). It was assumed that there is no relationship between idioms and conceptual metaphors, which are the fundamentals of metaphor comprehension. However, Kövecses (2002) wrote that an idiom is not just a language expression; it stems from people's general knowledge of the world, embedded in their conceptual systems. This means idioms consist of conceptual systems. In addition, idioms had once mapped onto conceptual metaphors as the target domains once, so people could originally comprehend their meanings (Gibbs & Nayak, 1991).

For example, idioms which express anger, "boil one's blood," "lost one's cool," and so on, will be interpreted in their figurative meanings by being mapped onto the conceptual metaphor "anger is heat." What determines the general meaning of the idioms are the conceptual-metaphor-target domains that are applicable to the idioms at hand. The more precise meaning of the idiom depends on the particular concept map that applies. During mapping,

people partially conceptualize their experiences metaphorically, and the conceptualizations give images as the specific knowledge for idioms. For this reason, it can be said that conceptual metaphors and idioms have close relationships.

Vocabulary and Metaphor in Schema Theory

The processes of vocabulary acquisition are tantamount to the processes of conceptualization within the mental lexicon. These are the same as metaphor processing because mental lexicon results from mapping relationships between a source domain and a target domain. In addition, second-language learners consider an idiom, which is a part of metaphor, as a chunk of words they learn.

To acquire a new meaning of a metaphor, people compare or contrast the metaphor to their prior or background knowledge to. Comparison is a fundamental cognitive process which structures people's experiences (Langcker, 1987). Similarities and differences are found in syntactic structure. Sinha and Jensen de Lopez (2000) noted that profound concentrations on the similarities and differences in categorical or conceptual language structures are the main analysis of cognitive linguistics.

This is the same process as schema retrieving, comparison between new information and prior or background knowledge.

For instance, in the L2 learning situation, when second-language learners encounter metaphorical expressions, such as "I cannot grasp Tom's idea" and "The idea is up in the air," they will use a physical conceptual metaphor "understanding is grasping" (Lakoff, 1988). Second-language learners compare their physical experiences to the expressions, and then comprehend the meanings. If an "idea" is a physical object, people can easily grasp and hold it in their hands to observe carefully. It is easier to grasp a grounded physical object on a table than the object floating in air. In this case, "idea" does not exist in the physical world. "Idea" is an abstract object, so the two sentences are semantically incorrect from the aspect of ontology. People need to conceptualize "idea" based on physical existence to comprehend the expression ontologically. Thus, it can be said that vocabulary acquisition and metaphor are embedded in schema theory.

Summary

In summary, this section defined metaphors in respect to human cognitive processes. A metaphor is the result of people's thoughts that are based on their

experiences. In language use, metaphors play an important role in developing fundamental concepts of new information with which people were previously unfamiliar. In addition, the cognitive functions of metaphors give associative connections that link phrasal verbs, prepositions, and adjectives to the semantic category foundation. Idioms are embedded in people's daily language use through their characteristics. Even if idioms are dead metaphors, their functions in language help people to clearly understand things related to conceptual metaphors. For these reasons, metaphor is a vital aspect of language. The next section will discuss metaphoric competence and its relationship to second language acquisition.

Metaphoric Competence

As discussed in the previous section, metaphors are understood by the mapping of conceptual metaphors, which are the systematized categories of people's thoughts, based on their sociocultural norms, experiences, and syntactic language structures (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). In other words, a person's cognitive systems are formed by means of, and within, a given social, cultural, and language framework. People can understand new concepts by

applying their cognitive systems, which consist of conceptual metaphors. In addition, metaphors serve as tools for understanding sociocultural variations (Kövecses, 2002). Second language learners can understand most sociocultural aspects of second language (L2) by referring to their first language (L1) cognitive systems (Kövecses, 2002).

Metaphors are created by people when a topic is so emotionally charged that ordinary literal speech fails (Allbriton, 1995). The use of metaphors becomes inevitable when people find it necessary to express abstract thoughts that transcend straightforward description. According to Low (1988), one of the functions of metaphors is to enable people to verbalize what is unknown or hard to describe accurately, and also to avoid unequivocally expressing negative emotions which may harm others. Using metaphors involves making comparisons of what is known with that which is wished to be known. People use a working knowledge of metaphors—metaphoric competence—when they produce and comprehend metaphors (Deignan, Gabrys & Solska, 1997; Low, 1988).

Trosborg (1985) suggested that increasing metaphoric competence impacts second-language learners' total proficiency in the target language. Learning about common

metaphorical patterns can simplify the acquisition of vocabulary and facilitate target-language grammar learning (Deignan, Gabrys & Solska, 1997). According to Rigney (2001), metaphors come from particular people, situated in particular social groups in particular places, times, and cultural settings. Once a metaphor is created, it may shape the thoughts, feelings, and actions of people in the social context from which it emerged, and alter that context in the process. Metaphors help second-language learners expand their thoughts, compel attention, clarify ideas, and express their creativity and originality in the target language (Rigney, 2001).

Therefore, increasing second-language learners' working knowledge of metaphors promotes acquisition of L2 from both the linguistic and sociocultural perspectives. This section discusses how metaphoric competence relates to second-language acquisition (SLA), and how to teach second-language learners strategies for comprehending and producing metaphors.

Basic Metaphoric Competence

To comprehend, produce, and to be aware of metaphors is to have fundamental metaphoric competence (Littlemore, 2001b; Deignan, Gabrys & Solska, 1997; Low, 1988). For second-language learners, comprehending metaphors means to

know the figurative meanings of metaphors, and to store their meanings as language knowledge for later use (Low, 1988). Producing metaphors means using metaphors appropriately in a given context, and within reasonable limits, and construct plausible meanings for utterances which contain semantic anomalies and apparent contradictions (Low, 1988). Production skill represents people's understanding during social interactions (Low, 1988). People know what their interlocutors mean, and when to take a given verbal interaction seriously or humorously. To be aware of metaphors means to be conscious of the differences in conceptual and linguistic metaphors between L1 and L2 (Low, 1988).

Economic metaphors provide good examples of such comprehension and production (Rigney, 2001). Because people have been concerned with economics for a long time, economic metaphors have long been produced. Conceptual metaphors about economic factors are based on the language of plants, building, competition, and so on. Because the economy is an abstraction, people form pictures based on clearly established images which they have obtained from their past experiences to embody the abstraction. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) wrote, "in actuality we feel that no metaphor can ever be comprehended or even adequately

represented independently of its experiential basis" (p. 19). A metaphor occurs when one thing reminds people of another, triggering an association between present and past experiences (Rigney, 2001). In terms of economic growth, the phrases "Germany built a strong economy," and "the race for market share," are based on the conceptual metaphors "economic growth is building," and "economic growth is competition."

Various researchers have pointed out the significance of metaphor awareness (Kövecses, 2002; Littlemore, 2001a; Gibbs & Nayak, 1991; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). They wrote that understanding conceptual metaphors by means of sociocultural experience is one of the important factors in metaphoric competence. Researchers also suggested that raising second-language learners' metaphor awareness of through discussion tasks, and comparison of metaphors in L1 and L2, are practical approaches to increase the learners' comprehension and production of appropriate metaphors (Littlemore, 2001a; Cooper, 1998; Deignan, Gabrys & Solska, 1997; Low, 1988).

Lack of metaphoric competence may cause confusion between native and non-native speakers. If non-native speakers of a target language are unaware of metaphors,

they may translate the metaphors into their L1 quite literally. As a result, their responses may reveal that they missed the point. In turn, their misinterpretation may confuse target-language speakers, and even give them an impression that the learners are unintelligent.

As mentioned in the previous metaphor section, even though both English and Japanese share the same conceptual metaphor "anger is heat," Japanese learners of English have difficulties with comprehension and production of metaphors about anger in English. This is because culturally different conceptual metaphors are derived from the central conceptual metaphor, such as "anger is hot fluid in a container," and "anger is fluid in *hara*" (Matsuki, 1995). When Japanese English learners use metaphors related to "*hara*," English speakers will not understand what the learners intend because of this key sociocultural difference between the conceptual metaphors. These metaphors have more than one sense, and can be appreciated on more than one level. Consequently, a single metaphor may be developed in a multitude of different and even opposing directions in various cultures (Kövecses, 2002).

Another example relating to awareness of metaphors is when second-language learners produce a metaphoric

expression, such as "a cloud is cotton candy." They may mean the cloud is white. On the other hand, English speakers might recognize "a cloud is cotton candy" as meaning that the cloud is fluffy instead of white because of their cultural experience. Cotton candy is many colors in the U.S. (McCarthy, 1994). Metaphors are also comprehended and produced through second-language learners' native cultural truths which have not yet become conceptual metaphors.

The meaning of metaphors is not always universal and static (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Rather, meanings are multiple and changing, so second-language learners need to be aware of sociocultural differences of metaphors to avoid miscommunications. Thus, awareness of metaphor is important for both comprehension and production of metaphors.

Idiom Comprehension and Production

Idioms have distinctive characteristics as metaphorical expressions: conceptual metaphors are accessed during people's comprehension of idioms (Gibbs, Bogdanovich, Skykes, & Barr, 1997). Conceptual metaphors can be used to make sense of idiom meanings because idioms were metaphorical, but over time have lost their metaphoricity. Now they function like long vocabulary

words (Gibbs, Bogdanovich, Skykes, & Barr, 1997). To comprehend their meaning, people will categorize idioms based on themes which interact with conceptual metaphors (Cooper, 1998). People comprehend idioms in the same way they comprehend linguistic metaphors.

In SLA, to produce and comprehend idioms, second-language learners make a premise that idioms are chunks of words (Cooper, 1998). They produce and comprehend idioms in almost the same way they do vocabulary words. Second-language learners use certain strategies when they encounter idioms. Two of these strategies are guessing from context and discussing and analyzing the idioms (Cooper, 1999). Guessing from context means that second-language learners analyze idioms based on the situations in which they are embedded, and make references to similar situations to infer the meaning of the idiom. Discussing and analyzing the idiom means that second-language learners often talk in general about the idiom and its context before venturing into interpretation. In employing this strategy, second-language learners exercise their logic to solve the linguistic puzzle represented by the unknown L2 idioms (Cooper, 1999).

In addition, second-language learners use another strategy, which is referring to their L1 idioms by

applying literal meaning of idioms as a key from the given context (Littlemore, 2001a). Second-language learners comprehend non-literal meanings of idioms by substituting an L1 context, and seeking the L1 idioms which may have similar aspects to the L2 idioms. For example, according to Cooper (1999), Japanese learners of English find that the English idiom "to tighten one's belt" is similar to the Japanese idiom "*Saifu no himo wo simeru*" (to tighten the string of the purse) within the context of a family budget.

In terms of metaphor production, when second-language learners incorrectly use an idiomatic phrase, target-language speakers often look amused or puzzled because they do not understand. On the other hand, when second-language learners avoid the use of idioms, or idiomatic expressions, their language expressions will be bookish, stilted, and unimaginative (Cooper, 1998). Therefore, promoting second-language learners' idiom use in appropriate contexts is important for learners as a means of improving metaphoric competence.

Constraints of Metaphoric Competence

When second-language learners try to comprehend and produce metaphors, they use not only conceptual metaphors but also use their knowledge of L2. Cooper (1998)

concluded his study with the idea that metaphors whose concepts are totally different from L1 are rarely comprehended and produced appropriately by second-language learners. The connections between L1 and L2 background knowledge are quite important for adult second-language learners (Cooper, 1998). These adults are expected to have sophisticated thoughts relatively early in language learning because they are considered to have knowledge about the context (Low, 1988). Even though adult second-language learners have the same degree of experiences as their background knowledge, it is hard for them to connect it to the L2 knowledge. This is why lack of connections between L1 and L2 background knowledge becomes the first constraint for second-language learners.

According to Littlemore (2001a), there are three kinds of background knowledge: schematic, systematic and contextual. Schematic knowledge resembles the function of conceptual metaphors. It functions as a way of organizing personal experiences (Allbriton, 1995). According to Allbriton (1995), schematic knowledge is constructed ad hoc during comprehension. In other words, schematic knowledge filters and organizes incoming information, and then provides a means for connecting pieces of information in people's cognitive systems. Schematic knowledge itself

is not conceptual metaphors. However, when it creates networks for incoming information in people's cognitive systems, the networks will work as conceptual metaphors. When second-language learners encounter target-language metaphors but fail to access target-language schematic knowledge, they will be unable to create new networks about the metaphor in their cognitive systems. Therefore, inaccessibility of schematic knowledge constraints second-language learners' metaphoric competence.

Systematic knowledge is defined as the knowledge of syntactic language structures (Littlemore, 2001a). The 1985 Trosborge study suggested that second-language learners who have disadvantaged systematic knowledge are less able to comprehend and produce metaphors. When second-language learners do not have adequate systematic knowledge, they fail to comprehend and produce metaphors, or even to ascertain whether the relevant linguistic expression is metaphoric or not.

Contextual knowledge is defined as knowledge of the situation in which people are involved (Littlemore, 2001a). In everyday metaphor use, people try to interpret the meaning from the given context in which the conversation, reading, or writing occurs. In SLA, second-language learners need to assume that a given metaphor's

meaning is adequate for the context in which it is embedded. According to Trosborge (1985), a sharpened awareness of metaphor is likely to stem from a contextual study. If second-language learners have enhanced contextual knowledge, they can better interpret metaphors.

When second-language learners lack these three kinds of knowledge, their metaphoric competence is limited. Moreover, those three kinds of knowledge are not used separately (Littlemore, 2001a). Systematic knowledge provides schematic and contextual knowledge with linguistic information which is necessary to understand the context. Schematic knowledge gives contextual and systematic hints to judge whether the language expression is metaphoric. Contextual knowledge combines information from schematic and systematic knowledge; it enables learners to comprehend and produce metaphors appropriately. If these relationships are not well connected, second-language learners will be unable to show their metaphoric competence in L2. Inability to fluently relate these three kinds of knowledge constrain second-language learners.

Furthermore, communicative language ability involves not only the spoken forms of communication skills, but also written forms. In terms of spoken forms of

communicative language ability, there is yet another constraint for metaphoric competence: speed in comprehending and producing metaphors (Littlemore, 2001b). While listening and speaking, second-language learners need to comprehend and produce a probable meaning of metaphors rapidly under pressure.

Low (1988) suggested, "native speakers are expected to be able to continue a metaphoric discourse coherently once it has been started, and presumably to know how to end one when desired" (p. 134). Target language speakers know how to continue and end discourses metaphorically without much conscious thought. They can make metaphorical statements which extend or mix with other metaphorical meanings coherently and fluently (Low, 1988). Even if second-language learners share the same conceptual metaphors, they will hardly be able to continue the metaphorical conversations fluently unless they have time to judge whether the discourse consists of nonsense, humorous, serious, or acceptable language expressions in the target language.

In terms of the speed, when second-language learners cannot comprehend the meaning of metaphoric expressions provided by the target language speakers during conversation, the learners seldom ask the meaning because

they do not have time to ask if the conversation is fluent (Low, 1988). Moreover, if the conversations are casual, second-language learners will hesitate to ask the meaning of metaphors because they assume that explaining the meaning is troublesome and time consuming for the target language speakers. If the metaphor's meaning is misunderstood, the misunderstanding is often hard to understand, and this may confuse second-language learners (Low, 1988), who may not be able to understand what is going on between themselves and the speakers.

Mapping Processes and Schema Theory

Conceptual metaphors mainly consist of people's physical experiences. In cognitive linguistics, conceptual metaphors are the means by which people metaphorically map their experiences, and then store the conceptualized experiences as schemata in their cognitive systems (Kovace, 2002). Thus, schemata are a privileged source domain for the linguistic conceptualization of experiences and thoughts.

In addition, Sinha and Jensen de Lopez (2000) noted that schema is viewed as a universal principle of cognitive organization in people's syntactic systems, a unit of analysis which is suitable for revealing cultural differences in cognitive linguistics. From their view of

schema, schemata are the frames of various concepts which depend on both individual and sociocultural experience in people's syntactic system.

Schema theory is useful to encourage second-language learners' metaphorical mapping processes. According to schema theory, there are three schema retrieving processes: bottom-up, top-down and interactive process. These retrieving processes are defined as metaphorical mapping processes, so those three retrieving processes can be called metaphorical mapping of schemata.

The bottom-up process is an inductive mapping because it emphasizes on vocabulary, syntax and grammatical structure of metaphorical expressions to comprehend. The top-down process is deductive because it puts emphasis on people's background knowledge of the world, cognitive development, and use of learning strategies in metaphorical expressions.

The interactive process is hybrid because it combines both inductive and deductive mapping. For second-language learners, these three mapping processes translate L2 into L1 during reading comprehension at the beginning level. However, the translations decrease gradually because second-language learners establish L2

schemata based on L1 when they process the mapping frequently.

Teaching Metaphors in Second Language Learning

Low (1988) suggested that teaching metaphors, which help connect L1 and L2 background knowledge, are necessary for second-language learners because metaphoric comprehension in context involves background knowledge that is unfamiliar for the learners. Second-language learners need to develop metaphoric competence because it is important to promote learners' whole-language proficiency. Therefore, metaphors, including idioms, are an area in which instructional programs need to focus. Overcoming constraints of metaphoric competence in teaching metaphors is an important issue.

Low (1988) suggested that the simplest way of teaching metaphors is to ask second-language learners to invent them. To introduce this task, teachers should explain various conceptual metaphors, such as "anger is heat," "body is container," and so on. This activity focuses on the systematicity of metaphors (Low, 1988). It can be expanded by basing exercises on a specific concept. Teachers ask learners to think of topics the learners can transfer by giving a concept, such as earthquake, economy, education, and so on. This helps the learners recognize

the process of metaphor comprehension and production. Thus, second-language learners can use wordlists to learn metaphors, without experiencing the metaphors practically (Low, 1988).

Using lists, second-language learners are able to memorize the meaning of metaphors, but they are not able to learn the real situations in which the metaphors are used. Metaphors are powerful tools to express people's experiences and emotions. People should recognize the context in which metaphors are embedded, in order to interpret their meaning (Ashton, 1994). The context and purpose of metaphors are important when they are taught. However, this way of teaching does not suggest a means of overcoming second-language learners' constraints of metaphoric. Therefore, other strategies related to the context and purposes should also be added.

Exposure to L2 metaphors during instruction will facilitate second-language learners' ability to learn about connotation and acceptable extensions of L2 vocabulary (Cooper, 1998). Second-language learners will be incapable of using contextualized metaphorical expressions if teachers do not repeatedly provide actual examples of metaphors. Therefore, teachers should provide important information, such as what metaphors are likely

to be used by target-language speakers, more than once during instructions. Cooper (1998) suggested teachers should use verbal metaphors purposely in their instructions, and make sure that learners understand the meaning of metaphors. Teachers should be sure they are using metaphors in the appropriate context.

As a result of this exposure to L2 metaphors, second-language learners can learn when and how metaphors are used in context. If they are exposed to metaphors in the actual context as often as possible, they will be able to increase their schematic and contextual knowledge for L2. Thus, to expose second-language learners to L2 metaphors verbally during instruction is an additional way of teaching metaphors.

Reading instruction offers another opportunity for exposure to L2 metaphors. According to MacLennan (1994), second-language learners can identify grammar and vocabulary patterns of the target language via metaphors during reading instruction. Second-language learners can increase their systematic knowledge by being exposed to the L2 metaphors used by the writers. The writers' choice of metaphors reflects their opinions about the given topic (Boers, 2000). Writers often use metaphors to express their thoughts on a given topic, so reading materials are

good sources for learning grammar and vocabulary of the target language via metaphors. To recognize writers' points of view about the topic will increase second-language learners' contextual and systematic knowledge.

The importance of discussion tasks was pointed out by various researchers (Littlemore, 2001a; Williams & Dwyer, 1999; Hammond, 1994; McCarthey, 1994; Low, 1988). According to McCarthey (1994), a discussion task promotes classroom conversation and facilitates second-language learners' interpretation of metaphors. In a discussion task, second-language learners need to respond to others' opinions rapidly, so the constraint of speed will be improved. Moreover, discussing topics using metaphors helps second-language learners more able to negotiate the meaning of their metaphorical expressions that others do not understand, and that negotiation makes the learners more aware of diverse metaphors (Low, 1988).

To combine classroom discussion tasks with the teaching of metaphors, Littlemore (2001a) suggested teachers should explain about a topic without metaphorical expressions, or at least give some examples of conceptual metaphors on the topic before they ask students to discuss. By experiencing this, second-language learners can avoid situations in which they misinterpret the topic.

Simultaneously, they activate background knowledge related to the topic. Through discussion tasks, second-language learners can become aware of metaphorical expressions and learn other metaphor usages from their classmates through verbal communication.

As to the teaching of idioms, according to Littlemore (2001a), second-language learners memorize idioms as chunks of words without their literal meaning, so they can judge whether the idioms are literal or figurative without the context. When second-language learners have opportunities to use idioms, they memorize the appropriate meanings and usages of idioms rapidly in actual situations because they recognize and understand the chunks.

However, because the context and purpose are important when learning metaphors, Low (1988) suggested, "it can indeed be useful to teach learners to say 'Give over' or 'Get off my back,' and to contrast these with intentionally more vicious comments like 'You're beginning to get on my nerves' or 'You really get up my nose'" (p. 139). This is better than just memorizing idioms as chunks of words. In this way, learning from the actual context helps second-language learners recognize the appropriateness of metaphor use, and they can avoid

extreme expressions which would make target language speakers uncomfortable.

Summary

In sum, metaphoric competence is important for second-language learners as they learn the target language because this competence underlies language proficiency. Metaphorical comprehension and production for second-language learners is difficult because the learners' L1 sociocultural background is different from that of the L2. Therefore, these learners need to be aware of these differences. Additionally, there are some constraints related to second-language learners' background knowledge and the speed by which they can process metaphors in L2, so the learners may experience difficulty in acquiring metaphorical competence.

However, as this section discussed, there are ways of teaching metaphors to overcome these constraints by exposing second-language learners to L2 metaphors. When ways of teaching metaphors are successful in L2 classrooms, second-language learners will increase their metaphoric competence.

Reading and Writing Relationships

Various second-language acquisition (SLA) researchers have studied issues on both sides of reading and writing to improve second-language learners' proficiency (Belcher & Hirvela, 2001). They have started to examine connections between reading and writing skills in the second-language (L2) context, inspired by first-language (L1) reading and writing theories. As separate fields of inquiry and practice, L2 reading and writing have attracted considerable interest recently as practical, dynamic areas of SLA study. According to Grabe (2001b), there has been a focus on research into L2 reading and writing relationships during the last two decades.

Grabe (2001b) also wrote, "L2 reading and writing contexts involve L1-L2 interactions and L1 influences on L2 literacy performance" (p. 16). Thus, it can be said that literacy skills are important because second-language learners use reading and writing to achieve high L2 proficiency holistically. This section will discuss theories of L2 reading, writing, and reading and writing together, and consider the implications for L2 reading and writing pedagogies.

Second-Language Reading

Grabe (2002) wrote, "the most fundamental ability for L2 reading is basic comprehension of main ideas from a text" (p. 50). Basic comprehension has two main aspects. One aspect consists of language proficiency: rapid and accurate word recognition, fluency in processing words and discourse, and a reasonably strong grasp of the language structures (Grabe, 2002). The other aspect consists of cognitive processes: integrating information from text, making necessary inferences and connections to background knowledge, varying processes and goals strategically, and monitoring comprehension (Pressley, 1998; Snow, Barns, & Griffin, 1998; Grabe, 1999). Reading comprehension consists of the ability to find, learn, critique, and evaluate information (Grabe, 2002).

Basic reading comprehension is the foundation for being a good reader (Grabe, 2001). Being able to comprehend texts effectively implies success in information processing, linguistic knowledge, metacognitive awareness, extensive practice in reading, cognitive resources based on experiences to allow critical reflection, and purposes for reading (Pressley, 1998). Thus, reading to learn from texts follows from the basic reading comprehension. Good readers engage in

sophisticated information searching processes and are aware of the relation between their goals and reading metacognitively. They also have adequate resources to reflect on what they read critically. Good readers can integrate information from text with their background knowledge, which is the best characterization of learning from texts, and use the information for later literacy performance (Pressley, 1998).

Second-Language Writing

Similar to reading, L2 writing can be seen as an outcome of writing abilities and their development (Grabe, 2001b). Research on the theory of L2 writing has provided understanding of the developments and constraints arising from writing (Carrell & Conner, 1991; Belcher & Braine, 1995; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Silva, Leki, & Carson, 1997; Matuda, 1998). Researchers have pointed out constraints on L2 writing and literacy skills in terms of lacking opportunities to practicing L2 writing and the differences in constructive rhetoric. Each of their theories will be discussed in turn as follows.

Lack of Opportunities to Practice Constraints.

Silva, Leki and Carson (1997) pointed out a constraint in which second-language learners often lack practice in the target language, writing especially when the learners

encounter the academic curriculum outside the L2 writing classroom. The L2 writing experiences of second-language learners are insufficient to meet the writing demands of the academic curriculum.

In addition, those learning English as a second language (ESL) also do not have the same command of linguistic structure and vocabulary as English writers (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Although many advanced ESL learners have good learning skills to keep up with the academic curriculum, they also experience disadvantages with language proficiency.

Constructive Rhetoric Constraints. The differences in rhetorical and cultural organization of information and structures of arguments between L1 and L2 also provide constraints on L2 writing (Connor, 1997; Leki, 1997). For example, Japanese students who are learning English are disadvantaged when they construct argumentative writing in English (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Second-language learners have many implicit frames for presenting information and arguments in their mother-language, but the frames do not transfer directly to coherent discursive contexts in the target language (Leki & Carson, 1997). Johns (1997) wrote that a writer's knowledge of appropriate genres in argumentation is constructed out of shared values at many

different levels in various cultures. Thus, complex combinations of background knowledge relate to second-language learners' schema-building and metaphoric competence in L2 learning.

To overcome these constraints, providing second-language learners opportunities for extensive practice and relevant feedback from teachers or peers can be facilitated through instructional tasks (Grabe, 2002). According to Ferris (1997), second-language learners welcome explicit feedback from teachers on constructive rhetoric and linguistic errors. When second-language learners incorporate feedback in their revisions, or receive direct linguistic error correction from teachers, they can improve their L2 writing significantly (Chaudler, 2003).

Moreover, Leki (2002) noted that readers' responses to a writer's text have a strong influence on the writer's motivation for writing. The study conducted by Chaudler (2003) proved that relevant feedback from either teachers or peers enhances second-language learners' motivation for learning and ability to interact with others.

Reading and Writing Relationships

Tierney and Pearson (1983) viewed reading and writing as shared ways of composing. From this

perspective, Hayes (1996) developed the descriptive model of writing processes. In the descriptive model, Hayes (1996) claimed writing processes are a combination of individual cognitive processing, social-context influence, motivation, reading purposes, and writers' background knowledge. His approach incorporates reading into writing. However, the descriptive model of writing processes not only incorporates processing parallels with reading but also specifically includes reading skills as essential components of writing skills. Supporting the descriptive model, Stotsky (1983) wrote that reading has limited impact on improving writing, but writing noticeably improves reading comprehension through tasks such as summarizing and constructive rhetoric analysis.

On the other hand, from the reading perspective, reading and writing relationships are found in the process of reading to write and reading and writing to learn (Grabe, 2001b).

Reading to Write. Reading to write processes present texts' influences on learners' writing (Grabe, 2002). This means that writers go back to texts and read in different ways when they seek specific information, and adapt reading strategies to match expectations of tasks for writing (Perfetti, Rouet, & Britt, 1999). Spivey

(1990) found that good readers were better able to integrate information from source texts for their writing.

Three issues appear to play important roles in the process of reading to write: better readers write better, appropriate use of text information can support better writing, and extensive exposure to reading can improve writing (Grabe, 2001b). McGinley (1992) wrote that skilled second-language readers are able to summarize, organize, select, and connect ideas from reading resources for their writing better than unskilled second-language readers. Second-language learners who can read arguments and understand them better will produce better writing, such as summaries and critiques.

As to the appropriate use of reading texts, Charney and Calson (1995) wrote that reading resources as representative linguistic structural models support writing effectively when they are used appropriately. For example, second-language learners can learn genre information that is useful both for writing and for building schemata in reading tasks (Crowhurst, 1991).

According to Krashen (1984), second-language learners will become better writers through a combination of writing practice and extensive reading. That is, second-language learners have less writing practice in L2

than in L1, and this limited exposure constrains their understanding of discourse organization, alternative planning in writing, experiences with solving rhetorical problems, and basic writing fluency. Supporting extensive exposure to reading resources, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1984) wrote that most second-language learners are not experienced enough at using text resources for their writing. However, they can learn aspects of organizational writing structure based on exposures to reading texts.

Reading and Writing to Learn. "Reading and writing to learn" is a notion about how learning occurs, and how it is practiced effectively through reading and writing (Grabe, 2001b). According to Langer and Applebee (1987), learners learned content information from texts in complex and distinct ways depending on productive task types. In fact, Greene (1993) found that writing from multiple texts facilitated learners' learning in a college history course, and different writing tasks led to different types of learning. Learners used documents differently depending on their previous learning backgrounds, and assigned different informational value to various types of texts depending on their majors.

Reading and Writing Relationships in the L2 Context

Reading and writing relationships in the L2 context relates to the issues of second-language learners' notion of transfer and L2 proficiency (Grabe, 2002). The language threshold hypothesis has influenced these issues (Carrell, 1991). The language threshold is a level of processing that varies depending on tasks, texts, and readers (Lee & Schallert, 1997). According to the hypothesis, L2 proficiency and knowledge impedes positive transfer from L1 in second-language learners' cognitive processing skills until the learners build a relatively stable L2 proficiency (Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995; Snellings, Van Geldern, & De Glopper, 2002).

According to the threshold hypothesis, there is not a specific set of language structures or vocabulary that needs to be mastered first, but L1 knowledge plays a major role in L2 literacy skills (Lee & Schallert, 1997). Until they achieve an advanced level, second-language learners rarely have enough language resources, such as vocabulary and constructive rhetoric, to express their complex ideas in L2 writing. Therefore, second-language learners are strongly dependent on these language resources and syntactical knowledge when writing (Johns, 1997). In

fact, Johns and Mayes (1990) found that low-level learners were more engaged in copying than transforming; advance-level learners were better able to synthesize main ideas into a coherent summary. Sasaki and Hirose (1996) also found that a greater proportion of expository writing ability was accounted for by the L1 knowledge than by L2 writing skills.

The Role of Reading and Writing Tasks in Second Language Acquisition

According to schema theory, teaching reading skills is a process that shows how second-language learners learn grammar, vocabulary and structures of written language by using texts (Hauptman, 2000). If second-language learners do not know how to read texts, they will not be able to express what they want in their writing. Thus, teaching writing skills is also a process that shows how second-language learners decode their schematic knowledge of language and the world by creating texts.

When second-language learners have more background knowledge, they can improve their reading and writing skills (Grabe, 2001a). Urquhart and Weir (1998) also claimed that second-language learners improve reading and writing skills when they have greater background knowledge in the associated tasks. Second-language learners need to

make a connection between the text and their background knowledge in order for comprehension to occur (Kitano, 1990; Lally, 1998; Hauptman, 2000). In reading and writing, a text gives direction to readers and writers about how they should decode and encode meaning from their background knowledge and experiences. Therefore, language teachers should stimulate the learners' various kinds of background knowledge by means of schemata-building to enhance the acquisition of semantic language structure.

Implications for Teaching Reading and Writing Together

Because combination tasks of reading and writing enhance language acquisition, those skills should be taught together (Leki & Carson, 1997). One implication for teaching reading and writing together is extensive reading in combination with writing. Extensive reading increases second-language learners' language resources and knowledge of the world (Stanovich, 1996).

For example, a study conducted by Tsang (1996) examining the effectiveness of extensive reading with writing tasks suggested that the group with extensive reading wrote significantly better essays than the group without extensive reading. The extensive reading group also learned significantly more content information. This

study proved that extensive reading contributes to writing skills and facilitates cognitive processes.

Another implication is the use of multiple texts for reading and writing to learn information from texts (Grabe, 2001). For instance, Gradwohl Nash, Schumacher, and Carlson (1993) found that second-language learners use a main text for establishing a fundamental frame of their writing. They then build on arguments based on the frame with information from the other texts. The use of multiple texts provides foundations for building more complex knowledge. Rouet, Favart, Britt, and Perfetti (1997) noted that task factors strongly influence how second-language learners use multiple texts and shape writing from texts in distinct ways. Therefore, the following facilitate second-language learners' writing skills: reading multiple texts, constructive rhetoric analysis, the use of graphic organizers, discussions about topics, and collaboration work with others.

In addition, what is implied is that extensive reading and the use of multiple texts should include summary writing with relevant feedback on writing. Pressley and Woloshy (1995) noted that writing summaries lead second-language learners to better reading

comprehension, and summary writing is a common reading comprehension strategy.

Summary

This section has reviewed the theory of language, learning, motivation and affective factors, social-context influences, and the background knowledge necessary to build a theoretical framework that connects reading and writing. These two forms of literacy relate closely, and their relationship provides second-language learners a foundation of literacy skills. In addition, these relationships facilitate second-language learners' whole language proficiency in L2 contexts. Therefore, for effective teaching of reading and writing together, extensive reading and the use of multiple texts in various tasks have been introduced instructional strategies in this section.

In summary, this chapter provided a review of literature about the five key concepts of this project: schema theory, vocabulary acquisition, metaphor, metaphoric competence, and reading and writing relationships. These five key aspects of the human cognitive language system explain how people acquire language as tools for daily communication activities.

This literature review provides the foundation for the theoretical framework presented in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The five key concepts discussed in Chapter Two, schema theory, vocabulary acquisition, metaphor, metaphoric competence, and reading-writing relationships, are the main concepts of this project. Each of the five is important for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Japan. They are also related to each other. The relationships that can be created using concepts from the literature review form a theoretical model to improve whole-language proficiency of Japanese high school students who are learning English, especially reading and writing skills as the students' second-language (L2) literacy skills.

In Japan, because many EFL learners want to study academic subjects in countries where English is spoken, they need to increase their academic literacy. So, EFL instruction in Japan should increase literacy skills. The five concepts connected in the theoretical framework promote effective ESL teaching instructions.

Theoretical Model: Cycle of Generating Metaphor

The model, Cycle of Generating Metaphor (see Figure 2) integrates the five key concepts. This model assumes

that schemata which are hierarchically well organized form a web-like network in a person's mental lexicon. Even ⁸⁻¹⁹⁸ metaphors which include idioms each consist of vocabulary words, so vocabulary words are the core of people's cognitive linguistic systems, which are comprised of schemata within the mental lexicon. The mental lexicon contains prototypical linguistic concepts which are organized by people's sociocultural norms as well as their experiences. The prototypical linguistic concepts serve as conceptual metaphors.

Conceptual metaphors can be based on vocabulary words. Schemata for comprehending and producing discourse are consulted by those attempting to understand metaphors. People use schemata when they try to explain their thoughts to others, and try to understand others. In people's cognitive systems, conceptualized schemata are well-organized structures of hierarchical knowledge.

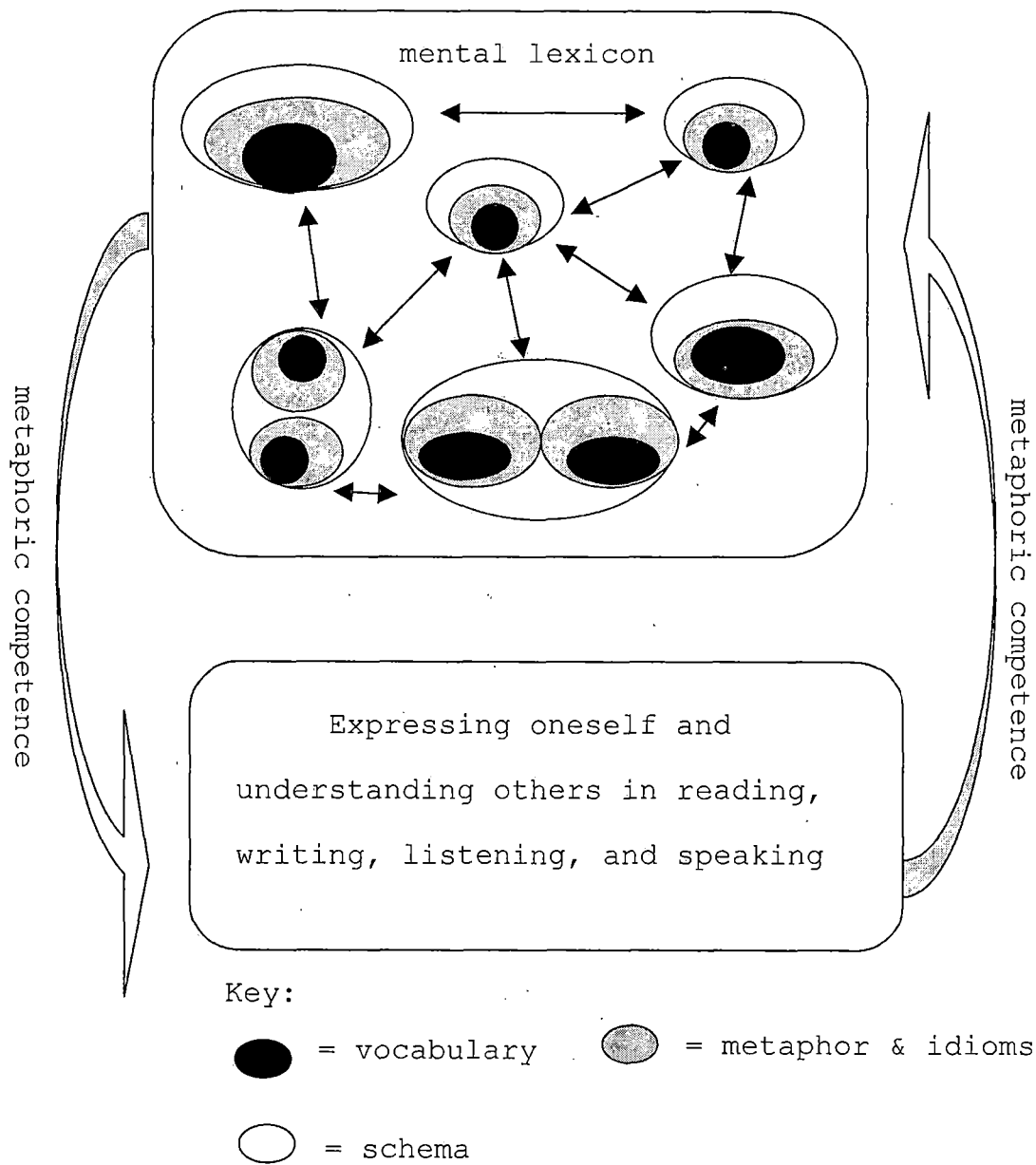


Figure 2. Cycle of Generating Metaphor

Metaphoric competence enables people to express themselves and understand others in the domain of language (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) because

metaphoric competence provides the ability to generate and retrieve items in the mental lexicon. In other words, metaphoric competence facilitates people's cognitive production and comprehension processes in language communications. Metaphoric competence partly consists of reading and writing skills and represents the means of acquiring metaphor. Reading and writing, as literacy skills, are important means for language learners to communicate interpersonally and interpersonally in written discourse. These are also fundamental skills for learners in academic situations.

Second Language Model: Cycle of Generating Metaphor

According to the model Cycle of Generating Metaphor, it is assumed that second-language learners translate new and unfamiliar L2 information as they comprehend and produce text. It is also assumed second-language learners have difficulties during mental translation processing when L2 information does not match their L1 schemata. The problem of second-language learners' metaphoric competence is when the learners unintentionally transfer a different meaning from the source domain to the topic than that which is intended. This means that second-language learners may misunderstand what the interlocutors

intended. Metaphors are often interpreted through second-language learners' native schemata, which makes it difficult for the learners to learn their target language.

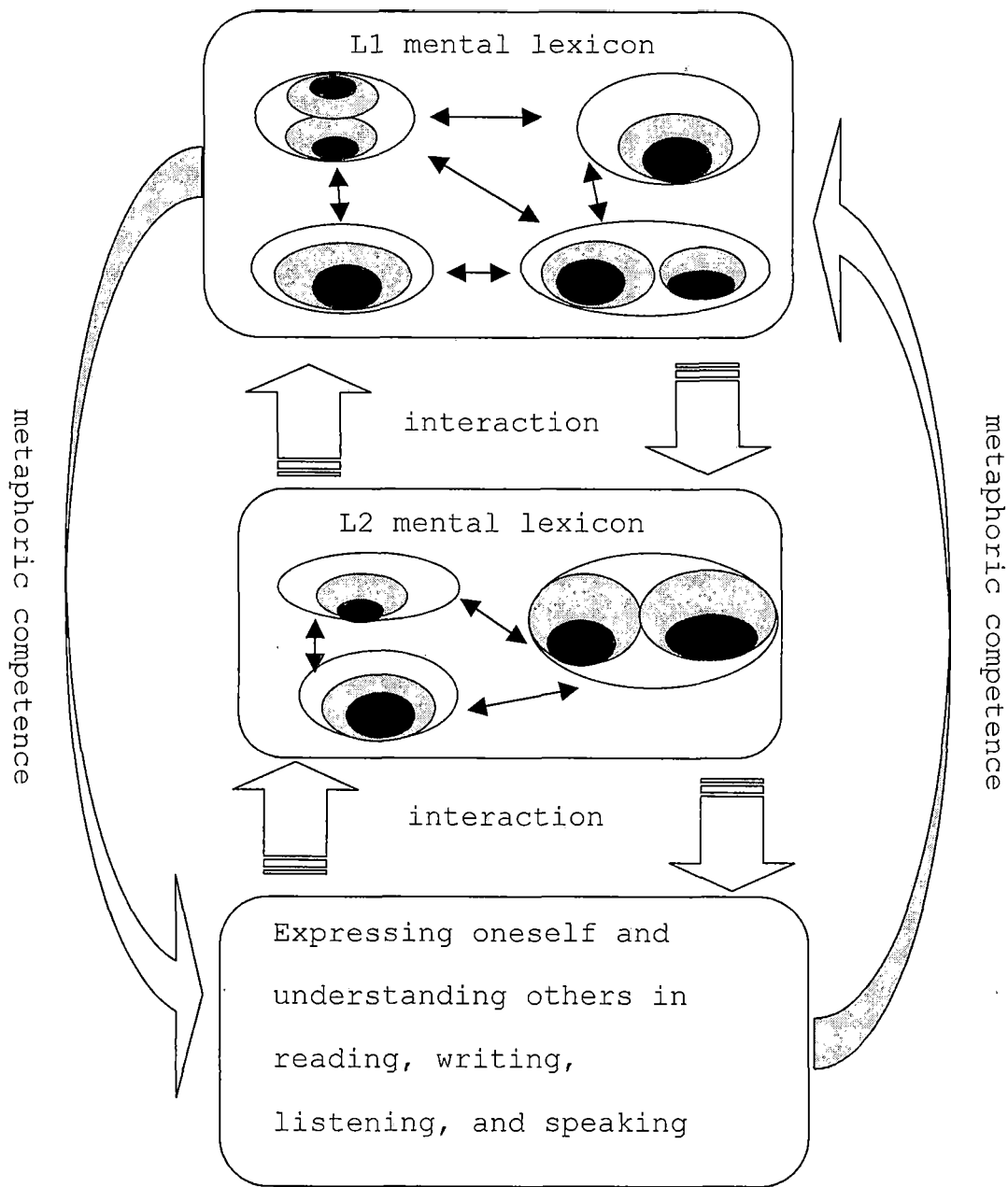
This problem is found especially in second-language learners who attend academic discourses, because lectures are often filled with metaphors. In an American college lecture, for instance, a professor uses many metaphorical expressions including idioms to facilitate students' understanding of the subject. Native-English speakers can understand what the metaphorical expression means because they share some knowledge of schemata and can make predictions based on it. For native-English-speaking students, the metaphors are helpful in understanding the lecture. However, students whose native language is not English do not always have same knowledge of schemata to predict what the metaphorical expressions meaning and misunderstand the point of the lecture. For these students, metaphors do not promote understanding.

To overcome this problem, second-language learners can use a second-language version of the Cycle of Generating Metaphor model when they process incoming and outgoing information (see Figure 3). This model refers to their using literal meaning in their first language (L1) as a key to interpreting the figurative meaning of the

metaphor. In this model, second-language learners perform language comprehension and production through the interaction of the L1 and L2 mental lexicons, instead of transferring each component of the schemata in their lexicon.

Facilitating interactive schema-retrieval processing raises second-language learners' academic competence because those who can process metaphors interactively can also understand situations in which they are involved such as conversations and academic lectures. Therefore, these ability to retrieve schemata affects their comprehension and fluency.

Second-language learners' awareness of metaphor through the interaction of L1 and L2 mental lexicons is important because it helps the learners comprehend and produce appropriate metaphors. If second-language learners are not aware of a metaphor, they will translate it into their L1 literally, and then their responses may miss the point of the context.



Key:

● = vocabulary ● (stippled) = metaphor & idiom

○ = schema

Figure 3. Second-language Model: Cycle of Generating Metaphor

In addition, enhancing metaphoric awareness allows second-language learners to draw their attention to the source domain, or to the origin of unfamiliar figurative expressions. If second-language learners are aware of the metaphors used in a given context, they will make fewer misinterpretations and will be able to ask the meaning when they cannot interpret it. For these reasons, second-language learners need to be aware of metaphor and use their L1 and L2 mental lexicons interactively to comprehend and produce language.

Summary

Within cognitive linguistics, schema theory gives a framework for four concepts (vocabulary acquisition, metaphors, metaphoric competence, and reading and writing relationships) which connect in a practical instructional model, the Cycle of Generating Metaphor. In this model, expanded schemata enhance metaphoric competence, which in turn improves second-language learners' reading and writing skills in L2. During the combination task of reading and writing, second-language learners will promote vocabulary acquisition. Thus, it can be said that the Cycle of Generating Metaphor model can improve learners' literacy skills by facilitating their cognitive retrieval

processes. If the learners do not have suitable literacy skills, they will not be able to complete their studies. Therefore, in the next part, actual lesson plans based on this theoretical framework will be discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR
CURRICULUM DESIGN

Curriculum Organization

The purpose of the curriculum presented in this project is to provide an instructional plan to the teach vocabulary words, including metaphors, based on schema theory. The project is presented as a six lesson unit for students who are learning English in Japan. It is designed to teach students metaphoric competence and schema-building approaches to develop literacy skills so they will be able to apply these approaches in their later studies in higher education.

There are six lesson plans in the Instructional Unit Plan. The first lesson provides an introduction to the theoretical foundations of the schema- and metaphor-based model. This lesson gives teachers the opportunity to review strategies they now use for teaching metaphor, in order to expand students' schematic knowledge of English language and cultures through reading and writing tasks.

In this unit, each lesson features several focus sheets, worksheets, assessment sheets, assignment sheets, and writing rubrics. The lesson plans provide ideas and activities for teaching concepts of metaphor related to

English sociocultural norms. The title of lessons A to F are as follows: Identify Metaphor, It's All in Your Mind, Time Is Money, Sports, Jazz, and The American Family. These samples are designed for real classroom situations in Japan. Teachers can provide only a minimum amount of class time to cover a whole article, so homework assignments are needed.

At the beginning of each lesson, teachers warm up students' memory and reactivate prior knowledge of topics. Students will gain more knowledge through this teaching method because they have time to think about the prior topics in each lesson. In addition to identifying metaphor, lessons B through F provide academic literacy skills for students, through the following lessons: short essay writing, summarizing articles for reading comprehension, writing a research paper, writing a descriptive paper, and writing a comparison paper.

There are three kinds of teaching materials in this unit: the focus sheet containing texts for reading; the worksheet containing the pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities including grammatical drill exercises; and the assessment sheet, containing different items assessing students' comprehension of lessons. In addition, the assignment sheet and the writing rubric are

available at the end of each lesson. The assessment sheet serves as summative assessment for the lesson. The assignment sheet and writing rubric provide opportunities for post-reading activities closely integrated with the teaching process, and serve as tools for review.

From Model to Curriculum

This curriculum design is derived from the model in Chapter Three based on the five key concepts reviewed in Chapter Two. The process represented by the metaphor model provides the basis for designing successful vocabulary acquisition by teaching reading and writing together for students who need to improve their academic literacy skills.

Based on research presented in Chapter Two, vocabulary acquisition and metaphor identification are practiced effectively when students are frequently exposed to context. Therefore, schema-building tasks, which help students to establish L2 schemata for later use, contribute to this curriculum. These include essay writing, peer-review, and extensive reading.

Essay Writing. Students are required to write essays throughout this entire unit. The first two lessons, A and B, do not contain reading tasks for writing

essays. However, students need to write an essay based on the lesson to show their comprehension of it. The rest of the four lessons, from C to F, require students to read in order to write essays. Students need to integrate their thoughts and comprehension of the lesson into their essays.

Peer-Review. Students are required to submit their writing to peers before submitting it for a grade. Because peer-review tasks enhance students' metaphoric competence, they will facilitate schema building at each level of learning. During peer review, students will be exposed to reading materials and experience metaphorical expressions which are derived from everyday life. In addition, because peer review increases students' academic skills, such as critical thinking and negotiating, it is necessary to incorporate them in the curriculum.

Extensive Reading. By exposing students to various kinds of reading materials for writing, students can activate their schemata and facilitate acquisition of academic literacy in their target language. Therefore, each lesson in this unit contains at least one article upon which a required essay is based during instructional time. The articles gradually increase in number and length.

In summary, integrating three aspects of schema building into vocabulary acquisition facilitates students' acquisition of academic literacy skills. Throughout this unit plan, students are exposed to metaphorical expressions, so teachers are encouraged to use metaphors while instructing lessons. In addition, because relevant feedback facilitates students' whole-language proficiency, such as syntactic skills, teachers should provide appropriate feedback to students' questions. This forms part of the formative assessment during the unit of study. The assessment design is discussed in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT AND CONCLUSIONS

Assessment

According to Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002), "Assessment is a process for determining the current level of a learner's performance or knowledge" (p. 180). In this regard, the important considerations of assessment discussed in this chapter are reliability and validity for scoring. These considerations are made in building models of language proficiency which can guide test construction and validations. The assessment sheets and writing rubric used in the unit are designed to satisfy these considerations and measure the progress of students' language proficiency development.

Purpose for Assessment

The assessment of the unit has been designed to measure students' language proficiency and attitude toward learning. The purpose for assessment in the unit is checking and scoring students' comprehension of the lessons. It is important for teachers to score students' work because students need a certain level of English proficiency, such as vocabulary words and knowledge of English syntax to score well on entrance examinations for

admission to higher education in Japan. Students require high-intensity, rapid-progress English learning for that purpose. Teachers need to score students' work carefully monitor their achievement of English proficiency.

In addition, assessment also corresponds to language and content objectives of the lessons which intend to facilitate students' sociocultural understanding of English. Many Japanese students want to pursue higher education in countries where English are spoken, so they need a high degree of American or English culture comprehension. Assessment enables teachers to check students' sociocultural understanding of English. Therefore, students are assessed with a variety assessment types provide the bases for monitoring sociocultural understanding in the unit.

Methods of Assessment

Performance-based assessment and teacher-made tests and rubrics are used in the unit. Performance-based assessment is "testing that corresponds directly to what is taught in the classroom" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p. 184). Performance-based assessment not only assesses students' achievement but also allows teachers to evaluate their instruction. Teacher-made tests and rubrics are used to "assess skills in reading comprehension, oral

fluency, grammatical accuracy, writing proficiency, and listening" (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002, p. 187). By using teacher-made tests and rubrics, teachers can check the attainment of objectives. As seen in the Table 1, the assessment of the lessons have been developed based on performance-based and teacher-made tests.

Each lesson contains essay-writing tasks based on teacher-made writing rubrics because the tasks are the outcome of reading and writing performance and enable teachers to assess how students dedicate learning. On the other hand, students can receive feedback from teachers and peers through writing rubrics. This interaction helps students review their weak areas and motivates further study of English.

The function of teacher-made tests, such as assessment sheets, is to provide teachers with supplemental ways of assessing students' performance on language objectives which are considered essential elements of proficiency for the entrance examinations. In Lesson A, the assessment sheet is used for assess a literal level of students' comprehension of the overall theme of the unit. Students are assessed in their ability to use English at a personal level in Lessons C, D, E, and F.

The basis for the assessments is for teachers to observe whether there is a need to improve students' English proficiency to a certain level. This ensures that by the end of the six lessons, students gain necessary language proficiency and sociocultural knowledge of English. Careful assessment helps students to enjoy language learning and can continue this enjoyment in their further education.

Table 1. Types of Assessment

Lesson	Method of Assessment	Content of Assessment
A	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Reading comprehension Topic of lesson
B	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Essay on content of lesson
C	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Summarizing Essay on content of lesson
D	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Making sentences Essay on content of lesson
E	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Vocabulary quiz Essay on content of lesson
F	Performance-based assessment Teacher-made test & writing rubric	Reading comprehension quiz Essay on content of lesson

Conclusions

Even though developing whole-English-language proficiency is important for students, English education in Japan has traditionally employed the grammar-translation method. The method does not contribute overall development of students' English proficiency. For example, after graduating high school, students who go to study abroad where English is spoken realize that there is a gap between Japanese and English metaphorical expressions based on sociocultural norms. They need to adjust their concepts of the world. Schema-building can help students' through all aspects of language learning (grammar, function, usage, and sociocultural understanding), and proficiency (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) in their target language. Vocabulary acquisition and metaphoric competence is enhanced in reading and writing tasks for effective schema-building instruction. The schema-building approach is practical, communicative, and consequential for students.

The five key concepts (schema theory, vocabulary acquisition, metaphor, metaphoric competence, and reading and writing relationships) were reviewed from various aspects of second-language learning in Chapter Two. In

Chapter Three, the theoretical framework was proposed and applied to the curriculum design in Chapter Four. This chapter described the assessment of the unit. The sample unit for schema-building instruction is presented in Appendix A. This sample unit integrates language learning to develop language proficiency, based on schema-building tasks. It is hoped that this project can provide EFL teachers with insight to provide practical, understandable, and purposeful instruction for their English classes.

APPENDIX
SCHEMA-BUILDING INSTRUCTION

Lesson Plan A

Identifying Metaphor

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphors .
2. To increase general knowledge about metaphors
3. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to the context

Language Objectives:

1. To identify metaphors
2. To write metaphorical expressions

Materials: Focus Sheet A-1, Worksheet A-2, A-3, Assessment Sheet A-4, Assignment Sheet A-5, Writing Rubric A-6, a box, items (a cup, an apple, a light bulb, a candle, a hammer, a washrag, a hair curler, a pipe, a paper clip, a pencil, some postage stamps, and so on)

Warm-up:

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet A-1
2. The teacher holds up the items in the box for the class to view and gives sample metaphors based on those items, such as an idea is a light bulb, life is the flame of a candle, and so on
3. The teacher asks students for metaphors, and students write metaphors on Worksheet A-2
4. The teacher asks how many students have heard of these metaphors

Task Chain 1: Identifying metaphors

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet A-3.
2. In groups of four, students work on the Worksheet A-3.
3. Groups share their lists with the class.
4. In the group, students discuss what they needed to know in order to formulate their lists.
5. Groups present the overall structure of their lists and the particular correspondences within Worksheet A-2.
6. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet A-1 and explains what a metaphor is.

7. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet A-4.
8. After students finish Assessment Sheet A-4, the teacher collects it.

Task Chain 2: Writing metaphorical expressions

1. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet A-5, and Writing Rubric A-6
2. Students work on the assignment sheet as their homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students work on Assessment Sheet A-4 (20 points).
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet A-5 based on Writing Rubric A-6 (30 points).
3. Teacher assesses students based on the total score of the above.

Criteria for Scoring:

50-47	46-43	42-39	38-35	34-0
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See Teacher

Focus Sheet A-1

Defining a metaphor

The work of George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, Metaphors We Live By (1980) undermines the very basis of the literal/figurative distinction in language. They demonstrate that metaphor is not a special use of language but pervades all interaction. They claim that metaphor in language is the result of the analogical nature of human conceptualization. They said that people's ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which people think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Metaphor is possible in language because it is present in the mind. To demonstrate this, Lakoff and Johnson take the concept "love" and note that it is often described in English in terms of "magic."

For example,
She *cast her spell* over me.
The *magic* is gone.
I was *spellbound*.
She had me *hypnotized*.
He has me *in a trance*.
I was *entranced* by him.
I am *charmed* by her.
She is *bewitching*.

The words in italics all refer to the semantic domain of magic, not love. The magic lexemes are transferred to the domain of love. When confronted with this phenomenon, people often speak of figurative use, but this use is not necessarily special but pervades everyday language. Moreover, when an analogy is productive, i.e., when people have a multitude of expressions which derive from the same analogy, people can identify a conceptual metaphor: in this case, love is magic.

As to those expressions, "Those are *high stakes*," "He is *bluffing*," "He is *holding all the aces*," "The *odds are against me*," and "That is *the luck of the draw*," Lakoff and Johnson suggest that they are expressions which emerge from the same cognitive metaphor, i.e., life is a gambling game. In other words, people talk about life in terms of games of cards, luck, and stakes, though there is no reason why they should necessarily speak of life in this way. From the cognitive metaphor "life is a gambling game," people can derive a variety of expressions as if there existed a

Focus Sheet A-1 (Continue)

continuum of figurativeness made possible because of the original conceptual metaphor.
Source: Ponterott, 1994, p. 2

Worksheet A-2

Write the object(s) in the left column which can be represented "concept is like an object." Complete the list of the qualities shared by the object and the concept.

For example,

Concept	Object
Mind/Brain	Sponge
Absorbs knowledge, holds knowledge, can be washed, dries up when not used	Absorbs liquid, holds liquid, can be rinsed, dries up when not used

Concept	Object

Worksheet A-3

Complete the following lists with the ways in which the concept is like and not like, and explain why.

concept	like	not like
Anger is		

Why is it like/not like anger?

Time is		
---------	--	--

Why is it like/not like time?

An idea is		
------------	--	--

Why is it like/not like an idea?

An argument is		
----------------	--	--

Why is it like/not like an argument?

Assessment Sheet A-4

Exercise I

There are many ways of conceptualizing "love." (10 points)

- a. Love is a physical force (electromagnetic, gravitational, and so on).
- b. Love is magic.
- c. Love is war.
- d. Love is madness.
- e. Love is a patient.

In the following expressions, identify the conceptual metaphor that structures the expression by entering a letter (a-e) in the empty box.

1	I am crazy about her.		6	There were sparks.	
2	I was spellbound.		7	The marriage is dead-it can't be revived.	
3	Their marriage is on its last legs.		8	He is known for his many rapid conquests	
4	I could feel the electricity between us.		9	I am just wild about her.	
5	He fled from her advances.		10	The atmosphere around them is always charged.	

Exercise II

Underline all metaphorical expressions in the following sentences which refer to the conceptual metaphor "anger is heat and body is container for emotions." (10 points)

- A. You make my blood boil.
- B. Let her stew.
- C. She got all steamed up.

Assessment Sheet A-4 (Continue)

- D. He is just blowing off steam.
- E. He erupted.
- F. He boiled over.
- G. He blew his top.
- H. I cannot keep my anger bottled up anymore.
- I. His temper flared up.
- J. His eyes smoldered with rage.

Writing Rubric A-6

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/3	/3
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	/3	/3
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/3	/3
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/3	/3
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/3	/3
Total Score:		/15	/15

Scoring Levels: 3- Excellent 2- Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comments:

Lesson Plan B

It's All in Your Mind

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphor
2. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to the context
3. To built schemata related to emotions

Language Objectives:

1. To build content schema knowledge related to anger
2. To incorporate metaphorical expressions into use
3. To increase the knowledge of idiomatic expressions related to mind
4. To build metaphorical schemata related to conceptual metaphors
5. To use metaphorical expression in the actual context

Materials: Focus Sheet B-1, Worksheet B-2, B-3, B-4, B-5, Assignment Sheet B-6, Writing Rubric B-7

Warm-up: The teacher gives a specific example of a situation in which he/she gets angry. Then the teacher asks students how they would feel in that situation.

Task Chain 1: Building content schema knowledge related to anger

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet B-1.
2. Students work on Worksheet B-1.
3. In pairs, students compare their answers with their partner when they finish Worksheet B-1.
4. The teacher asks students if there is someone who gets angry easily in the class.

Task Chain 2: Incorporating metaphorical expressions into use

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet B-3.
2. Students work on Worksheet b-3.
3. The teacher gives feedback on Worksheet B-3.

Task Chain 3: Increasing the knowledge of idiomatic expressions related to mind

1. The teacher clarifies any expressions that students do not know during the activity.
2. The teacher asks students to turn over Focus Sheet B-1 and distributes Worksheet D-4.
3. Students work on Worksheet D-4.
4. The teacher gives feedback on Worksheet D-4.

Task Chain 4: Building metaphorical schemata related to conceptual metaphors

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet B-5 and asks students to do Exercise 1.
2. Students work on Worksheet B-5.
3. The teacher gives feedback on the exercise.
4. The teacher writes on the board "Put your mind to the next exercise" and asks students what they think it means.
5. Students work on Worksheet B-5. The teacher gives feedback on Worksheet B-5.

Task Chain 5: Using metaphorical expression in actual Context

1. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet B-6 and Writing Rubric B-7.
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet B-6 as homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students work on Assignment Sheet B-6 based on Writing Rubric B-7 (15 points).
2. The teacher assesses students based on the score of the Writing Rubric B-7 (15 points).

Criteria for Scoring:

30-28	27-25	24-22	21-19	18-0
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See Teacher

Focus Sheet B-1

The Mind Questionnaire

Interview your partner. Discover some characteristics of his or her mind.

1. Are you good at remembering names and faces of people?
2. How do you remember things? Do you have any special tricks that help you keep things in mind?
3. Do you often have a piece of music or lots of useless information stuck in your head?
4. If you are very stressed, do you have any methods to empty your mind and relax?
5. Do you feel you have an open mind or a closed mind to new ideas?

Worksheet B-2

The Anger Meter

How angry would you get in these situations? Write a number next to each situation. Then, compare your answers with your partner.

0-1-2-3-4-5

not at all angry

extremely angry

- a. Someone moves in front of you in a queue.
- b. You are stuck in traffic for an hour.
- c. You are given the wrong change in a shop and you do not notice.
- d. You lose some money or your wallet.
- e. Someone makes up stories about you.
- f. Someone makes a comment or expresses a view that you completely disagree with.
- g. Someone insults you in the street or calls you names.
- h. You make a silly mistake.
- i. You see something you think is unfair but you cannot do anything about it.
- j. You think someone is taking advantage of you.
- k. You are talking to someone and they are not listening to you.

Source: Clandifield, 2003, p. 2

Worksheet B-3

What People Say

This is what some native-English speakers said in answer to the questions of the Anger Meter. Match the answers to the situations in the Anger Meter.

- A. "I hate it when that happens, especially if it's someone I know who is spreading lies. It makes my blood boil."
- B. "The other day that happened to me. What is worse, this woman just took my place without saying anything and denied it. I just blew up at her."
- C. "I am quite confrontational, and I am likely to start a heated argument with someone, especially over political issues."
- D. "If it is a hot day and I am going to work then yes, it is very possible that I will lose my cool."
- E. "Oh yes, the other day my boyfriend did that to me and a huge argument erupted. He never pays attention when I am talking to him."
- F. "I am not very hot-tempered, so I do not think I would get that angry. It is life I suppose and I would just pay more attention the next time."

Worksheet B-4

Mind The Prepositions

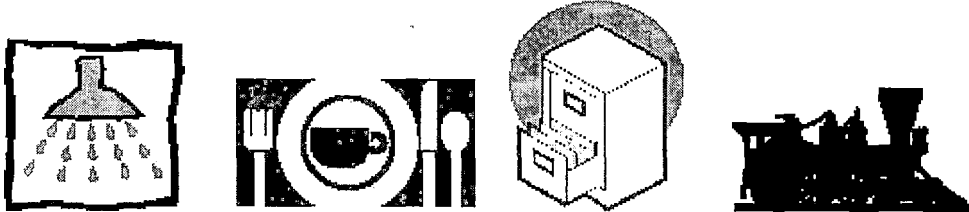
Complete the following sentences with the correct preposition. Some do not need a preposition. Do this WITHOUT looking at the questionnaire.

1. The memory is still fresh _____ my mind.
2. There were some doubts _____ the back of her mind.
3. My holiday was great. I really emptied _____ my mind of all my troubles at home.
4. You worry too much about things. Push it _____ of your mind.
5. Listen carefully, because you have to keep _____ mind that this is on the next text.
6. His name was forever fixed _____ her mind.

Worksheet B-5

Exercise 1. The Metaphor for the Mind

Look at the examples on Worksheet D-5. Which of these pictures is the best metaphor for the mind in English? Choose one of these pictures and explain why you think the picture represents the best choice.



Exercise 2. Expressions You Should Keep in Mind

Look at the following expressions in English that use the word "mind." Match them to their definition.

1. Are you out of your mind? You cannot go swimming in this terrible weather. _____
 2. I cannot believe she said that. I am going to give her a piece of my mind. _____
 3. He has changed his mind and does not want to help us now. _____
 4. Yes, I would love a cup of coffee. You read my mind. _____
 5. I felt comfortable with them because I could always speak my mind. _____
 6. I wanted to invite him, but I was so busy that it slipped my mind. _____
 7. Come to the cinema with us. It will take your mind off your exams. _____
 8. Are you coming or not? Make up your mind. _____
- a. To change your opinion about something
 - b. To know what someone is thinking
 - c. To forget
 - d. Crazy
 - e. To make a decision
 - f. To say exactly what you think or feel

Worksheet B-5 (Continue)

- g. To say what you think especially if you are
angry
- h. To make you think of something else

Assignment Sheet B-6

Choose one of the situations from Anger Meter. Write a short story about it (500 words); include some of the new expressions you have learned from this lesson (minimum 2).

Note: before you submit your final draft of this writing assignment, you should do peer-review with your partner based on the Writing Rubric (15 points).

Writing Rubric B-7

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/3	/3
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	/3	/3
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/3	/3
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/3	/3
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/3	/3
Total Score:		/15	/15

Scoring Levels: 3- Excellent 2- Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comments:

Lesson Plan C

Time Is Money

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphor
2. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to the context
3. To build schemata about time in American and Japanese cultures
4. To write a summary for reading comprehension

Language Objectives:

1. To be familiar with English proverbs
2. To use metaphors in actual contexts
3. To summarize a text
4. To write personal opinions based on this topic

Materials: Focus Sheet C-1, C-2, C-3, Worksheet C-4, Assessment Sheet C-6, Assignment Sheet C-7, Writing Rubric C-8

Warm-up: The teacher writes the puzzle, "X=24Y=1440Z=86400ZZ," and asks what X, Y, Z is. (The answer is day, hour, minutes, and seconds.)

Task Chain 1: Being familiar with English proverbs

1. The teacher asks students to work on Exercise 1. "Time Proverbs" on Worksheet C-4 in pairs.
2. The teacher asks students what the proverbs mean, whether they can rephrase to check the students' understanding of the proverb.

Task Chain 2: Using metaphors in actual contexts

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet C-1 and explains the metaphor "time is money" in American culture.
2. The teacher distributes Worksheet C-5.
3. In pairs, students work on Worksheet C-5.
4. Each pair shares their dialogue with the class.

Task Chain 3: Summarizing a text

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet C-2.
2. The teacher explains how to summarize a text.
3. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet C-6.
4. Students work on Assessment Sheet C-6.

Task Chain 4: Writing personal opinions based on this topic

1. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet C-7.
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet C-7 based on Writing Rubric C-8 as their homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students work on Assessment Sheet C-6 (30 points).
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet C-7 based on Writing Rubric C-8 (30 points).
3. Teacher assesses students based on the total score of the above.

Criteria for Scoring:

60-57	56-53	52-50	49-47	46-0
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See Teacher

Focus Sheet C-1

Time is money

In English, time is like money, or like something that you buy and use. Look at the following expressions: We need to buy some more time for our assignment.

I cannot afford to spend any more time on this.

It was worth waiting for.

This is wasting my precious time.

In *Metaphors We Live By*, George Lakoff and Mark Johnson (1980, p. 7) wrote,

Time in our culture is a valuable commodity. It is a limited resource that we use to accomplish our goals. Because of the way that the concept of work has developed in modern Western culture, where work is typically associated with the time it takes and time is precisely quantified, it has become customary to pay people by the hour, week, or year. In our culture TIME IS MONEY in many ways: telephone message units, hourly wages, hotel room rates, yearly budgets, interest on loans, and paying your debt to society by "serving time." These practices are relatively new in the history of the human race, and by no means do they exist in all cultures. They have arisen in modern industrialized societies and structure our basic everyday activities in a very profound way. Corresponding to the fact that we act as if time is a valuable commodity—a limited resource, even money—we conceive of time that way. Thus we understand and experience time as the kind of thing that can be spent, wasted, budgeted, invested wisely or poorly, saved, or squandered.

Focus Sheet C-2

Summarizing

Summarizing means taking only the most important ideas and information from a reading and putting them in your own words. Try fitting your summaries on index cards.

To prepare to write a summary, first photocopy the article or essay to be summarized. Next, underline or highlight key words in the photocopy. Number the major points sequentially, and make notes for yourself in the margins. Then isolate each major point and its key supporting points, and make a list of these points. Here is the method of summarizing.

1. Find the main idea. Review all the major points in your list and choose the single idea that best expresses the central issue of the article. The main idea (or thesis) often appears at the end or at the beginning of the article. Use the remaining major points as secondary ideas to support the main idea.
2. When you begin writing, set the article aside and work from your list. Use your own words in the summary. If you must, refer to the article to quote only those phrases that cannot be better expressed in your own words.
3. Organize your summary. In the first sentence state the thesis. Then, proceed in a logical manner, presenting the material in the same order as in the original.
4. Keep your opinions to yourself. Record objectively what you read. Even though you use your own words, do not introduce any of your own ideas.
5. Make your summary concise. Your final draft should be approximately 10% to 20% of the length of the original article. For a 4- to 5-page magazine or journal article, your summary should be about 250 to 350 words.

Focus Sheet C-2 (Continue)

6. Compare what you have written with the original. If you find you have omitted major ideas, or included minor details, revise your summary. Use subordination and/or coordination to clarify relationships between ideas.
7. Include bibliographic information. Do not include this information in the actual summary, but put it at the top of the summary.

Source: Writing Center at Idaho State University, 2003,
Summarize

Focus Sheet C-3

The Franklin Theory of Relativity

When I first came to live in Japan in 1961, people who arrived 15 or 20 minutes late to an appointment would laugh and say: "Well, I'm on Japanese time." That was before the great surge of economic growth of the 1960s; nobody says it anymore, and few remember that the expression ever existed. Probably every country had a similar joke during the period when it was being forced to shift from nature-based time to parsimonious, second-squeezing industrial time; what might be called Franklin Time.

Benjamin Franklin's "Time is Money" is a theory of relativity that had far more import for our daily lives than "Matter is Energy." This brilliant, pithy maxim projects a world in which the notion that "there is... a time for every purpose under heaven" becomes nonsense at best and shirking at worst. Franklin time is not for "every purpose," but only for one. Time is exchangeable for money; it is a commodity like shoes or soap and using it for any other purpose is as wasteful as throwing shoes or soap in the dump rather than putting them on the market.

If you are making a chair there is a time when the job is done, but if the game is to exchange time (your lifetime) for money, there is no such thing as "done." Money in principle knows no limit: two dollars has twice the value of one, ten dollars the times the value, a hundred dollars a hundred times than value, and so on to infinity. As to chairs in the house have great use value, and the number would not double that value, and a hundred chairs would make most houses unlivable. But if you mean to exchange your chairs for money, then the more you have the better, up to what the market will bear.

Focus Sheet C-3 (Continue)

Similarly with time: it is natural and good to use some of your time for work and some for the other things of life; but if time is money, i.e., if time's only value is its exchange value, then the principle of money—the principle of limitlessness—comes back to apply to time. There is no longer any limit to the amount of time one should spend (as the saying goes) working or preparing to work, or training for work, or improving one's health for the sake of work. Any time applied to some other purpose, or to no particular purpose, is wasted. Which brings us to the first corollary to Franklin's Relativity Theory: Idleness is Guilt.

Of course the workaholic personality takes its form in this environment, but this is not just a matter of workaholics. When the principle Time is Money comes to dominate the working time of a society it dominates the non-working time as well. It is a standard by which all human activities—all expenditures of time—can be evaluated and judged as useful or useless. It is no longer one way to think of time or one way to use time it is time itself. The anarchist (made famous by Conrad's The Secret Agent) who, some 100 years ago, tried to blow up the Greenwich Observatory in London because he thought he could destroy industrial civilization by blowing up Universal Time, was surely mad; but he was also on to something.

Yes, Mr. Ignatieff, globalization is the last, or anyway the most recent, stage of enclosure, and humanitarian intervention is its police. Now, as the, the commons is a barrier to free trade, subsistence farming is a barrier to free trade, folk medicine is a barrier to free trade (until you can get the folk medicines patented in Washington, DC) and time that is not exchangeable for money is a barrier to free trade.

Focus Sheet C-3 (Continue)

Trade liberalization requires not only that land, labor, craft and custom be transformed into commodities: time also must be transformed into a commodity, liberated for trade. Global trade liberalization aims at spreading to every nook and cranny of the earth the situation that already exists in the overdeveloped societies, where all memory of other forms of time has been erased, and there is nothing left but to haggle about the price: "How much per hour?"

Source: Lummis, 2002, pp.1-3

Worksheet C-4

Match the two halves of the proverbs and write the meaning of the phrases:

1. Time flies...	a. saves nine.
2. The early bird...	b. what you can do today.
3. Never put off to tomorrow...	c. gets the worm.
4. A stitch in time...	d. when you're having fun.

Answers:

1- , 2- , 3- , 4- , 5-

Meaning

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Worksheet C-5

Choose four of the following examples of the "time is money" metaphor and write three four-line dialogues that include each examples;

- You are *wasting* my time.
- This gadget will *save* you hours.
- I do not *have the time to give* you.
- How do you *spend your time* these days?
- That flat tire cost me an hour.
- I have *invested* a lot of time in her.
- I do not *have enough time to spare* for that.
- You are *running out* of time.
- You need to *budget* your time.
- Put aside* some time for ping-pong.
- Is that worth your *while*?
- Do you have much time *left*?
- He is living on *borrowed* time.
- You do not use your time *profitably*.
- I *lost* a lot of time when I got sick.
- Thank you for* your time.

Dialogue 1

Dialogue 2

Assessment Sheet C-6

Summarize Lummis's article by looking in the guide to summarizing Focus Sheet B-2. Put the information you learned from reading the article into summary format. You should have three summaries that focus on the main areas of the article: paragraphs 1,2,3, paragraph 4, and paragraph 5.

Paragraphs 1, 2, 3 (10 points)

Paragraph 4 (10 Points)

Paragraph 5 (10 points)

Assignment Sheet C-7

Writing A Research paper

What do you think about Lummis's article? Write your opinions including answers for following questions:

1. What do you think of the idea that time is money? Is it true?
2. Does Japanese have the same or similar expressions?
3. Do you think that society is obsessed with time?

Note: Before you submit your final draft of this writing assignment, you should do peer-review with your partner based on the Writing Rubric (15 points).

Writing Rubric C-8

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/3	/3
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	/3	/3
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/3	/3
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/3	/3
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/3	/3
Total Score:		/15	/15

Scoring Levels: 3- Excellent 2- Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comments:

Lesson Plan D

Sports

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphors
2. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to context
3. To build schemata about one part of the English culture: Sports
4. To write an essay after reading multiple texts

Language Objectives:

1. To increase vocabulary related to sports
2. To use the words and phrases related to sports in actual context
3. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to sports
4. To write a research paper based on this lesson

Materials: Focus Sheet D-1, D-2, Worksheet D-3, D-4, D-5, Assessment Sheet D-6, Assignment Sheet D-7, Writing Rubric D-8

Warm-up: The teacher writes the word "football" on the board and asks students to call out words that they associate with "football." When there are around ten words on the board, the teacher writes "American football" and asks students to do the same. Then, the teacher explains that in this lesson they will be looking at language which is associated with sports.

Task Chain 1: Increasing vocabulary related to sports

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet D-3.
2. Students work on Worksheet D-3.
3. The teacher explains that all these words on Worksheet D-3 are related to hitting or killing and draws attention to the Metaphor Box.

Task Chain 2: Using the words and phrases related to sports in actual context

1. The teacher distributes Worksheet D-4.
2. The teacher asks students whether they know about the Champions League. If they do not know, explains that the Champions League is a European football

league, in which the top teams from each country play against each other.

3. Students work on Exercise 1.
4. In pairs, students check their answers.
5. Students work on Exercise 2.
6. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet D-6.
7. Students work on Assessment Sheet D-6.
8. After students finish Assessment Sheet D-6, the teacher collects it.

Task Chain 3: Increasing vocabulary knowledge related to sports

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet D-1.
2. In pair, students role-play the text (Focus Sheet D-1).
3. The teacher distributes Worksheet D-5, and students work on it.
4. The teacher asks students to guess the meaning of expressions in the text.
5. Volunteer students answer the questions.

Task Chain 4: Writing a research paper based on this lesson

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet D-2 and explains how to write a research paper.
2. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet D-7 and Writing Rubric D-8.
3. Students work on Assignment Sheet D-7 based on Writing Rubric as their homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students work on Assessment Sheet D-6 (20 points).
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet D-7 based on Writing Rubric D-8 (50 points).
3. The teacher assesses students based on the total score of the above.

Criteria for Scoring:

70-67	66-63	62-59	58-55	54-
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See Teacher

Focus Sheet D-1

Sports Idioms

In a typical office somewhere in New York..

Bob: Well, is Trevisos going to play ball or are we going to strike out on this deal?

Pete: The latest locker talk is that our game plan is a real contender for the contract.

Bob: Yeah, the other team has two strikes against it after they fumbled last week.

Pete: They had a great chance of scoring but I think Trevisos thought they weren't up to scratch on some of the details.

Bob: They pretty much put themselves into a no-win situation by stalling for time on the figures from Smith's and Co. If we can get to home at the next meeting I think that we should be able to take the ball and run.

Pete: If our numbers are right, we should be able to call the shots from here.

Bob: We just need to jockey ourselves into position to close the deal.

Pete: Make sure that you take along your team players next week. I want to be sure that everyone is playing with a full deck and that everyone can field any question asked.

Bob: I'll take Shirley and Harry along. They are no second stringers; they can present the ballpark figures and then I will bring it home.

Source: About, 2003, p. 2

Focus Sheet D-2

Writing Research Paper

If you take notes efficiently, you can read with more understanding and also save time and frustration when you come to write your research paper. These are three main principles.

1. Know what kind of ideas you need to record.

Focus your approach to the topic before you start detailed research. Then you will read with a purpose in mind, and you will be able to sort out relevant ideas.

- First, review the commonly known facts about your topic, and also become aware of the range of thinking and opinions on it. Review your class notes and textbook and browse in an encyclopedia or other reference work.
- Try making a preliminary list of the subtopics you would expect to find in your reading. These will guide your attention and may come in handy as labels for notes.
- Choose a component or angle that interests you, perhaps one on which there is already some controversy. Now formulate your research question. It should allow for reasoning as well as gathering of information -not just what the proto-Iroquoians ate, for instance, but how valid the evidence is for early introduction of corn. You may even want to jot down a tentative thesis statement as a preliminary answer to your question.
- Then you will know what to look for in your research reading: facts and theories that help answer your question, and other people's opinions about whether specific answers are good ones.

Focus Sheet D-2 (Continue)

2. Don't write down too much.

Your essay must be an expression of your own thinking, not a patchwork of borrowed ideas. Plan therefore to invest your research time in understanding your sources and integrating them into your own thinking. Your note cards or note sheets will record only ideas that are relevant to your focus on the topic; and they will mostly summarize rather than quote.

- Copy out exact words only when the ideas are memorably phrased or surprisingly expressed—when you might use them as actual quotations in your essay.
- Otherwise, express ideas in your own words. Paraphrasing word by word is a waste of time. Choose the most important ideas and write them down as labels or headings. Then fill in with a few sub-points that explain or exemplify.
- Don't depend on underlining and highlighting. Find your own words for notes in the margin (or on "sticky" notes).

3. Label your notes intelligently

Whether you use card or pages for note-taking, take notes in a way that allows for later use.

—Save bother later by developing the habit of recording bibliographic information in a master list when you begin looking at each source (don't forget to note book and journal information on photocopies). Then you can quickly identify each note by the author's name and page number, when you refer to sources in the essay you can fill in details of publication easily from your master list. Keep a format guide handy.

- Try as far as possible to put notes on separate cards or sheets. This will let you label the topic of each note. Not only will that keep your note-

Focus Sheet D-2 (Continue)

taking focused, but it will also allow for grouping and synthesizing of ideas later. It is especially satisfying to shuffle notes and see how the conjunctions create new ideas—yours.

- Leave lots of space in your notes for comments of your own: questions and reactions as you read, second thoughts and cross-references when you look back at what you've written. These comments can become a virtual first draft of your paper.

Source: Writing center at University of Wisconsin-Madison, 2003, Research Paper

Worksheet D-3

Winning is Killing or Hitting

Look at these words and check that you understand their meaning. You can use dictionaries to find out the meanings of the words.

words	meanings
to knock out	
to beat	
to thrash	
to hammer	
to clobber	
to annihilate	
to slaughter	

Metaphor Box

In English, winning a competition is like hitting or killing your opponent. Losing is like being injured.

Worksheet D-4

Champions League Football Results

Manchester United 3	Real Madrid 0
Bayern Munich 0	Locomotiv Moscow 2
Paris Saint Germain 3	Glasgow Celtic 5
Juventus 2	Sporting Lisbon 3

Exercise 1

Read the scores and circle the correct words to make the sentences true.

1. Manchester United threshed/were thrashed by Real Madrid three to nothing.
2. Bayern Munnich/Locomotive Moscow was annihilated in last night's match.
3. Paris Saint Germain knocked out/were knocked out by Glasgow Celtic, losing five-two.
4. Juventus beat/were beaten by Sporting Lisbon in an exciting match which ended in extra time.

Exercise 2

Work with a partner. You are a sports commentator for ESPN sports network. Read out the sentences above in your best pronunciation.

Worksheet D-5

Sports Idioms

Guess the meaning of the idioms and expressions from the text (Focus Sheet D-1). Then, share your answers with the class. The origins of these expressions are in the parenthesis as a hint.

Idioms & Expressions	Your Interpretations	Others' Interpretations
going to play ball (baseball)		
strike out (baseball)		
locker talk (general sports)		
game plan (American football)		
contender (boxing)		
two strikes against it (baseball)		
fumbled (American football)		
scoring (general sports)		
no-win situation (baseball)		
stalling for time (American football)		

Worksheet D-5 (Continue)

get to home (baseball)		
take the ball and run(American football)		
to call the shots (basketball)		
to jockey ourselves into position (horseracing)		
term players (general sports)		
is playing with a full deck (cards)		
can field (baseball)		
second stringers (team sports)		
bring it on home (baseball)		
pitch(baseball)		

Assessment Sheet D-6

Look at the American National Football League (NFL) results. Write four sentences to describe these results like Exercise 1 on Worksheet D-4. You can use your dictionary but cannot use Worksheet D-4. (20 points)

American NFL Results

San Francisco 49ers 35	Washington Redskins 7
Green Bay packers 35	Chicago Bears 13
New York Jets 14	Oakland Raiders 0
Miami Dolphins 23	New York Giants 10

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Assignment Sheet D-7

Writing A Research Paper

Are there sports figures whom you admire? Write an essay in which you talk about why you admire the people; discuss his or her admirable qualities, as well as details about his or her life. You may need to research some facts on the Internet or in a magazine.

Source: Heinle & Heinle, 1999, p. 174

Writing Rubric D-8

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/5	/5
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	/5	/5
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/5	/5
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/5	/5
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/5	/5
Total Score:		/25	/25

Scoring Levels: 5- Excellent 4-Good 3-Satisfactory 2-Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comments:

Lesson Plan E

Jazz

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphor
2. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to the context
3. To build schemata about one of the American music cultures: Jazz
4. To write long essay through extensive reading

Language Objectives:

1. To build music contextual schemata through reading.
2. To identify metaphorical and idiomatic prepositional phrases related to the text.
3. To increase idioms and special expressions related to music.
4. To write a descriptive paper based on this lesson

Materials: Focus Sheet E-1, E-2, Worksheet E-3, E-4, E-5, Assessment Sheet E-6, Assignment Sheet E-7, Writing Rubric E-8

Warm-Up: The teacher asks students following the questions:

1. What types of American music do you enjoy?
2. Which American musicians are your favorites?

Task Chain 1: Building music contextual schemata through Reading

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet E-1.
2. Volunteer students read aloud each paragraph in turn.

3. The teacher distributes Work Sheet E-3.
4. Students work on Work Sheet E-3.
5. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet E-6.
6. After students finished Assessment Sheet E-6, the teacher collects it.

Task Chain 2: Identifying metaphorical and idiomatic prepositional phrases related to the text

1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet E-4.
2. Students work on Work Sheet E-4.

Task Chain 3: Increasing idioms and special expressions related to music

1. The teacher distributes Work Sheet E-5.
2. Students work on Work Sheet E-5.

Task Chain 4: Writing a descriptive paper based on this Lesson

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet E-2 and explains how to write a descriptive paper.
2. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet E-7 and Writing Rubric E-8.
3. Students work on Assignment Sheet E-7 based on Writing Rubric E-8 as their homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students' work on Assessment Sheet E-6 (10 points).
2. Students' work on Assignment Sheet E-7 (50 points).
3. The teacher assesses students the total score on the above.

Criteria for Scoring:

60-58	57-55	54-51	50-48	47-0
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See teacher

Focus Sheet E-1

The Story Of Jazz

Jazz is America's contribution to popular music. In contrast to classical music, which follows formal European traditions, jazz is spontaneous and freeform. It bubbles with energy, expressing the moods, interests, and emotions of the people. Brash, uninhibited, exciting, it has a modern sound. In the 1920's, jazz sounded like America. And so it does today.

The origins of this music are as interesting as the music itself. Jazz was invented by American Negroes, or Blacks, as they are called today, who were brought to the Southern states as slaves. They were sold to plantation owners and forced to work long hours in the cotton and tobacco fields. This work was hard and life was short. When a Negro died, his friends and relatives formed a procession to carry the body to the cemetery.

In New Orleans, a band often accompanied the procession. On the way to the cemetery the band played slow, solemn music suited to the occasion. But on the way home the mood changed. Sprits lifted. Everybody was happy. Death had removed one of their numbers, but the living were glad to be alive. The band played happy music, improvising on both the harmony and the melody of the tunes presented at the funeral. This music made everyone want to dance. It was an early form of jazz. But there were other influences, too.

Music has always been important in Negro life. Coming mainly from West Africa, the blacks who were brought to America already possessed a rich musical tradition. This music centered on religious ceremonies in which dancing, singing, clapping, and stamping to the beat of a drum were important forms of musical and rhythmic expression. As these people settled in to their

Focus Sheet E-1 (Continue)

new life on the plantations of the South, music retained its importance. In the field, they made up work songs. Singing made the hard work go faster. And as the people were converted to Christianity, they composed lovely spirituals, which have become a permanent part of American music.

Another musical form that contributed to jazz was the blues. Blues songs, such as W. C. Handy's "St. Louis Blues," always describe something sad—an unhappy love affair, a money problem, a bad luck. To this day, the expression "feeling blue" means being sad or depressed.

In fact, there was hardly any activity or social event that could not be set to music. Weddings, births, christenings, funerals, picnics, parades—all had their musical accompaniment.

All of this became more important after the American Civil War (1861-1865). By then the Negroes had gained their freedom and were ready for a new type of music, one that would preserve their musical traditions but be fast and happy to express their newfound freedom. They wanted something they could play as professional musicians for both black and white audiences. Jazz was the answer. It combined themes from Negro work songs, spirituals, and blues, set to a fast beat, with the musicians improvising as they went along, like the funeral marching bands. But one element was still needed to make this music popular—a city.

Jazz needs bars, cafes, and dance halls, and it needs people in search of uninhibited entertainment. These conditions were provided in the honkytonk sections of New Orleans, a busy seaport on the Gulf on Mexico. During the day this city was businesslike; at night it wanted fun.

Focus Sheet E-1 (Continue)

New Orleans, having belonged first to France, then to Spain, then to France again, was very cosmopolitan and sophisticated about entertainment. When the city passed to the United States in 1803 as part of the Louisiana Purchase, a tolerant view of vice was part of its history. By the 1900s, New Orleans had become a commercial and trading center for the world. Ships of every nation docked there, and in the evening the sailors went into town. Soldiers from a large army camp nearby also visited the city looking for fun. New Orleans provided plenty of gaiety and bright lights in a disreputable district called Storyville, which was filled with bars, dance halls, and bordellos. Each of these places had its own orchestra, and this helped popularize the new music. Jazz was on its way.

In those early days the orchestras were small. They usually consisted of seven instruments—a trumpet, a cornet, a clarinet, a piano, a trombone, a banjo, and a set of drums. Each was played by a specialist, a real virtuoso. Baby Dodds played the drums, for instance, and King Oliver the cornet. This music was not written down; in fact, much of it was improvised on the spot. To be good, a musician had not only to remember his part but also to be able to invent new variations on the spur of the moment. That is what makes songs like "Beale Street Blues," "Basin Street Blues" (both named after street in New Orleans), and "When the Saints Go Marching In" so exciting. They were never played exactly the same way twice.

Jazz belongs to the people, but popular taste is changeable. Jazz had to keep up-to-date. Over the last half century it has changed many times in form style, and tempo. Each change added something new. In today's usage, "jazz" includes not only Dixieland, the original name for

Focus Sheet E-1 (Continue)

this music, but also beppop, progressive jazz, swing, and boogie-woogie.

Rock'n'roll, while not strictly a form of jazz, is nevertheless an outgrowth of it. All are imaginative and improvisational, with great freedom in harmony and instrumentation. The late jazz pianist Jelly Roll Morton summed up jazz as "playing more music than you can put on paper."

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, pp. 39-42

Focus Sheet E-2

Writing Descriptive/Process Paper

Descriptive writing portrays people, place, things, moments and theories with enough vivid detail to help the reader create a mental picture of what is being written about. A process paper either tells the reader how to do something or describes how something is done. When you write your descriptive/process paper, consider the following.

Descriptive Paper

- Think of an instance that you want to describe
- Why is this particular instance important?
- What were you doing?
- What other things were happening around you? Is there anything specific that stands out in your mind?
- Where were objects located in relation to where you were?
- How did the surroundings remind you of other places you have been?
- What sights, smells, sounds, and tastes were in the air?
- Did the sights, smells, sound, and tastes remind you of anything?
- What were you feeling at that time?
- Has there been an instance in which you have felt this way before?
- What do you want the reader to feel after reading the paper?
- Can you think of another situation that was similar to the one you are writing about? How can it help explain what you are writing about?
- Is there enough detail in your essay to create a mental image for the reader?

Focus Sheet E-2 (Continue)

Process Paper

- What process are you trying to explain? Why is it important?
- Who or what does the process affect?
- Are there different ways of doing the process? If so, what are they?
- Who are the readers? What knowledge do they need to understand this process?
- What skills/equipment are needed for this?
- How long does the process take? Is the outcome always the same?
- How many steps are there in the process?
- Why is each step important?
- What difficulties are involved in each step? How can they be overcome?
- Do any cautions need to be given?
- Does the process have definitions that need to be clarified?
- Are there other processes that are similar and could help illustrate the process that you are writing about?
- If needed, tell what should not be done or why something should be done.
- Process papers are often written in the second person (you), but some teachers prefer that you avoid this. Check with your teacher.

Source: The Write Place, 1997, Descriptive/Process Paper

Worksheet E-3

The Story of Jazz

Fill in the blank with one of the words below:

brash	improvise	honky-tonk	uninhibited	melody
sophistication	spontaneous	harmony	cosmopolitan	

1. _____ means something new that is unafraid to break traditions (possibly it doesn't know what the traditions are), tactless, hasty, and a little impudent. For example, it is _____ to express an opinion without thinking about it.
2. When we act without restraint, we are _____. Someone at a party who dances wildly and laughs and talks as freely as he or she wants is _____.
3. An action is _____ when it hasn't been planned in advance but occurs at the moment on an impulse.
4. In music, to _____ is to compose and perform at the same time. "The young man was asked to accompany the singer. Since he did not know the music, he had to _____ on the piano."
5. The _____ is the tune or familiar part of the song. It can be played or sung by itself.
6. The _____ is the accompaniment to the melody. It adds richness, fullness, color, and beauty and is usually not played by itself.

Worksheet E-3 (Continue)

7. The _____ part of a city is where the bars, cafes, and dance halls are located.

8. _____ is a quality sought by many people. People are _____ when they know the world and how to behave, especially in society.

9. A city is _____ when it contains a blend of cultures and people from all over the world. In the United States, New York, San Francisco, and New Orleans are our most _____ cities.

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, pp.43-44

Worksheet E-4

Prepositional Phrase

Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition followed by its object, called the object of the preposition. The object of the preposition may be a single noun, a noun inside a noun phrase, or a pronoun. Prepositional phrases are always modifiers. If they modify nouns, they are called adjective phrases. If they modify verbs, predicate adjectives, or other adverbs, they are called adverb phrases.

Exercise: Prepositional phrase

Insert the correct preposition in each blank

- a. Jazz expresses the moods _____ the people.
- b. This music was played _____ virtuosos.
- c. Work songs were sung _____ the fields.
- d. Music provides relief _____ the hard work.
- e. Music has always been important _____ the lives _____ this people.
- f. Solemn music was played _____ the way _____ the cemetery.
- g. The relatives felt sorry _____ the deceased.
- h. Ships _____ every nation docked _____ New Orleans.
- i. The sailors went _____ town looking _____ fun.
- j. The blacks brought a rich musical tradition them _____ Africa.

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, p. 49

Worksheet E-5

Idioms And Expressions Related to Music

Look up these idioms and expressions related to music in your dictionary, and make a sentence using them correctly.

1. to make up something (you can also say, "to make something up")
meaning _____
sentence _____
2. just for fun
meaning _____
sentence _____
3. hear them for nothing
meaning _____
sentence _____
4. play by ear
meaning _____
sentence _____

Assessment Sheet E-6

Comprehension of New Vocabulary

Fill in the blank spaces (If you could answer all correctly, you will get 10 points):

1. Jack's actions were always quick and unplanned. They were completely _____.
2. Linda was a girl who had been everywhere and know everyone. She was very _____.
3. Betty did not know the music. She would have to _____.
4. When asked to play music at a party, Betty always played the _____ while everyone else sang the melody.
5. Paris, with its mixed population, is very _____.
6. Paul did not understand the discussion, but he made a suggestion anyway. His suggestion was _____. Fortunately, it met with approval.
7. Times Square, with its bars, cheap movies, and low entertainment, is the _____ section of New York.
8. "Let Alice play the harmony on the piano, I'll play the _____ on the trumpet." Jack said.
9. Jane had had several drinks and felt very _____, so she took off her shoes and danced with everyone else's husband.

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1978, p.44

Assignment Sheet E-7

Writing Description Paper Based on This Lesson

Choose one of the following topics and write a description paper.

1. Describe the steps that are required to learn to play an instrument. Number each step in the proper order—first, second, third, and so on. These steps should be so clear that someone else could learn the instrument from your description.
2. Describe the best dance you ever attended.
3. Describe the popular music of your country.

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, p.54

Writing Rubric E-8

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/5	/5
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	/5	/5
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/5	/5
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/5	/5
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/5	/5
Total Score:		/25	/25

Scoring Levels: 5-Excellent 4-Good 3-Satisfactory 2-Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comments:

Lesson Plan F

The American Family

Level: Japanese high school students

Content Objectives:

1. To identify metaphor
2. To increase vocabulary knowledge related to the context
3. To build schemata about the American family
4. To write a long essay through extensive and multiple text reading

Language Objectives:

1. To introduce the form of adjective clauses
2. To increase relevant knowledge of idioms and colloquial language through extensive reading
3. To build knowledge schemata about American family values
4. To write a comparison paper based on this lesson

Materials: Focus Sheet F-1, F-2, F-3, F-4, Worksheet F-5, F-6, F-7, Assignment Sheet A-8, Assignment Sheet F-9, Writing Rubric F-10

Warm-Up: The teacher asks students the following questions:

1. Who is responsible for housekeeping in your family?
2. Which do you prefer: your marriage be arranged, or not?

Task Chain 1: Introducing the form of adjective clauses

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet F-1 and Worksheet F-5.
2. Students read Focus Sheet F-1.

3. The teacher distributes Assessment Sheet F-8 and students work on it.
4. After students finish Assessment Sheet F-8, the teacher collects it.
5. The teacher distributes Worksheet F-5.
6. The teacher explains about adjective clauses.
7. Students work on Worksheet F-5. The teacher gives feedback about Worksheet F-5.

Task Chain 2: Increasing relevant knowledge of idioms and colloquial language through extensive reading

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet F-2.
2. Students read the text (Focus Sheet F-2).
3. The teacher distributes Worksheet F-6.
4. Students work on Worksheet F-6.
5. The teacher gives feedback on Worksheet F-6.

Task Chain 3: Building knowledge schemata about American Family

1. In groups of four, students work on Worksheet F-7 based on the text (Focus Sheet F-3).
2. Each group presents their opinions orally in front of the class.

Task Chain 4: Writing a comparison paper based on this lesson

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet F-4 and explains how to write a comparison paper.
2. The teacher distributes Assignment Sheet F-9 and Writing Rubric F-10.
3. Students work on Assignment Sheet F-9 based on Writing Rubric F-10 as their homework.

Assessment: Checking comprehension of this lesson

1. Students work on Assessment Sheet F-8 (10 points).
2. Students work on Assignment Sheet F-9 (50 points).
3. The teacher assesses the total score of the above.

Criteria for Scoring

60-58	57-55	54-51	50-48	49-0
Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Needs improvement	Study harder & See Teacher

Focus Sheet F-1

A Style of Couple

Interviewing with Mrs. Bloomfield.

Mrs. Bloomfield: I'm a fashion designer. My job is only part-time. I only work three days a week. Luckily my children go to school and my husband is a free-lance writer and spends most of his time at home.

Reporter: So your husband is a kind of 'house-husband.'

Mrs. Bloomfield: Let's just say that we are responsible, intelligent people. This means that in marriage, in looking after children and having a home together, there is always a joint responsibility. We don't believe in labels like 'wife equals mother and housewife, husband equals bread-winner.'

Reporter: It sounds ideal.

Mrs. Bloomfield: Oh no, it's not ideal, but it's on the right track. This way we both have a chance to do something we want to do without being selfish. I'd hate to be stuck inside the house every day just thinking about what I am going to cook for my husband's dinner.

Reporter: Do you think you are the typical American married woman?

Mrs. Bloomfield: No. I'm very lucky. But I think more women are wanting their freedom. Freedom of choice. There is nothing wrong with being a total housewife if that's what you want to do, but there must be an alternative. I'm very fortunate. I can choose.

Source: Nakata, 2001, p. 138

Focus Sheet F-2

Family Values and Reversed Worlds

Linda Avery, a friendly thirty-eight-year-old mother of two daughters, is a shift supervisor at the Democo Plant, ten miles down the valley from Amerco Headquarters. Her husband, Bill is a technician in the same plant. Linda and Bill share the care of her sixteen-year-old daughter from a previous marriage and their two-year-old daughter by working opposite shifts, as a full fifth of American working parents do. "Bill works the 7 a.m. to 3 p.m. shift, while I watch the baby," Linda explained. "Then I work the 3 p.m. to 11 p.m. shift and he watches the baby. My older daughter works at Walgreens after school."

When we first met in the factory's break room over a couple of Cokes, Linda was in blue jeans and a pink jersey, her hair pulled back in a long ponytail. She wore no makeup, and her manner was purposeful and direct. She was working overtime, and so I began by asking her whether Amerco required the overtime, or whether she volunteered for it. "Oh, I put in for it," she replied with a low chuckle. But, I wondered aloud, wouldn't she and her husband like to have more time at home together, finances and company policy permitting? Linda took off her safety glasses, rubbed her whole face, folded her arms, resting her elbows on the table, and approached the question by describing her life at home:

I was in the door and the minute I turn the key in the lock my older daughter is there. Granted, she needs somebody to talk to about her day.. The baby is still up. She should have been in bed two hours ago and that upsets me. The dishes are piled in the sink. My daughter comes right up to the door and complains about anything her stepfather said or did, and she wants to talk about her

Focus Sheet F-2 (Continue)

job. My husband is in the other room hollering to my daughter, "Tracy, I don't ever get any time to talk to your mother, because you're always monopolizing her time before I even get a chance!" They all come at me at once.

To Linda, her home was not a place to relax. It was another workplace. Her description of the urgency of demands and the unarbitrated quarrels that awaited her homecoming contrasted with her account of arriving at her job as a shift supervisor:

I usually come to work early just to get away from the house. I get there at 2:30 p.m. and people are there waiting. We sit. We talk. We joke. I let them know what's going on, who has to be where, and what changes I've made for the shift that day. We sit and chit-chat for five or ten minutes. There's laughing, joking, fun. My coworkers aren't putting me down for any reason. Everything is done with humor and fun from beginning to end, though it can get stressful when a machine malfunctions.

For Linda, home had become work and work had become home. Somehow, the two worlds had been reversed. Indeed, Linda felt she could only get relief from the "work" of being at home by going to the "home" of work.

...In a previous era, men regularly escaped the house for the bar, the fishing hole, the golf course, the pool hall, or often enough, the sweet joy of work. Today, as one of the women who make up 45 percent of the American workforce, Linda Avery, overloaded and feeling unfairly treated at home, was escaping to work, too. Nowadays, men and women both may leave unwashed dishes, unresolved quarrels, crying tots, testy teenager, and unresponsive mates behind to arrive at work early and call out, "Hi, fellas, I'm here!"

...Where did Linda feel most relaxed? She laughed more, joked more, listened to more interesting stories

Focus Sheet F-2 (Continue)

while on break at the factory than at home. The social life that once might have surrounded her at home she now found at work. Frankly, life there was more fun.

Source: Henry Holt and Company, 1999, pp. 24-25

Focus Sheet F-3

American Family

Family Structures

What is the typical American family like? If Americans are asked to name the members of their families, family structure becomes clear: Married American adults will name their husband or wife and their children, if they have any, as their "immediate family." If they mention their father, mother, sister, or brother, they will define them as separate units, usually living in separate households. Aunts, uncles, cousins, and grandparents are considered "extended family."

The structure of the American family has been a nuclear family since the 1950s. Traditionally, the American family has undergone enormous changes consisting of a husband, wife, and their children, living in a house or apartment. Grandparents rarely live in the same home with their married sons and daughters, and uncles and aunts almost never do.

In the 1950s, 70 percent of American households were the "classic" American family—a husband, wife, and two children. The father was the "breadwinner" (the one who earned the money to support the family), the mother was a "homemaker" (the one who took care of the children and did not work outside the home), and they and two children under the age of 18. If you say the word "family" to Americans, this is probably the picture that comes to their minds.

Yet, in reality, in the 1990s, only 8 percent of American households consist of a working father, a stay-at-home mother, and two children under 18. An additional 18 percent of households consist of two parents who are both working and one or more children under the age of 18 living at home. That means that a total of only 26

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

percent of households in the United States consist of two parents and their children. The remaining households consist of the following: 20 percent are married couples without children; eight percent are single parents and their children; 11 percent are unmarried couples and others living together. And, perhaps most startling, in 25 percent of the households, there is someone living alone.

What has happened to the traditional American family, and why? Some of the explanation is demographic. In the 1950s, men who had fought in World War II had returned home, married, and were raising their families. There was a substantial increase (or "boom") in the birth rate, producing the "baby boomers." A second demographic factor is that today young people are marrying and having children later in life. Some couples now choose not to have children at all. A third factor is that people are living longer after their children are grown, and they often end up alone. And, of course, there is a fourth factor—the changes in the family. Understanding the values at work in the family will provide some important insights.

THE EMPHASIS ON INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM

Americans view the family as a group whose primary purpose is to advance the happiness of individual members. The result is that the needs of each individual take priority in the life of the family. In contrast to that of many other cultures, the primary responsibility of the American family member is not to advance the family as a group, either socially or economically, nor is it to bring honor to the family name. This is partly because the United States is not an aristocratic society.

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

Family name and honor are less important than in aristocratic societies, since equality of opportunity regardless of birth is considered a basic American value.

Moreover, there is less emphasis on the family as an economic unit because the American family is rarely self-supporting. Relatively few families maintain self-supporting family farms or businesses for more than one generation. A farmer's son, for example, is very likely to go on to college, leave the family farm, and take an entirely different job in a different location.

The American desire for freedom from outside control clearly extends to the family. Americans do not like to have controls placed on them by other family members. They want to make independent decisions and not be told what to do by grandparents or uncles or aunts. For example, both American men and women expect to decide what job is best for them as individuals. Indeed, young Americans are encouraged by their families to make such independent career decisions. What would be best for the family is not considered to be as important as what would be best for the individual.

MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE

Marriages are not "arranged" in the United States. Young people are expected to find a husband or wife on their own; their parents do not usually help them. In fact, parents are frequently not told of marriage plans until the couple has decided to marry. This means that parents have little control, and generally not much influence, over whom their children marry. Americans believe that young people should fall in love and then decide to marry someone they can live happily with, again evidence of the importance of an individual's happiness. Of course, in reality this does not always happen, but it

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

remains the ideal. And it shapes the views of courtship and marriage among young Americans.

Over the years, the value placed on marriage itself is determined largely by how happy the husband and wife make each other. Happiness is based primarily on companionship. The majority of American women value companionship as the most important part of marriage. Other values, such as having economic support and the opportunity to have children, although important, are seen by many as less important.

If the couple is not happy, the individuals may choose to get a divorce. A divorce is relatively easy to obtain in most parts of the United States. Most states have "no-fault" divorce. To obtain no-fault divorce, a couple states that they can no longer live happily together, that they have "irreconcilable differences," and that it is neither partner's fault.

The divorce rate rose rapidly in the United States after the 1950s, but it had leveled off by the 1990s. Approximately one out of every two marriages now ends in divorce. Often children are involved. The great majority of adult Americans believe that unhappy couples should not stay married just because they have children at home, a significant change in attitude since the 1950s. Most people do not believe in sacrificing individual happiness for the sake of the children. They say that children actually may be better off living with one parent than with two who are constantly arguing. Divorce is now so common that it is no longer socially unacceptable and children are not embarrassed to say that their parents are divorced. However, sociologists are still studying the long-term psychological consequences of divorce.

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

FOUR STAGES OF MARRIAGE RELATIONSHIPS

The idea of equality affects the relationships between husbands and wives. Women have witnessed steady progress toward equal status for themselves in the family and in society at large. According to Letha and John Scanzoni, two American sociologists, the institution of marriage in the United States has experienced four stages of development. In each new stage, wives have increased the degree of equality with their husbands and have gained more power within the family.

Stage I: Wife as Servant to Husband

During the 19th century, American wives were expected to be completely obedient to their husbands. As late as 1850, wife beating was legal in almost all the states of the United States. Although both husbands and wives had family duties, the wife had no power in family matters other than that which her husband allowed her. Her possessions and any of her earnings belonged to her husband. During the 19th century, women were not allowed to vote, a restriction that in part reflected women's status as servant to the family.

Stage II: Husband-head, Wife-Helper

During the late 19th and early 20th centuries, opportunities for women to work outside the household increased. More wives were now able to support themselves, if necessary, and therefore were less likely to accept the traditional idea that wives were servants who must obey their husbands. Even though the great majority of wives does not work outside the home, the fact that they might do so increased their power in the marriage. The husband could no longer make decisions alone and demand that the wife follow them. The wife was freer to disagree with her husband and to insist that her views be taken into account in family decisions.

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

Even though the wife's power increased, the husband remained the head of the family. The wife became his full-time helper by taking care of his house and raising his children. She might strongly argue with him and sometimes convince him, but his decision on family matters was usually final.

This increase in equality of women in marriages reflected increased status for women in the society at large and led to women's gaining the right to vote in the early 20th century.

The husband-head, wife-helper marriage is still found in the United States. Economic conditions in the 20th century, however, have carried most marriages into different stages.

Stage III: Husband-Senior Partner, Wife-Junior Partner

During the 20th century, more and more wives have taken jobs outside the home. In 1940, for example, only 14 percent of married women in the United States held jobs outside the home. In the 1990s, more than 60 percent do. When married women take this step, according to Scanzoni, their power relative to that of their husbands increases still further. The wife's income becomes important in maintaining the family's standard of living. Her power to affect the outcome of family decisions is greater than when her duties were entirely in the home.

Although she has become a partner, however, the wife is still not an equal partner with her husband, since his job or career still provides more of the family income. He is, therefore, the senior partner and she is the junior partner of the family enterprise. Even though she has a job, it has a lower priority than her husband's. If, for example, the husband is asked to move to advance his career, she will give up her job and seek another in a new location.

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

In the United States today, many marriages are probably the senior/junior-partner type, since the majority of women have jobs outside the home. The main reason seems to be that it has become increasingly difficult for families to maintain their standard of living on just one income. It is also due to the desire of American women for greater economic opportunity.

Stage IV: Husband-Wife Equal Partners

Since the late 1960s, a growing number of women have expressed a strong dissatisfaction with any marriage arrangement where the husband and his career are the primary considerations in the marriage. By the end of the 1970s, for example, considerably less than half of the women in the United States (38 percent) still believed that they should put their husbands and children ahead of their own careers. In the 1990s, most American women believe that they should be equal partners in their marriage and that their husbands should have equal responsibility for childcare and household chores.

In an equal-partnership marriage, the wife pursues a full-time job or career that has equal importance to her husband's. The long-standing division of labor between husband and wife comes to an end. The husband is no longer the main provider of family income, and the wife no longer has the main responsibilities for household duties and raising children. Husband and wife share all these duties equally. Power over family decisions is also shared equally.

The reality of life in the United States is that although most American women now have an equal say in the decisions affecting the family, they generally earn less than men for the same work. Also, most women are still spending more time taking care of the children, cooking, and cleaning house than their husbands are. Many women

Focus Sheet F-3 (Continue)

are resentful because they feel like they have two full-time jobs—the one at work and the one at home. In the 1980s, women were told they could “have it all”—fast-track career, husband, children, and a clean house. Now, some women are finding that lifestyle exhausting and unrewarding. Some young women are now choosing to stay at home until their children start school, but many others who would like to cannot afford to do so.

Juggling two careers and family responsibilities can be as difficult for men as it is for women, especially if there is truly an equal division of duties. American fathers are often seen dropping the kids off at the baby sitter's or taking a sick child to the doctor. Some businesses are recognizing the need to accommodate families where both parents work. They may open a day-care center in the office building, offer fathers “paternity leave” to stay home with their new babies, or have flexible working hours.

Unfortunately, these benefits are still the exception. While young couples strive to achieve equality in their careers, their marriages, and their parenting, society at large still lacks many of the structures that are needed to support them.

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, pp.220-227

Focus Sheet F-4

Writing Comparison/Contrast Paper

Comparison:

When we write poetry about the similarities between two or more people, things, events, ideas or feelings, we make use of two literary techniques: simile or metaphor. Simile and metaphor also used to express comparisons in prose genres: novel, short story, (screen) play, and essay, but in essays, the reader must be convinced that the comparisons being made are not only recognizable but also significant. In other words, a successful comparison is one that gets the reader to think about the subject from a new angle, to see it in a new light. Thus a comparison of apples and oranges that merely states that both are fruits is clearly true, but it is also trivial and not likely to hold a reader's attention as it does not reveal any new information about either apples or oranges. Comparisons that juxtapose two apparently dissimilar things and reveal similarities are more likely to be worth reading (and writing). Comparisons may be implicit or explicit. Explicit comparisons are typically marked by the following word: like, as...as, similar.

Contrast:

Contrast, either explicit or implicit, can be used to reveal the differences between two subjects that are generally seen to be similar or related. As with comparisons, certain words can be used to signal contrasts: unlike, different from, in contrast to. Contrast can also be implied through the skillful use of sentence structures.

Focus Sheet F-4 (Continue)

Comparison/contrast writing shows how information and ideas from two or more sources are related or how they can be combined to form a new idea. The following parts are an example of organization.

1. Introduction

- a. identifies and describes/discusses the topic
- b. has a clear thesis statement about the relationship or relationships between or among sources

2. Body

- a. shows how each source supports the thesis
- b. credits sources in the text
- c. is written in the author's own words—quotes should be brief
- d. has no unsupported ideas and opinions
- e. recognizes and addresses opposing arguments

3. Conclusion

- a. restates and/or illustrates the thesis at a more general level
- b. discusses the implications of accepting thesis

Source: Writing center at University of Bremen, 2001, Comparison/Contrast Paper

Worksheet F-5

Adjective Clauses

An adjective clause is a dependent clause used as an adjective to modify a noun or (less commonly) a pronoun. Adjective clauses normally begin with relative pronouns, which is why adjective clauses are often called "relative clauses." Here is the table summarized some points of adjective clauses.

clause	A clause is a group of words containing a subject and a verb
independent clause	An independent clause is a complete sentence. It contains the main subject and verb of a sentence.
dependent clause	A dependent clause is not a complete sentence. It must be connected to an independent clause
adjective clause	An adjective clause is a dependent clause that modifies a noun. It describes, identifies, or gives further information about a noun. (an adjective clause is also called "a relative clause.")
adjective clause pronouns	An adjective clause uses pronouns to connect the dependent clause to the independent clause. The adjective clause proems are who, whom, which, that, and whose. (Adjective clause pronouns are also called "relative pronouns." who = used for people, which = used for things, that = used for both people and things

Exercise: Adjective clause pronouns used as subject
Combine the two sentences. Use the second sentence as an adjective clause.

1. I saw the man. He closed the door.

2. The girl is happy. She won the race.

Worksheet F-5 (Continue)

3. The student is from China. He sits next to me.

4. The students are from China. They sit in the front row.

5. We are studying sentences. They contain adjective clauses.

6. I am using a sentence. It contains an adjective clause.

7. Algebra problems contain letters. They stand for unknown numbers.

8. The taxi driver was friendly. He took me to the airport.

Source: Azar, 1999, p. 268

Worksheet F-6

Idioms And Proverbs

Section I: Idioms

Words which are in italics in the sentence below are idioms and colloquial language. Choose the sentence that is closest in meaning to the original sentence.

Then, explain your answer.

1. We *chit-chat* for five or the minutes.

- a. We speak seriously for five or ten minutes.
- b. We speak lightly for five or ten minutes.
- c. We speak angrily for five or ten minutes.

Explain: _____

2. Her daughter was a *testy* teenager.

- a. Her daughter was a happy teenager.
- b. Her daughter was a smart teenager.
- c. Her daughter was a short-tempered teenager.

Explain: _____

3. Her coworkers didn't *put her down*.

- a. Her coworkers didn't criticize her.
- b. Her coworkers didn't leave her alone.
- c. Her coworkers didn't work with her.

Explain: _____

4. My husband *hollered* to my daughter.

- a. My husband scolded my daughter.
- b. My husband yelled to my daughter.
- c. My husband laughed at my daughter.

Explain: _____

Worksheet F-6 (Continue)

5. She went to her favorite *fishing hole*.
a. She went to her favorite lake.
b. She went to her favorite fish market.
c. She went to her favorite restaurant.

Explain: _____

Section II: Proverbs and Sayings

1. Explain these proverbs and sayings. You can use your dictionary.

Proverbs and Sayings	EXPLANATIONS
The hand that rocks the cradle rules the world.	
As the twig is bent, so grows the tree.	
That child is a chip off the old block.	
A man may work from sun to sun, but a woman's work is never done.	
Behind every successful man, there is a woman.	
Blood is thicker than water.	

2. Are there any similar proverbs or saying in Japanese?
Write them down and explain how they are similar.

Worksheet F-7

Question for Discussion

Each group discusses your assigned topic below. Then, share your group's opinions with the class by taking notes to fill in this sheet.

1. How would you describe the typical family in your country? Who lives in a household? Do several generations usually live together? How many children are there? What do you think is the ideal number of children? How much freedom do teenagers have? When can a teenager get a driver's license? Would you give your children the same amount of freedom as you had as a teenager?

2. Which type of marriage is most common in your country? Which of the four types do you think is the best for men? for women? for the children? Which type of marriage does your family have? Which do you think is the ideal? Why?

3. In your country, what do people have to do to get a divorce? What happens to people who divorce there? How are they treated? Do they usually remarry? If two people are unhappy, should they get a divorce? What if

Worksheet F-7 (Continue)

they have children? Under what circumstances would you get divorced?

4. Should mothers with small children work? In your country, who takes care of the children of working mothers? Are there day-care centers? Do other members of the family do the baby-sitting? What was your experience growing up? Did you have a baby sitter? Would you leave your child in a day-care center?

5. If there is true equality between the sexes, husbands should be able to choose to stay at home while their wives go to work. Do you agree? Do "househusbands" exist in your country? Can men nurture children as well as women can? Would you ever want this kind of relationship?

Source: Prentice Hall Regents, 1986, p. 233

Assessment Sheet F-8

Reading Comprehension Check

Find sentences which match the content of the text (Focus Sheet F-1). (10 points)

- a. Intelligent couple may lead an independent life without regard to each other.
- b. Every modern woman should work outside her home.
- c. It is important for husband and wife to co-operate in household work.
- d. An ideal husband is a 'house-husband.'
- e. It is only the duty of the husband to earn bread.
- f. It is not right that only women should be burdened with cooking and looking after children.
- g. It is impossible for a housewife making much of her home to be a career woman.
- h. It is not always selfish to do something we want to do.
- i. Every woman is waiting for her freedom.
- j. English married women enjoy more liberty than her Japanese counterparts.

Assignment Sheet F-9

Write a Comparison Paper

1. Read the text about Hawaiian family style below and fill in this sheet.

Most Hawaiians have aunties, uncles, cousins or even sisters and brothers who are not necessarily blood-related. These people are considered as close as blood-ties and are therefore so named. The coinage of the term calabash family is used to describe the extended family networks that Hawaiians form. (The word calabash describes a large bowl where gifts are often placed.)

'IKE AKU, 'IKE MAI, KOKUA AKU KOKUA MAI; PELA IHO LA KA NNOHONA 'OHANA. (Hawaiian Language)

Recognize other, be recognized, help others, be helped; such is a family relationship.

Give and take is the natural process of family. Value and respect your family and friends. Recognize your value in a family and you recognize your value in society.

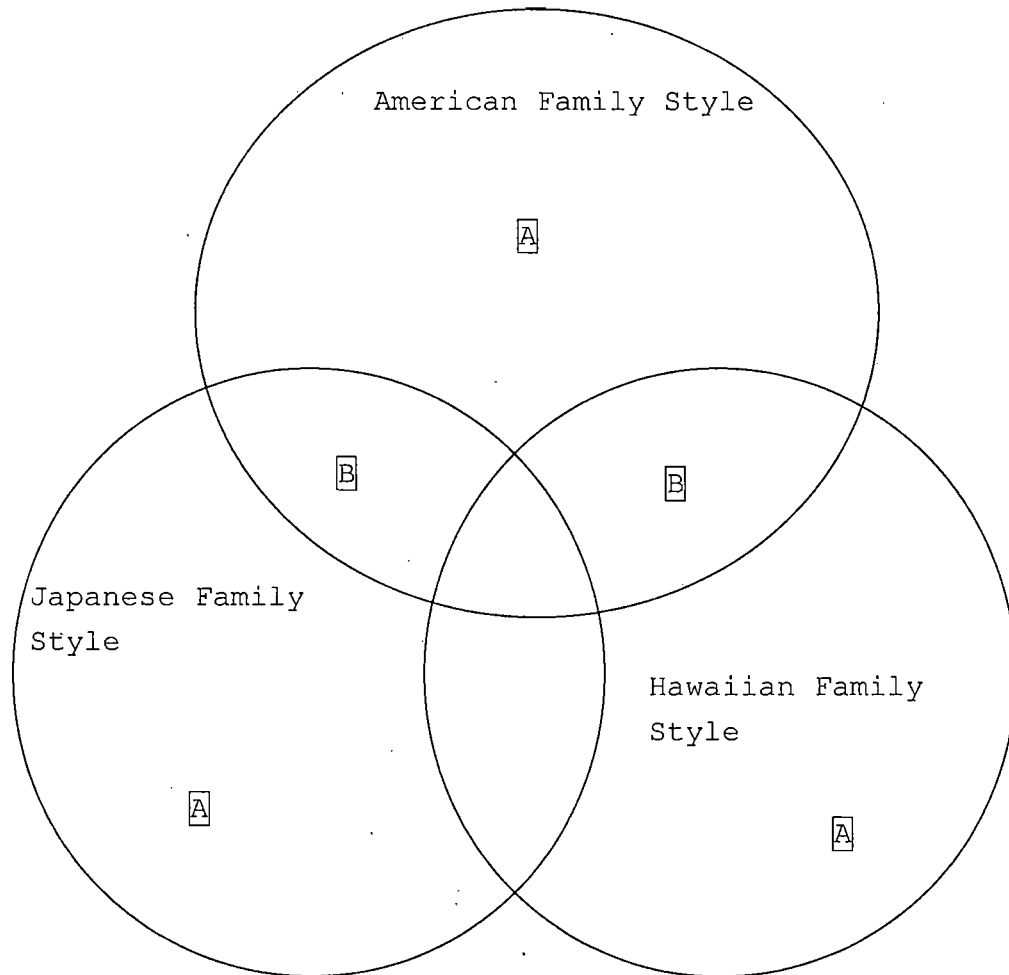
Source: Provenzano, 2001, p.46

Reviewing this lesson (American and Hawaiian family style) and thinking Japanese family style, find features which are similar and dissimilar points suggested below.

Points of view

1. Features which you can only see in each culture are in A area.
2. Features which you can see in two cultures are in B area.
3. Features which you can see in all cultures are in C area.

Assignment Sheet F-9 (Continue)



2. Write a comparison paper about family style in three cultures based on the points of view above. You should write your ideal family style in your conclusion part. You will need to use at least two articles related to family style for each culture in your paper.

Writing Rubric F-10

Rubric for Writing Assignment

Name:

Date:

<u>KEY ELEMENTS</u>	<u>EVALUATIVE CRITERIA</u>	<u>PEER REVIEW POINTS</u>	<u>TEACHER'S POINTS</u>
Comprehension of Subject/Topic	The writing indicates a complete understanding of the topic and reflects the use of a range of resources. The bibliography lists a variety of sources (for example, nonfiction texts, print and electronic articles, and audiovisual resources)	/5	/5
Idea Development	The writer develops relevant ideas clearly and fully. Information focuses on the topic. Details, examples, anecdotes, or personal experiences explain and clarify the information	+	/5
Organization	The writer organizes information logically in paragraphs, and includes an effective introduction and ending that engages the reader.	/5	/5
Language Usage	The writer provides lively and descriptive language, uses language fluently, engages the reader, and varies sentence length and structure. Details, anecdotes, and examples explain and clarify information.	/5	/5
Mechanics	Writing shows few errors in basic language conventions. Errors do not interfere with comprehension of the topic.	/5	/5
Total Score:		/25	/25

Scoring Levels: 5-Excellent 4-Good 3-Satisfactory 2-Somewhat evident 1- Needs improvement 0- No key elements are adequately demonstrated; equal to blank paper

Peer-reviewer's Name:

Comments:

Teacher's Comment

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