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A Classroom Research Study on Strategies to Promote

Vocabulary Retention
in the LOTE Classroom

A Dissertation Presented

By

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To

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in

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Abstract of the Dissertation

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Vocabulary is an essential component of second language acquisition. Second language learners are faced with the challenging task of remembering many new words. Exactly how learners can best accomplish that task is disputed. The purpose of this research project is to investigate the impact of certain types of activities on long-term retention of vocabulary. In this dissertation the literature in the field of vocabulary retention is reviewed. Unlike to the vast majority of research studies that are conducted in universities and performed on university students, this dissertation is a classroom action research study carried out in a suburban high school and performed on 9th grade students learning Italian as a foreign language. The students had successfully completed the level I requirement of Italian and were enrolled in level II Italian.

In this study, specific vocabulary activities that I claim promote vocabulary retention were given to the experimental groups (45 students) while the control group (23 students) was given more standardized activities. An example of the difference between the two activities is a circumlocution activity for the experimental groups (the word is provided and students are

required to write a definition in Italian) and a matching activity (Italian word to an Italian definition for the control group).

The experiment was conducted for four chapters in a time frame of approximately four months. A vocabulary quiz was given to assess the knowledge gained of the topical vocabulary for each chapter. At the end of each chapter a unit test (listening, reading, writing and speaking) was given that assessed both the receptive and productive aspects of the material presented (vocabulary, grammar and culture). At the end of the fourth chapter a comprehensive exam was given to assess the retention of the vocabulary learned within the previous four months. To examine the retention of the vocabulary presented, three months after the comprehensive exam, the same vocabulary quizzes given during the four chapters were given to both groups. From the results of the study undertaken it can be said that there are types of activities that may indeed improve and/or aid with the long term retention of vocabulary.

Table of Contents

Introduction	1
Chapter I Objective of the Study	3
I.1 Reasons for the present classroom research study	3
I.2 Questions that come to mind to language teachers and learners	4
I.2.1 How much vocabulary do you need to use another language?	5
I.2.2 Frequency words	6
I.3 The challenge of remembering new words	9
I.4 Issues on vocabulary teaching and learning	11
I.4.1 Acquisition and Learning	11
I.4.2 Receptive and productive use of vocabulary	13
I.5 Depth of processing hypothesis	16
Chapter II Literature Review	18
II.1 The impact of translation on vocabulary learning and retention	18
II.2 Reading and vocabulary acquisition and retention	23
II.2.1 Hui-Tzu Min (2008)	26
II.2.2 Paribakht & Wesche (1997)	27
II.3 Vocabulary retention in output activities vs. input activities	28
II.4 Mnemonics and long-term retention	31

II.5 “Second-hand cloze” and vocabulary retention	34
II.6 Folse (1999)	36
Chapter III The Experiment: A classroom action research study	38
III.1 Subjects/participants and demographics of high school and location	38
III.2 Content of course	40
III.3 Hypothesis and research questions	41
III.4 Procedures of research	43
III.4.1 Activity 1	46
III.4.2 Activity 2	47
III.4.3 Activity 3	47
III.4.4 Activity 4	48
III.4.5 Activity 5	49
III.5 Scoring and data collection	50
III.6 Results	51
III.7 Discussion	53
III.7.1 Observations and journal entries	53
III.7.2 Variables and limitations	57
III.7.3 Implications and leads for future research	59

Conclusion	61
Bibliography	63
Appendix	
1. Graphs of collected data	69
2. Sample of vocabulary activities	78
3. Assessments	80
4. Graphs of demographic information of participants	136

Introduction

This dissertation addresses the issue of long-term vocabulary retention of a second language (L2) among students who study a second language mainly for graduation requirements at the high school level. Through a classroom action research study, this dissertation explores some strategies that are hypothesized to be beneficial for those students in the recalling of lexical terms in comprehension (listening and reading) and in both the spoken and written discourse. This study addresses the issue of how a teacher in a classroom setting can help learners retain vocabulary. It investigates if certain vocabulary focused activities promote and aid the retention of the vocabulary studied within a classroom setting and therefore increase students' receptive and productive vocabulary size in the target language.

While this study addresses retention, and retention is closely linked to memory in general, it does not delve into the intricacies of scientific issues of memory as addressed by the disciplines of cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics etc. Various factors can affect memory, both short term and long; however, these factors were not studied and therefore were not influential in the development and design of the research.

Chapter I addresses the reasons for the following research along with some facts, issues and questions that arise when one considers vocabulary learning. Definitions of words like "receptive" vs. "productive", and learning vs. acquisition etc. will be explained, as will be their use in the present study. In addition, the "depth of processing hypothesis" is defined and how it influenced the design of the activities used for the study.

Chapter II is a general review of the literature and research studies in the field of vocabulary learning and its relation to retention. It reviews various approaches and the outcome of their

studies on not only vocabulary learning but more importantly on the effect of the method on short term and long term memory.

Chapter III is a report on the research. The hypothesis is presented, the subjects/participants are introduced, and the activities utilized are explained. The results and outcome of the experiment are discussed, as is their relationship to the hypothesis formulated earlier. The limitations and variables of the study and the implications follow. Finally the conclusions are drawn.

In the appendix section I provide: 1) samples of vocabulary activities; 2) the assessments that were used as measures of participants' vocabulary knowledge and retention; 2) graphs of the results for each assessment administered; 3) graphs of the demographic information of the participants' high school and location.

Chapter I

Objective of Study

I.1 Reasons that led to the present classroom research study

It is common among foreign language teachers to see students who perform well on a vocabulary quiz upon completion of a study unit and subsequently experience difficulty retrieving that same vocabulary at a later time. I have noted that the difficulty and, at times, the inability to recall words are manifested not only in the production of spoken or written discourse, but also in comprehension. This situation occurs, to varying degrees, among students of all levels and of different academic backgrounds. In other words, the difficulty and the inability to retrieve previously studied vocabulary productively or receptively is manifested among students from 9th grade to 12th grade and among students whose average varies from poor to excellent. In addition, experience also suggests that whenever the students are required to engage in certain vocabulary focused activities described in this research in chapter III, the target words are better retained than those words which are practiced in more standardized ways. Therefore, this observation was submitted to a more systematic test which would allow conclusions to be drawn on the assumption that the consistent use of certain types of activities as a vocabulary practicing method will result in an improvement of long-term retention of new words.

A review in the literature in the field of vocabulary acquisition and retention shows that various methodologies and approaches have been submitted to empirical test, and that the majority of experiments and studies were conducted on students from university level courses and on students learning English as a foreign or second language. Not all studies on vocabulary learning and acquisition in the L2 have addressed vocabulary retention; many only address vocabulary acquisition. I therefore decided to conduct the study on students studying Italian level

II (9th grade) as a foreign language. I chose level II Italian students as the subjects of the experiment for practical reasons.

Level II students are still developing what Cummins calls BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills), which refers to the language proficiency needed to carry out tasks related to interpersonal communication and relies heavily on context in order to clarify meaning. This interpersonal communication is not as cognitively demanding as CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) (Lasagabaster, 2001, p. 311). The students of level II are working on building a working vocabulary in the target language. Issues as to what constitutes a working vocabulary have been addressed in the literature but answers are far from universally agreed upon. Working vocabulary is used here to refer to those words that allow students, together with the appropriate grade level grammatical structures, to carry out tasks both receptively and productively in a variety of situations. For the purpose of this project, the working vocabulary consists of the vocabulary presented by the textbook used in class.

I.2 Questions that come to mind to language teachers and learners

When dealing with a foreign language teachers and students alike have asked questions about vocabulary and language learning. The questions below are among those that often come to mind, and throughout this dissertation some questions will be answered while for others it is hoped that the information provided will be useful and serve as a launching point for studies from which answers can be found. It is felt that at some point in the early learning process of an L2 the following questions come to mind. 1) How many words provide a “working vocabulary” in a foreign language? In other words how many words does one need to know in order to use the target language? 2) What are the best words to learn first? 3) In the early stages of learning

the L2, are some words more useful than others? 4) Are some words more difficult to learn than others? Can words be graded for ease of learning? 5) What are the best means of retaining words? 6) Is it most practical to learn words as single items in a list, in pairs (for example, as translation equivalents) or in context? 7) What about words that have different meanings? Should they be avoided? If not, should some meanings be isolated for learning first? 8) Are some words more likely to be encountered in spoken rather than written discourse? If so do we know what they are? (Carter and McCarthy, 1988, p. 2) 9) How basic is Basic when one refers to basic vocabulary? 10) Do the features of the language involved have an impact on the retention of vocabulary? In other words is it easier to learn and retain words that have similar sounds, morphology or etymology of the mother tongue? 11) What constitutes a “difficult word”?

In the following sections I will generally address some questions not with the intention to provide an answer but rather to provide some information around issues that concern language teachers and learners.

I.2.1 How much vocabulary do you need to use another language?

It is without doubt that the answer to the question: “How much vocabulary do you need to use another language” will differ based on the purpose for which another language is being used. Nevertheless, it is a difficult one to answer. Do we need to know the number of words in a given language to answer the question, or do we consider the number of words known by a native speaker of the language? In addition, one can ask what counts as a word. Do *libro* (book) and *libri* (books) count as one word or two? Nation (2001) notes that there are several ways of deciding what words will be counted. He refers to “tokens” as all the words that occur in a written or spoken text even if the same word form occurs more than once. The sentence “It is not

easy to say it correctly”, would contain eight words. He refers to “types” when the same word is not counted more than once so the previous sentence of eight tokens contains seven different “types” because the word “it” appears twice. The use of “lemmas” can be another unit of counting; a lemma consists of a headword (ex. Intelligente), a word without its morphological changes made to it (inflections, ex. intelligentemente) (p.7). “Word families” are yet another way of counting. A word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms, and its closely related derived forms. The major problem in counting using word families as the unit is to decide what should be included in a word family and what should not. Learners’ knowledge of the prefixes and suffixes develops as they gain more experience of the language. What might be a sensible word family for one learner may be beyond another learner’s present level of proficiency (p. 8).

In the attempt to answer the question posed at the beginning of this section it is interesting to point out what Nation (2001) noted. Studies of native speakers’ vocabulary seem to suggest that second language learners need to know very large numbers of words. While this may be useful in the long term, it is not an essential short-term goal. This is because studies of native speakers’ vocabulary growth see all words as being of equal value to the learner. Frequency based studies (see I.2.2) show very strikingly that this is not so, and that some words are much more useful than others. (p. 9). When we look at texts our learners may have to read and conversations that are like ones that they may be involved in, we find that a relatively small amount of well-chosen vocabulary can allow learners to do a lot.

I.2.2 Frequency words

Words can be distinguished based on the frequency with which they are used. Although a language makes use of a large number of words, not all of these words are equally useful. Because level II students are developing the basic interpersonal communication skills, the high frequency words are those on which to focus. These words are those that cover a very large proportion of the running words in spoken and written texts and occur in all kinds of uses of the language. The words presented in the textbook used for this study are considered to be high frequency words. In general words can be divided into four groups: high frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low frequency words. Academic words are those that are found in academic texts and are important for anyone using the language for academic purposes; technical words are very closely related to the topic and subject area of the text. They differ from subject area to subject area; low frequency words include those words that are not high-frequency words, not academic words and not technical words for a particular subject. They consist of technical words for other subject areas, proper nouns, and words that we rarely meet in our use of the language (Nation, 2001, p. 12). In his study on frequency words Nation (2001) gives ample examples of the frequency words. He starts from given texts (English) and calculates the percentage of occurring words to determine the frequency of the words used. The usual way of deciding how many words should be considered as high-frequency words is to look at the text coverage provided by successive frequency-ranked groups of words (p.16). This is all so the teacher can allocate the proper amount of time to the high frequency words. For the English language there are general lists of high frequency words for example the Michael West's *General Service List* (1953). In his article Meara (1980) informs us that this list is often cited by publishers and examining boards as guiding their choice of words in readers and examinations

for learners of English, despite the fact that both this list and the Thorndike-Lorge list have now been superseded by the more recent Kučera-Francis count (Kučera and Francis, 1967). Recent counts for a number of other languages commonly taught also exist, and ought to be more widely known. For Italian there is *Frequency Dictionary of Italian Words* (Julliard and Traversa, 1973).

The topic on word frequency and how to categorize words is not clear cut. The boundaries among them can be arbitrary. Beyond the high-frequency words of a language, people's vocabulary grows partly as a result of their jobs, interests and specializations. The technical vocabulary of our personal interests is important to us. To others, however, it is not important and from their point of view is just a collection of low-frequency words (Nation, 2001, p.20).

The textbooks available for secondary Italian instruction for level II courses generally have a word list for each chapter of study. For the purpose of my study I consider those words presented in the chapters as high-frequency words because they do, according to my experience, fall under the definition of "high-frequency" words. These words are important as they are the working vocabulary mentioned earlier (section I.1), and anything a teacher and student do to make sure these words are acquired and retained is worth doing. As a general statement, Nation states that the high frequency-words are an immediate high priority and there is little sense to focus on other vocabulary until these are well learned (Nation and Waring, 2011, p. 4). Possibly, once these words are acquired the next focus can be for the teacher to help the learners develop strategies to learn the low frequency words of the language.

I.3 The challenge of remembering new words

While there is agreement on the fact that second language learners are faced with the challenging task of remembering many new words, exactly how learners can best accomplish this task is greatly disputed. Determining what strategies, within a classroom setting, help in the retention of vocabulary is important to the task of building vocabulary. Words are not isolated units of language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels. Vocabulary knowledge is only one component of a range of goals that are important in the language classroom. The mnemonic LIST is a useful way of remembering these goals: L=language, which includes vocabulary, I= ideas, which covers content and subject matter knowledge as well as cultural knowledge, S=skills, (listening, reading, writing and speaking) and T= text or discourse, which covers the way sentences fit together to form larger units of language (Nation, 2001, p. 1). I deem vocabulary to be an important component because it enables language use and language use enables the increase of vocabulary knowledge. Once a learner develops a working vocabulary, this can be used to further develop vocabulary and knowledge of the vocabulary, for example different forms of a word, different meanings in different contexts.

One of the greatest problems in learning new words is their long-term retention. As learners or teachers of languages, we are familiar with the disconcerting experience of trying to recall, without success, a word which has only recently been encountered and used, or a word which has been in our vocabulary for a long time, but seems to elude us when it is looked for. The inability to recall words is experienced not only in production of spoken or written discourse, but also in comprehension. We often realize that we heard or saw a word and knew what it meant, but can no longer remember its meaning. In worse cases of forgetting, we may believe a word to be totally new, while in fact it was familiar to us at some point in the past.

It is claimed that word frequency affects retention. Words, to which learners are regularly exposed, are better recognized and retrieved in production. However, many students are exposed to the target language only in a classroom setting and for a limited number of hours per week, and it is not the norm for these students to engage in the use of the L2 out of the classroom setting.

Interestingly, Nation and Waring (2011) report on a study by Milton and Meara (1995) that states that significant vocabulary growth can occur if vocabulary learning is done in the second language environment. In their investigation of a study abroad program of 53 European students of advanced proficiency, the average growth in vocabulary per person approached a rate of 2500 words per year over the six months of the program. This rate of growth is similar to the larger estimates of first language growth in adolescents. Although native speaker vocabulary size is a possible goal, it is a very ambitious one for most learners of English as a foreign language (p. 2).

Another interesting point is made by Nation and Waring (2011) on a study on non-native speakers of English and their vocabulary size. They did a small study on vocabulary growth of non-native speakers in an English medium primary school (Jamieson, 1976). The study suggests that in such a situation non-native speakers' vocabulary grows at the same rate as native speakers' but the initial gap that existed between them is not closed. For adult learners of English as a foreign language, the gap between their vocabulary size and that of native speakers is usually very large, with many adult foreign learners of English having a vocabulary size of much less than 5000 word families despite having studied English for several years. While many second language learners do achieve vocabulary sizes like those of educated native speakers, they are not the norm (Nation and Waring, 2011, p. 2).

I.4 Issues on vocabulary teaching and learning

How words are taught has to take into account what we know about how words are learned. The focus of this dissertation is not on vocabulary acquisition research; however, it is pertinent to make mention of some general issues and questions that arise when dealing with vocabulary learning in general.

I.4.1 Acquisition and Learning

Although the words “acquisition” and “learning” and their meanings in SLA (second language acquisition) have been at the center of continuing debate inspired chiefly by Krashen (Krashen, 1981), in my study I will refer to those words as defined by Channell. An L2 word is acquired by a learner when a) its meaning can be recognized and understood (rather than guessed at), both in and out of context and b) it can be used naturally and appropriately in various situations. Learning then covers the conscious strategies employed to lead to acquisition. Learning is the process; acquisition is the end result (Carter and McCarthy, 1988, p. 84). It is clear that vocabulary learning and acquisition is not a goal in itself; it is done to help learners listen, speak, read and write more effectively.

In general, the goals of the vocabulary component of a course will be to increase learners’ useable vocabulary size and to help learners gain effective control of a range of vocabulary learning and coping strategies. ‘Usable’ vocabulary size implies that learners need to not only increase the vocabulary they know but also develop the fluency and skill with which they can use that vocabulary in the relevant language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Nation, 2001, p. 380).

It cannot be disputed that vocabulary is central to language and of critical importance to the typical language learner. Nevertheless, the teaching and learning of vocabulary have been undervalued in the field of second language acquisition throughout its varying stages up to the last few decades. There was a time when teaching and learning a foreign or second language was viewed primarily as a matter of controlling its grammar. Different methods and approaches to language teaching and learning had mastery of structures as their main goal, and vocabulary development was approached as some kind of auxiliary activity. Without under-valuing the grammatical structures of a language which are essential to accurately use the target language, I agree with a point that Widdowson (1978) makes. He claims that native speakers can better understand ungrammatical utterances with accurate vocabulary than those with accurate grammar and inaccurate vocabulary (Coady and Huckin, 1997, p. 13).

It was in the mid-1980s that we see a renewed interest in the role of vocabulary in second language learning, and this has seen a growing body of empirical based studies of such issues as the nature of the bilingual lexicon, vocabulary acquisition, lexical storage, lexical retrieval, and use of vocabulary by second language learners (Coady and Huckin, 1997, p. ix). Harley (1995) informs us that “Emphasis on the importance of the lexicon in language acquisition, use, and education is growing in second language... As documented by Meara (1987, 1992), the past decade has witnessed exponential growth in lexically oriented L2 research” (p. 1). Paul Nation (2001) has made notable contributions to the field of vocabulary learning and teaching with his continuing research. His book is a substantive resource for language teachers, learners, grammarians, and acquisition specialists.

I.4.2 Receptive and productive use of vocabulary

The receptive/productive distinction as a way of distinguishing types of knowledge in most cases depends on its resemblance to the distinction between the “receptive” skills of listening and reading and the “productive” skills of speaking and writing. Throughout my study I view receptive vocabulary acquisition as carrying the idea that we receive language input from others through listening and reading and try to comprehend it. Productive vocabulary acquisition carries the idea that we produce language forms by speaking and writing to convey messages to others. Essentially, receptive vocabulary use involves recognizing the form a word while listening or reading and retrieving its meaning; productive vocabulary use involves wanting to express a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form. It is generally assumed that learners gain receptive control of new words before active control; therefore, receptive acquisition precedes productive acquisition. As Channell notes for both L1 and L2 acquirers, many vocabulary items never become part of productive capacity, but remain part of receptive competence. So acquisition of individual vocabulary items consists first of comprehension, then (for some items only) of comprehension plus production (Carter and McCarthy, 1998, p. 84-85).

Throughout this dissertation I use the terms receptive and productive as described above, but it is pertinent to make a few considerations. Like most terminology, the words receptive and productive may not be completely suitable for the distinction made above because it can be argued that there are productive features in the receptive skills because when we are listening and reading we are producing meaning (Nation, 2001, p. 24). Some scholars have presented alternatives to the distinction of receptive and productive vocabulary. The terms “passive” (for listening and reading) and “active” (for speaking and writing) are sometimes used as

synonymous for receptive and productive (Meara, 1990a; Corson, 1995; Laufer, 1998), but some object to these terms as they do not see listening and reading as having some of the characteristics which can be attached to the term passive. Teichroew (1982) claims that the distinction between receptive and productive is arbitrary and would be more usefully treated as a scale of knowledge (Nation, 2001, p. 25).

An interesting point is Corson's (1995) description of active and passive vocabulary which is strongly based on the idea of use and not solely on degrees of knowledge. He uses the terms active and passive to refer to productive and receptive vocabulary. He claims that some passive vocabulary may be very well known but never used and therefore never active (Nation, 2001, p. 25). Some words may be active but not used because perhaps the situation does not lend itself or the opportunity does not present itself. From his point of view, the terms active and passive are more suitable than productive and receptive. He occasionally uses the term unmotivated to refer to some of the passive vocabulary.

The terms productive and receptive, when applied to vocabulary, cover all aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. At the most general level knowing a word involves form, meaning and use. Using Nation's (2001) process model to show the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word I give the following example (p. 26). From the point of view of receptive knowledge and use, knowing the word *sottosviluppato* involves: 1) being able to recognize the word when it is heard, 2) being familiar with its written form so that it is recognized when it is met in reading, 3) recognizing that it is made up of the parts *sotto-*, and *svilupato* and being able to relate these parts to its meaning, 4) knowing that *sottosviluppato* signals a particular meaning, 5) knowing what the word means in the particular context in which it has just occurred, 6) knowing the concept behind the word which will allow understanding in a variety of contexts, 7)

knowing that there are related words like *arretrato*, 8) being able to recognize that *sottosviluppato* has been used correctly in the sentence in which it occurs, 9) being able to recognize that words such as *territorio*, *zona* and *in via di...* are typical collocations (types of words that general occur together or must be used together), 10) knowing that it is an adjective. From the point of view of productive knowledge and use, knowing the word *sottosviluppato* involves: 1) being able to say it with correct pronunciation including stress, 2) being able to write it with correct spelling, 3) being able to construct it using the right word parts in their appropriate forms, 4) being able to produce the word to express the meaning of *sottosviluppato*, 5) being able to produce synonyms and opposites for *sottosviluppato*, 6) being able to use the word correctly in an original sentence, 7) being able to produce the words that commonly occur with it.

Touching briefly on a psycholinguistic point of view, Fay and Cutler (1977) imply, based on studies done on the mental lexicon, that the words for production and those of comprehension are stored separately in the mind. They imply that for both the L1 and L2 user of a language, the two distinct processes of production (whether speaking or writing) and comprehension (whether listening or reading), make different use of the store of words in the mind. Part of the production process must consist of a selection of appropriate words according to the meaning to be conveyed. The word form is then converted into a phonological shape for onward processing into speech: the direction of mapping is meaning > sound. In comprehension, the direction of mapping is sound > meaning. These differences might suggest that for the mental word store the optimal arrangement for production will be according to meaning, while the optimal arrangement for comprehension will be according to sound (Carter, McCarthey, 1988, p. 85).

I.5 Depth of processing hypothesis

The concept of the “depth of processing hypothesis” is crucial for the design of the activities of my study. The activities that I present in chapter III were tailored to the specific level of study of the subjects, because had the experiment been conducted on subjects of a higher level course of study, other activities would have been tested. The depth of processing hypothesis, first proposed by Craik & Lockhart (1972), states that the main difference between short term memory and long term memory lies in the way the input is processed. Depending on the level of this processing, information will be lost from the short term memory or transferred to long term memory (Kersten, 2010, p. 64). Craik & Lockhart (1972) say that in the past few decades models of human memory have been dominated by the concept of stores (memory stores) and the transfer of information among them. They use the terms “short term storage” and “long term storage” to refer to the two relevant storage systems (p. 671). In the thinking of Craik & Lockhart, the existing dichotomy in cognitive psychology between short and long term memory stores is more a function of different forms of coding processing. For them, trace durability is a function of the way in which the material is encoded. It is, in other words, the depth of analysis required to encode the input which determines retention, and greater degrees of semantic or cognitive analyses are supposedly performed at deeper levels in the hierarchy. Their depth-of-processing hypothesis is therefore presented as a hierarchical series of processing stages through which incoming information passes (Lambert, 1988, p. 378). Greater “depth” implies a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis; after the stimulus has been recognized, it may undergo further processing by enrichment or elaboration (Craik & Lockhart, 1972, p. 675). The more cognitive energy a person exerts when manipulating and thinking about a word, the more likely it is that they will be able to recall and use it later.

Craik and Tulving (1975) later specified that retention is determined by the richness of encoding. A more elaborate encoding results in a more durable connection, that is, the deeper the processing, the better the learning. These elaborations and processes indicate that a word needs to be manipulated and thought about by the learner, preferably using already existing mental information to which it can be linked. The more the learner engages with a word, the better it will be retained. This does not mean only repetition, because new information needs to be thought about which helps to make associations. Richer levels can be achieved when students are asked, for example, to manipulate words, relate them to other words and to their own experiences and to justify their choices (Kersten, 2010, p. 65).

The depth of processing hypothesis is not without problems and although experiments have been done to prove its points there have been others that have reported contradictory results. However, for my study I interpret it as described above and as formulated by Craik and Lockhart. For each grade level, I claim that the more cognitively demanding the activities the learner engages in the better the words will be retained. Nation states: “I think the depth or levels of processing hypothesis is one of the most exciting ideas in learning that I’ve seen for a long time. In learning, the amount of effort is not that important; what is important is the quality of activity in the brain” (Schmitt, 1995, p. 5).

The section that follows is a brief overview of some research studies in the field of vocabulary learning and its relation to retention.

Chapter II

Literature overview

Any scholar who has approached studies on L2 vocabulary learning is well aware of the different methodologies and theories that have prevailed throughout the years in the field of second language acquisition; from the *Grammar translation Method*, to the *Reform Movement*, to mention a few, to the approach used today, the *Communicative Approach* (Coady and Huckin, 1997). Various theories from different disciplines-- cognitive psychology, linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics etc.--have influenced the approaches and trends in second language vocabulary instruction and learning. As I mentioned in chapter I it is only recently that SLA researchers have given emphasis to the lexicon. The following is an overview of research studies that test different approaches and methodologies of teaching L2 vocabulary. The goal is to determine what approach/technique proves to be beneficial not only in the learning of target vocabulary but also in its retention.

II.1 The impact of translation on vocabulary learning and retention

There is a general feeling especially among proponents of the communicative approach that first language translations should not be used in the teaching and testing of vocabulary. According to Nation (2001) this attitude is wrong, he states:

Translation is one of a number of means of conveying meaning and in general is no better or worse than the use of pictures, real objects, definitions, L2 synonyms and so on. Translation or the use of the first language may be discouraged for political reasons, because teachers do not know the learners' first language, or because first language is

seen as reducing opportunities for second language practice. However, the use of the first language to convey and test word meaning is very efficient (p. 351).

While the communicative approach advocates the use of the target language and implicit/incidental learning in vocabulary teaching, recent literature suggests that there is a need for these methods to be reconsidered. This is motivated by studies which suggest that for effective vocabulary learning to occur explicit learning should be complemented with implicit learning (Ramachandran and Rahim, 2004, p. 161). Current definitions on implicit versus explicit learning originate in the field of psychology; these definitions generally focus on the absence or presence of conscious operations as a crucial distinguishing factor, which is in line with Ellis' terminology. Implicit learning is typically defined as "acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operation" while explicit learning is said to be characterized by a "more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in search for structure" (Ellis, 1994).

With the emphasis on explicit learning, it has been argued that the vocabulary development of a language, second and foreign is more likely to be generally more implicit or incidental beyond a certain level of proficiency (Carter and McCarthy, 1988).

The findings of a research study conducted by Ramachandran and Rahim (2004) on subjects from a secondary school in Malaysia, revealed the efficacy of the translation method on meaning recall and retention. The authors investigated the effectiveness of the translation method in teaching vocabulary to elementary level ESL learners as compared to a non-translation method in the recall and retention of vocabulary meaning. They suggested that the translation method, an explicit mode of instruction, which uses the L1 in the learning of L2, be encouraged in the ESL

classrooms for learners whose English proficiency is at the elementary level. One of the main reasons is that it allows learners to relate to their L1 knowledge. It has been suggested that these learners rely on their L1 to transfer to L2 meaning (Atkinson 1987, Ellis 1995, Nation 1990) which means that their L1 works as a body of reference when they are comprehending the meaning of words (Ramachandran, Rahim, 2004, p. 163).

In their investigation the experimental group received the translation method as the treatment, and the control group received the non-translation method as the treatment. The teacher used English and Malay (mother tongue) in teaching the experimental group, and only English was used in teaching the control group. In the experimental class the translated version of the lexical items was given while for the control group, the meaning of the items was given in English. To help the understanding of the meaning of the lexical items for the control group the teacher provided real stimuli for certain items. Following this, subjects were called at random to provide the meaning for each lexical item (p. 168). At the end of each session the subjects were given a test in which they had to provide meanings for the lexical items learned in the class. Subjects in both groups were allowed to respond by writing their answers either in Malay or English. The test materials were in the form of worksheets, these worksheets contained the words taught for that particular lesson and students were asked to provide meanings for the words learned.

The findings of the experiment determined that the subjects from the experimental group using the translation method performed better than those from the control group using a non-translation method. All of the subjects in the experimental group performed well in the recall of the meaning of the lexical items where over half of the subjects in the control group did not perform as well. As one of the aims of the study was to measure the lasting effectiveness of the translation method, a delayed post-test was administered. For this also, the subjects who learned

the lexical items through the translation method were successful in recalling the meanings of the lexical items: the percentage of subjects responding correctly in all cases was 90% and above in recalling the meaning of the words. The subjects who learned the lexical items through the non-translation method were not as successful in recalling meaning of the words as the percentage of subjects responding correctly was 10% and below (p. 173). Ramachandran and Rahim concluded that the translation method is effective in comparison with a non-translation method in enhancing ESL learners' vocabulary learning ability and in addition, the translation method improves elementary ESL learners' ability to recall the meaning of the words learned.

In their study they reference Koda (1997) according to whom the L1 is viewed as a critical basis for learning the new linguistic system rather than as an interfering effect. In addition, referencing Corder (1990), he notes that the reliance on the L1 knowledge is basically relying on prior knowledge to facilitate new learning. This seems to fit the aims of the Communicative approach which states that new learning can be linked to prior knowledge in order for meaningful learning to take place (p. 174).

In another study, Grace (2000) investigated the effect of L1 translations on males and females who are beginning French students engaged in a computer assisted language learning (CALL) lesson. The goal of her study was to determine whether men and women benefit equally from a CALL lesson that either makes exclusive use of the L2 or provides translations in the L1 at the dialogue level when the goal is vocabulary learning. For the purpose of this dissertation, the results of Grace's study on the effect of L1 translations on males and females is not as important as the general results on the effect of the translations in vocabulary retention and recall. From her literature review she notes that the consensus among several CALL studies is that recall is enhanced (Hulstijn, Hollander & Greidanus, 1996; Knight, 1994; Lomicka, 1998)

and vocabulary retention is superior when word meanings are provided either by L1 glosses (Chun & Plass, 1996; Hulstijn, 1993; Knight, 1994) or by translations at the dialogue level (Grace, p. 215).

The participants of Grace's study were first and second year university students studying French. They were randomly assigned to an experimental group (translation group) or a control group (non-translation group). The participants attended two sessions in a computer laboratory and were engaged in a multimedia lesson of reading comprehension and cultural awareness. They had control over the learning environment and the design allowed learners to select the options best suited for their mode of learning. Each screen gave all participants the option to choose a) a graphic depiction of the screen's dialogue; b) a dialogue-based French text that corresponded to the screen's graphic depiction; c) an audio track with supporting background audio and narration of the dialogue-based French text; d) definitional sentences in French of words found in the dialogue. In addition, the participants in the experimental group had the option to access an English translation of the entire French dialogue. This feature was the only one not included in the lesson for the control group. Grace points out that, as a measure against bias in favor of the translation group, the experimental lesson did not provide translations of individual words but only offered English translations of the French dialogues as entire units (p. 217). During the first session the participants took a pretest, did the experimental or the control CALL lesson, and took posttest one; two weeks later, in session two, they took posttest two. The three tests were all computerized, the pretest served to establish the participants' vocabulary knowledge and was administered before the lesson; posttest one served to calculate short-term retention and was administered immediately after the lesson; and posttest two served to calculate long-term retention and was administered two weeks after the lesson. All tests presented the

same items to both the translation and the non-translation groups. Each item consisted of French sentence and four multiple choice responses. The French sentence was taken directly from the lesson and included a highlighted target word. The response choices consisted of English definitions of the word highlighted in the sentence and these definitions differed from the dialogue translations featured in the experimental lesson (p. 218).

Grace concluded that when the students were given bilingual multiple-choice tests, all learners in the translation group demonstrated significantly greater short term and long term retention than those without translations. However, there were no significant differences between males and females on their short- term or long- term retention test scores.

II.2 Reading and vocabulary acquisition and retention

There is considerable evidence from first language studies that extensive reading for meaning leads to vocabulary acquisition over time, and indeed that reading probably accounts for most L1 vocabulary expansion beyond the first few thousand words in common oral usage. Second language research on this issue is sparse, but what there is indicates that extensive reading programs are generally more effective than systematic vocabulary instruction using decontextualized exercises (see, for example, Elly and Mangubhai, 1983; Krashen, 1989) (Coady and Huckin, 1997, p. 174). The process by which “incidental” acquisition through reading occurs is slow, however, and there is no way to predict which words will be learned, when, nor to what degree.

Despite the general consensus among researchers that reading is one important source of acquiring vocabulary, the effectiveness and efficiency of this approach has seriously been challenged (Waring & Takaki, 2003), especially when it is compared with reading plus

supplementary word-focused activities (Knight, 1994; Laufer, 2000; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997) and applied in instructed foreign language context (Laufer, 2003) (Coady, Huckin, p. 20). Min (2008) notes that more heat than light has been generated regarding the effect of extensive reading on acquisition of new L2 vocabulary. Some L2 vocabulary researchers (Krashen, 1989) have maintained that reading was the principal source of lexical increase in the L2. Yet this argument has been deemed as an intuition-appealing contention drawn for the most part on studies reporting general progress during class reading (Elley, 1991) or after class reading (Elley & Mangubhai, 1983; Parry, 1993, 1997; Shu, Anderson, & Zhang 1995; Wode, 1999) rather than on empirical evidence showing significant gains on particular words. Even in cases where empirical studies were conducted (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993), the experimental designs lacked the rigor shown in their L1 counterparts (Nagy, Herman, & Anderson, 1985).

According to Waring and Takaki (2003) the general picture that emerges from studies conducted to claim the effect of extensive reading on L2 vocabulary acquisition is that learners do learn vocabulary from their reading, but not very much. They also point out that it is quite rare in research into vocabulary gains from reading to ask how long these gains will last. Because the tests are usually administered after the reading, the new words are fresh in the mind when taking these immediate posttests. The real test of whether a word has been learned is whether the meaning of a word is retained over a period of time (p.133).

Some researchers argue that contextual information does not necessarily guarantee vocabulary learning. Paribakht and Wesche (1997) state that learners tend to ignore unknown words unless they interfere with the comprehension process. Furthermore, even helpful contexts or redundant

information that enables learners to infer the meanings of unknown words may not force them to pay attention to those words (Kitajima, 2001, p. 471). Interestingly, Hulstijn (1993), states:

There is empirical evidence in the literature that inferring a word's meaning from context, checking one's inference by consulting a dictionary and writing the word fosters an elaborate processing of the word and therefore facilitates its retention in memory (Huckin & Haynes, 1993; Nation, 1990; Shouten-Van Parreren, 1989). However, this procedure offers no guarantee for the retention of the link between the word's form and its meaning. It is only sometimes that this link constitutes itself spontaneously, without a conscious effort on the learner's part. Quite often, however, learners need to intentionally learn words in order not to forget them (Coady and Huckin, 1997, p. 203).

Hulstijn suggests that when students find a word difficult to remember they might well be advised to apply a mnemonic technique, such as the keyword method, which helps to facilitate the linking of a word's form to its meaning. The keyword method is a memory technique, and it requires the learner to make a link between the L2 word to learn with either another L2 word or an L1 word. Also, a visual image must be constructed combining the referents of the keyword and the target word preferably in a bizarre or odd way to increase its memorability (Coady and Huckin, p. 204). An example of a keyword technique is given for the Italian word *colomba* ("dove", "pigeon"); the English keyword would be: *Columbus*; the mental image would be Columbus standing on the foredeck of his ship, like Noah on his ark, with the pigeon in the air coming from the invisible American coast. If possible, keywords should be taken not from the L1 but the L2 vocabulary with which the learner is already familiar (Coady and Huckin, p. 205). Although there are researchers (Atkinson, 1995; Atkinson & Raugh, 1975) that have investigated the effectiveness of its use; the keyword method has its critics and it seems that it is not well

known and seldom practiced in L2 instruction (see H.Hulstijn, 1993 for implications on the keyword technique).

Some researchers have investigated whether instructional intervention could support the process of reading and make it more directed and efficient. The result is that the effectiveness of vocabulary focused tasks on both short-term and long-term lexical retention was superior to that of reading only, and different task demands of vocabulary enhancing activities appeared to exert differential impacts on vocabulary retention.

II.2.1 Hui-Tzu Min (2008)

Min (2008) examines whether the combination of a reading class plus vocabulary - enhancing exercises could better increase foreign language teenage learners' vocabulary acquisition and retention than a class engaging in multiple readings of the same theme (narrow reading). The findings of this study corroborated other similar research (Paribakht and Wesche, 1997) that reading supplemented with vocabulary- enhancement activities are more effective for vocabulary gains and retention, although noticeable progress was achieved by the reading only group. All target words were highlighted in boldface for both groups during the instructional period. But, Min points out that in "real world" reading, no word would appear in such a form to draw learners' attention. Under such circumstances, the reading plus group would have noticed the target words because of varied vocabulary exercises. The narrow reading group, on the other hand, might have turned to comprehending the general gist of the readings instead and failed to notice the target word. Completing a variety of vocabulary exercises tapping different levels of processing capabilities such as recognition, interpretation, and production might have engaged the reading plus group in varying levels of explicit cognitive processing (p.98). Given the variety

and amount of exercises that the reading plus group intensively practiced during the instructional period, they had more opportunities to consciously undergo an elaborate mental processing of the target words, which was likely to enhance their vocabulary acquisition and retention.

In contrast, the narrow reading group did not do any exercise except for answering multiple-choice or true/false reading comprehension questions accompanying the main text. They encountered the target words in bold face in the main text and then three to four times in reading supplemental texts. Min believes that they might have attended to the gist of the passage as a whole despite noticing the boldfaced target words. In addition, Min noticed that the effect of reading was more pronounced in developing and enriching already known vocabulary rather than new words (p. 97).

This study and other studies that have addressed the reading and vocabulary acquisition and retention issue, do not argue against the educational value of reading activities but rather point out a more efficient and effective method of vocabulary acquisition in an EFL instructed setting where students are expected to expand their vocabulary size to cope with English texts and retain it for subsequent tests during a short period of time (pg. 102).

II.2.2 Paribakht & Wesche (1997)

In a similar study Paribakht and Wesche (1997) examine reading comprehension plus vocabulary enhancement exercises as opposed to a reading only method. Paribakht and Wesche also report similar findings to Min's investigation. To give support to the educational value of reading activities it is important to mention that in Paribakht and Wesche's study, the results indicate that both instructional instruments (reading plus and reading alone) produced significant gains in learners' vocabulary knowledge, but the reading plus treatment led to greater gains.

Focused vocabulary instruction based on theme related reading texts and using a variety of techniques has shown greater effectiveness than reading comprehension alone for learning selected vocabulary. Similar to Min's findings and conclusions Paribakht and Wesche believe that the reason for the better success of reading followed by vocabulary exercises may be that these exercises ensured learner attention to specific vocabulary items and required learners to analyze and understand the meanings and functions of target words through different tasks. Both the amount and variety of mental processing required may have influenced the likelihood of learners acquiring more knowledge of particular words. In approaching a reading text learners tend to ignore the meanings of unknown words, unless they are essential for achieving the desired level of text comprehension. Paribakht and Wesche sustain that this strategy of reading only, although justifiable for general reading practice and increasing reading speed, is not ideal for vocabulary enrichment over a limited instructional period.

II.3 Vocabulary retention in output activities vs. input activities

A study undertaken by Ryu Kitajima (2001) examines whether output activities (producing the language through speaking and writing) facilitate the retention of words more efficiently than input-dominant activities, which require students to comprehend questions involving target words but do not encourage them to use the words in communication. Although this study was conducted on only five students I think it is worthwhile acknowledging it. The author makes mention of the arguments on the processes involved in comprehension and production and raises a question about vocabulary learning: "Does an instructional condition that requires students to initiate oral communication using target words help them retain those words better than an

instructional condition that requires only the comprehension of target words in input addressed to them”? (p. 472).

Kitajima’s study is similar to that of Min’s and Paribakht and Wesche (sections II.2.1, II.2.2 of this dissertation) in that it investigates the focus on vocabulary activities as a means of a more effective way to retain vocabulary. It differs, however because Kitajima’s study focuses on investigating vocabulary learning and retention through an oral mode.

In second language studies of the 1970s and 1980s, input was examined as an essential component in second language acquisition. The position proposed by Krashen (1982, 1985) on comprehensible input regards it as one of the two necessary conditions for SLA to take place. Some researchers, for example Van Patten and Cadierno (1995), adopted a similar view and some studies conducted, concluded that comprehensible input is a necessary and sufficient component for language acquisition (Kitajima, 2001, p. 473). However, other researchers in second language studies (Ellis et al., 1995; Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Gregg, 1984; Sharwood Smith, 1986; White, 1987) believe that comprehending input is not enough for language acquisition. Ellis et al. contend that “comprehension involves top-down processing, which obviates the need for learners to attend to the actual forms presented in the input” (Kitajima, 2001, p.455). In comprehending spoken language, utterances are most often delivered at a rate that is out of listener’s control. Therefore, in comprehending utterances, listeners neither have time to analyze structures in detail, nor can they go back to the surface-level structures previously presented. Swain and Lapkin (1995) suggest that one way of focusing learners’ attention on surface-level forms is *output*. They state that output that forces learners to use the language for production shifts their attention from the semantic analysis needed for comprehension to a more syntactic analysis of the input to which they are exposed. Though these

discussions focus strictly on grammatical structures, the arguments can be applied to vocabulary learning because vocabulary learning is not limited to encoding individual words themselves but also the words' syntactic and morphological features (Kitajima, p.472).

The study conducted by Kitajima, examined whether or not an “output condition” that forces students to talk about video scenes using target words in small-group work facilitates the retention of those words in memory, in comparison with an “input-dominant condition”, in which the same students are asked comprehension questions, using target words, about the video scenes. Retention of the target words was examined not only at the semantic level, but also at the morphological, phonological, syntactic and contextual levels. Kitajima presents the results at each of the levels mentioned; but, as a whole, Kitajima concluded that the results show some clear differences between the input dominant and output conditions. Two months after exposure to the target words, students remembered significantly more words under the output condition than they did words under the input-dominant condition. In contrast with the high retention rate of target words in both conditions one month after the initial exposure, the retention rate of words from the input condition dropped to 40% two months after the exposure, while retention of words from the output condition remained high at 79%. Furthermore, the results show that two and one-half months after initial exposures, students used more words studied under the output condition than under the input-dominant condition. These results suggest that the output condition helps students encode the surface-level forms into their memory better than the input-dominant condition. To produce the words in real- time communication, students need to search and retrieve linguistic forms from their memories. In the output condition, students are forced to allocate their attention to surface- level linguistic forms. This might be why the students retained more accurate phonological, morphological, and syntactic features of words studied under the

output condition, as compared to the input-dominant condition (p. 480). In addition Kitajima's study suggests that deliberate vocabulary instruction is beneficial for students, especially for those who do not have ample opportunity to use the target language outside the classroom. Furthermore, to retain phonological, morphological and syntactic features of vocabulary words for an extended period of time, instruction requiring students to comprehend word meaning alone is not as effective as requiring them to use it in context. Also, evaluation of student performance needs to place weight on the appropriateness of students' use of vocabulary words. If students realize that they will be evaluated not only on their communicative skills but also on the appropriate use of target words, they will allocate more attention to those words (p. 481).

II.4 Mnemonics and long-term retention

In section II.2 of this paper I briefly mentioned the use of the keyword method as a mnemonic technique along with some benefits for vocabulary acquisition and retention. The findings of a research study conducted by Wang and Thomas (1994) revealed interesting outcomes regarding mnemonic devices and their use and outcome on long-term retention. The authors concluded that it should not be assumed that learning strategies boosting immediate performance will confer advantages in the long term. That is, techniques that foster rapid learning in the classroom may not serve the student well later. Interestingly, whereas imagery-based mnemonic devices produce substantial benefits for learning and immediate recall, there exists no direct evidence indicating that they confer long-term advantages. The authors state that with the exception of a few studies, it seems that the long-term influence of mnemonic devices has been assumed rather than empirically tested. Harley (1995) informs us that Wang and Thomas' study revealed two aspects that are significant: 1) "whereas rote learning is not a

‘glitzy’ learning strategy, it does seem to promote long term retention” (p. 168), 2) when using a mnemonic strategy as a method of vocabulary instruction, “it should emphasize the ability of the learner to discover and apply their own mnemonic cues” (Harley, p. 181). In other words long-term retention may not be as successful if the mnemonic image is teacher supplied rather than student generated.

Wang and Thomas conducted a study where they compare the retention rates for second-language vocabulary words that were learned using either the keyword technique (see section II.2 of this paper) or by rote learning. They verified that the keyword technique produced significantly higher levels of immediate recall compared to rote learning. This result replicates earlier research demonstrating the effectiveness of mnemonic devices for acquisition performance and immediate recall. But, they also determined that keyword mnemonics do not confer any long-term advantages beyond immediate test of recall. In addition, in their experiments they verified that greater forgetting was obtained for items acquired using the keyword technique compared with items acquired using rote learning.

The experimenters extended this finding by assessing the effect of an experimenter-supplied, imagery-based mnemonic technique other than the keyword system. They reported two studies that assessed both immediate and delayed recall of English equivalents of Chinese ideographs learned either under conditions of rote learning or imagery-based instruction. They began with the notion that “image-hospitable” language material would provide the ideal test for studying the long term effect of an imagery-based learning strategy. Consequently, selected Chinese characters (ideographs) were chosen as language stimuli because their etymological heritage is based on ideographic rather than phonetic representation. The elaborative strategy that they developed takes advantage of the imagery and symbolism that is suggested visually by many

Chinese characters (Harley, p. 171). The participants in the mnemonic learning condition were given a brief description of each ideograph's etymological origin with respect to its visual components. Because the researchers' intention was to have participants simply recall each character's meaning, there was no attempt to have learners pronounce any of the Chinese language stimuli. The participants were prompted to integrate the appearance of each ideograph with an experimenter-supplied image that would assist in the recall of its English equivalent. In contrast, rote learning participants traced over the ideograph and wrote its English equivalent as many as six times.

In one study, when total exposure time was held constant across learning conditions (mnemonic vs. rote learning), there was a distinct advantage for imagery-based instruction on the immediate test of cued recall. When cued recall was assessed two days later, retention levels for the mnemonic and rote learning conditions were highly comparable. In another study they wanted to replicate this finding with a one week retention interval. They were able to increase immediate recall levels in the rote learning condition by increasing the total exposure time for study items (from 30 seconds to 42 seconds). This study indicated that ideographs acquired using the experimenter-supplied images were no more likely to be remembered than were items that were rote rehearsed. The experimenters concluded that contrary to widely held expectations, supplying learners with mnemonically derived images did not produce any long-term advantages for the retention of second-language vocabulary items (Harley, p.176-180). Wang and Thomas state:

The research reported suggests that imagery –based memories can be especially prone to long-term forgetting. Frankly, we were not wholly prepared for this finding because it ran counter to many prevailing models of memory. Since then, our laboratory has replicated

many times this dramatic decline in long –term memories associated with imagery-based mnemonics.... Despite the immediate superiority of using keywords, we find that this imagery-based mnemonic produces consistently greater long-term forgetting compared to a non-mnemonic strategy such as rote rehearsal (Harley, p. 167)

The findings suggest that pedagogically, teachers should not assume that providing mnemonic devices to their students will “automatically” strengthen memories for the study material; a strict reliance on teacher-supplied mnemonics can produce immediate benefits in the classroom, but long-term advantages may prove elusive (Harley, p. 181).

In a similar study Peter Kelly (1992) reported different findings than Thomas and Wang when he investigated mnemonic techniques over rote repetition. Kelly’s study indicated that training and encouragement in the use of formal and semantic verbal associations will lead to better vocabulary retention. The factors that prompted his research were a detailed study of the keyword method and other attempts by researchers to fix new vocabulary items in memory “at the first go”, without any forgetting taking place, by mental, as opposed to sensory means (Kelly, p. 3). In his exploratory study, Kelly found that items that readily suggested verbal, imagery and other associations with known information were more readily remembered than those which did not.

II.5 “Second-hand cloze” and vocabulary retention

Laufer and Osimo (1991), report on the efficacy of a vocabulary reinforcement technique referred to as the “second-hand cloze” in improving long-term retention of words. They concluded that words submitted to the task of the second-hand cloze are remembered better than

words which are not submitted to this task. They suggested that the second-hand cloze embodies some characteristics of other memorization techniques, but also overcomes their shortcomings.

The second-hand cloze is an exercise consisting of a summarized version of a studied text with the target words deleted. The learner has to supply the missing words in text blanks. Though this task resembles a cloze exercise, it is different from Laufer and Osimo's task in that the second-hand cloze uses text summaries that are rewritten versions of already studied texts, and not unseen texts. While the aim of an ordinary cloze passage is either to test comprehension, or to practice specific areas of language like words, grammatical structures, discourse connectors, the aim of the second-hand cloze, as explained by the researchers, is to force the student into a situation of deep mental processing of a newly learned set of words as a means of retaining those words. The learner is instructed to fill in the memorized target items as they fit the context. This is achieved by dictating a list of target items in the mother tongue which have to be translated and supplied in the proper places (p. 221).

Interestingly, the researchers claim that the second-hand cloze provides an opportunity to reactivate the new words, but it avoids the monotony and artificiality of rote learning by providing a text context. It is a meaningful activity as it involves reconstructing a summary from an authentic text which deals with the student's particular field of interest. The gap filling task is not a game which adults may resist, because it may be considered too elementary and childish, but a problem solving activity which challenges the adult student. As for the mnemonic element in the second-hand cloze, the familiar topic and context serve as a mnemonic aid. There is no need to rely on learners' imagination (which may not be there anyway) for associations. Associations aroused by context are less forced, less artificial and less time consuming. In addition, the requirements of the mental effort hypothesis (mentioned earlier in this dissertation,

section I.5) or deep thought processing are also satisfied by the second-hand cloze since the learner is required to fit words not into original texts, but into an “altered collocative and syntactic environment and condensed content” (Laufer and Osimo, p. 223).

II.6 Folse (1999)

In an interesting article, Folse (1999) conducts a study in which he discusses myths about teaching and learning second language vocabulary and what recent research says to its regards. His research looked at methods of vocabulary instruction, learners’ vocabulary learning strategies, the development of L2 learners’ vocabulary, the use of L1 or L2 for initial word presentation, the effect of different practice activities on learning, the number of words L2 learners need to know, and which words students need to know. The findings of his studies cast doubt on common myths about L2 vocabulary teaching and learning.

His study focuses on the following eight myths: 1) vocabulary is not as important in learning a foreign language as grammar or other areas, 2) it is not good to use lists of words when learning vocabulary, 3) vocabulary should be presented in semantic sets, 4) the use of translation is a poor way to learn new vocabulary, 5) guessing words from context is as productive for foreign language learners as it is for first language learners, 6) the best vocabulary learners make use of only one or two effective specific vocabulary learning strategies, 7) foreign language learners should use a monolingual dictionary, 8) vocabulary is sufficiently covered in curricula and courses (p. 1).

Folse presents research findings that reject the above myths, and although the research findings he presents apply mainly to ESL learners I believe it can apply to foreign language learners in general. Obviously his claim is that vocabulary is the essential component in a

language teaching program. He states that comprehensible input helps learner figure out how a language works. If the language a learner is hearing or reading has many unknown words, then that language is not comprehensible and therefore cannot be input. In other words, without vocabulary, comprehensible input is neither comprehensible nor input (p. 2).

Chapter III

The Experiment: A classroom action research study

In chapter I, the reasons for the present classroom action research study were described. As mentioned earlier, this research was undertaken to verify, to the extent possible, if the use of certain vocabulary activities can help students retain the vocabulary studied, thus expanding their vocabulary size in the target language which develops their skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking) for basic interpersonal communication. In the follow sections I introduce the participants and the demographics of their school and location. The content of the course is discussed, I explain the hypothesis and pose the questions which I later attempt to answer in the results sections (III.6-7). The experiment itself, in all its components, will be presented along with its limitations, variables and implications.

III.1 Subjects/participants and demographics of high school and location

This study examined 68 high school students, 45 were part of the experimental group and 23 were part of the control group. The students were 9th graders who successfully completed level I Italian and were enrolled in level II Italian. Being in a high school, the students were randomly and indiscriminately distributed into three different classes of which two classes comprised the experimental group and one class comprised the control group. All three classes were male/female classes and all students were in mainstream classes although a few had some sort of academic accommodation (extra time during testing, preferential seating) due to an IEP (Individualized Educational Plan). Due to the lack of tracking in this particular high school, at the time the experiment was conducted, the students within each class were at different performance levels in Italian. Based on their previous level scores, the students' average in

Italian ranged from a 65 to 100. The students' general motivation for learning Italian varied; in fact, some explicitly expressed enthusiasm, and some were in the class just to fulfill an academic requirement. The students were not aware that some of the activities submitted were being completed for the purpose of this project.

The participants are students of a suburban public high school; the foreign languages offered are Italian, Spanish and French. Despite the presence of a strong Italian heritage in the community, Spanish is the study language of preference among the general school population. Although the majority of the students claim to be of Italian descent, those who study Italian don't encounter the language at home nor elsewhere outside the classroom.

With the intent to provide some brief background information of the town in which the school is located, the *Movoto* website indicates that 12% of the birthplace for foreign born population is Italy, 11% Germany and lower percentages for several other places. For the languages spoken, 81% of the population speaks English, 5% Spanish and the remainder speaks other Indo-European languages. Based on the report of the household income levels it can be inferred that the area is a medium income community and the poverty level is 0-5.9%.

A "report card" of the school according to *Newsday* schools database, classifies the school as above average for the educational climate index. As of 2011 the average number of students per grade is 313; based on the NYS Italian Regents score, in 2011, out of 100 students, 24 scored between 65-84, and 76 scored between 85-100. The chart in Appendix 4.G shows scores of other academic subjects.

III. 2 Content of the course

The course was a level II Italian course designed to continue the development of the four skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening in Italian; cultural and geographical aspects of the country and people were also presented. The classes met every other day for eighty minutes. The textbook used for this course was a standard high school text book, *Prego*, and out of the seven chapters covered throughout the course only the topical vocabulary from the first four chapters was analyzed for this study. In addition to the text book other supplemental materials (readers, articles etc.) were utilized to foster comprehension and encourage the use of the target language. The course followed, for the most part, the format of the textbook, and the activities that the students engaged in were those suggested by the textbook. The standardized activities consisted of multiple choice questions, fill in the blank, matching exercises for reading and listening selections, as for grammar structures and vocabulary. Students engaged in speaking and writing activities; the speaking exercises were mainly dialogues for a given situation, and students carried out the task either with the teacher or with another partner. Students also were required to write short compositions (75-100 words) related to the topic of study. These exercises that I define as standardized activities reflect the communicative approach which is generally the focus in the foreign language classrooms today. The different approaches and methodologies that have affected foreign language teaching throughout the years were mentioned in chapter II.

Learners are assessed throughout the units of study through brief quizzes that usually target a specific point such as vocabulary, grammar, etc. These quizzes are utilized to assess the productive use or the receptive use of the specific item (see section I.4.1 for receptive vs. productive use of language). At the end of a unit of study a comprehensive exam is administered to assess the four skills both in the productive and receptive aspects. In addition to the

aforementioned activities and assessments students may be asked to engage in other creative projects. For example, for the unit of study on “La città” (the city), students are asked to create a map or Power Point presentation of their ideal city. For this specific project the only two components are a visual component (map or Power Point) with labeling of locations, street names, and a speaking component where they are required to explain a location in relation to another and say what they do in that specific location and with whom. All of the same grade level classes study the same topics, complete similar assignments, take the same assessments and engage in similar projects that are agreed upon by the teachers of the specific grade level. For example, the teachers of Italian that teach Level II agree upon units of study to cover within a certain time frame and agree upon assessments to administer. Although some of the practice activities may differ among the teachers, all instructional materials are the same. In order to implement my experiment I substituted some of the practice activities for the experimental group.

III. 3 Hypothesis and research questions

It was hypothesized that the use of the vocabulary focused activities described below can result in a significant improvement in the long-term retention of words. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that engaging in those activities that require more “depth of processing,” in addition to other communicative activities, students would score higher on vocabulary quizzes and then be able to recall the vocabulary studied at a later time. In addition, it was hypothesized that the learners would perform better on activities that assess comprehension (listening, reading) and production of written and spoken discourse. The five activities described below are activities that intended to augment vocabulary building and ultimately determine if their employment

would make a difference in retention. The ultimate goal is to promote language use in the four skills; however, the activities were designed to be vocabulary-focused activities or vocabulary builders. My claim is that the focus on vocabulary is an important component in the foreign language instruction. I believe that students should engage in activities that also focus on vocabulary and not only on the message that it's trying to get across. I also believe that engaging students in some sort of output exercises with focus on vocabulary is essential to help students retain the vocabulary being studied.

It is common practice in the foreign language classrooms that focus is on the understanding of messages. The recommended teaching method for vocabulary, as for all aspects of language, emphasizes the importance of interesting and relevant input; student attention should be focused on understanding the message (Coady and Huckin, p. 15).

Just as a particular affective acquisition activity, for example, may entail the use of certain grammatical structures, the activity is not to “teach” that structure. The same is true of vocabulary activities; activities are not necessarily “vocabulary builders”. Students’ attention is not on vocabulary per se but on communication, on the goal of the activity. In this way, we encourage true vocabulary acquisition (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, p. 156).

My claims may appear to go counter to the common practice but in reality they just shift in that certain activities are created with the intent of actually focusing on the vocabulary. Apart from the experimental activities that differed from those of the control group, the students of both groups completed exercises in the four skills utilizing the vocabulary studied. They also engaged in communicative activities and engaged in spontaneous use of the target language.

The experiment was designed to attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Will retention improve if the vocabulary is presented in batches of approximately 8-10 words at a time instead of presenting the entire unit's set of vocabulary of approximately 30 to 40 words all at once?
2. Will retention improve if students are required to copy the vocabulary of the 8-10 words 5 times each, instead of copying the total set of 30 to 40 words twice ?
3. Will retention improve if students are told that there will be a collected vocabulary activity the following class?
4. Will retention improve if students engage in activities other than multiple-choice and matching, such as creating definitions/circumlocutions?
5. Will retention improve if students engage in a writing activity, for example, a composition with a prompt or a picture, and are instructed to use an established number of words studied?
6. Will retention improve if students engage in a speaking activity utilizing an established number of words studied and given a prompt?

In the following section I will explain the differences of the activities and the rationale for using them. In the discussion section of this dissertation the findings will be presented and the limitations and the variables will be taken into consideration

III.4: Procedures of the research

The study activities were conducted over a period of approximately 4 months. Along with the activities described below, the students from the experimental group engaged in communicative activities as did the control group. The students were not given a pre-test to assess prior vocabulary knowledge. For each unit of study (chapter) the topical vocabulary was presented as

word lists. These word lists were presented as pairs of target word and translation. For this level it is assumed that using word lists as a way of introducing new words and then following up with activities to elaborate on their meaning is a good way to teach vocabulary. Nation states:

....So list learning is only one part of a complete vocabulary program, but it is a way of getting a quick start in what otherwise would be a rather slow area of acquisition. We think that native speakers acquire words at a rate of about three words a day. Second language learners who are going on to a course of higher study in a short time can't afford to learn at such a rate. List learning can be one of the accelerating factors which can help them learn at a much faster rate... (Schmitt, 1995, p. 5).

For the present study, the lists consisted of selected vocabulary from the textbook used for level II Italian. It was organized by chapter following the format and divisions used in the textbook. The vocabulary consisted of a mix of topical content words (nouns, verbs, and adjectives), function words (prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, adverbs) and cognates (defined as lexical L1 and L2 items that are semantically identical, and formally similar, ex. *Intelligente-intelligent*). The words were considered “high frequency words” as opposed to “low frequency”, “technical words”, and “academic words” (see section I.2.2 of this dissertation). At the course level of this experiment the words presented are considered to be part of high frequency words as described by Nation (1995).

Each word list consisted of approximately 30 to 40 words all related to the theme of the chapter. Throughout the four months of the experiment, four chapters were covered, each of which had its own vocabulary list. The experimental group was engaged in the activities described below while the control group was engaged in the more standardized activities. Both groups engaged in standardized communicative activities for all the materials presented expect

for the vocabulary. They also worked on the same listening and reading selections/materials engaging in the same related activities. For each chapter both groups were given the same quizzes which assessed the vocabulary both receptively and productively. The quizzes included a matching activity (word to definition in target language), an activity requiring the antonym or synonym of the word, a multiple choice section and a translation section. The quizzes were graded and the data analyzed. At the end of each chapter, for the first three chapters, a comprehensive test was administered to both groups that assessed the four skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking). The data collected were also analyzed. At the completion of the fourth chapter a comprehensive exam was administered to both groups; this test was created to assess the material covered throughout the four chapters. This exam coincided with the district's midterm exam and for this reason a separate exam for chapter four was not administered. The material covered was assessed through the four skills. The ability to recall previously studied vocabulary was important for the success of the exam. The exams were collected and the data analyzed. Approximately three months after the comprehensive test, both groups were given the same vocabulary quizzes that were administered throughout the four chapters to assess the retention of the previously studied vocabulary. This data was also collected and analyzed. All the quizzes and exams were announced in advanced; however, the follow-up assessment was not announced because it would have defeated the purpose of measuring the retention had it been announced.

It is important to mention that all the activities that were graded and recorded were identical between the experimental group and the control group. This was done to avoid any form of unfairness that might have occurred among the classes if the study activities administered to the experimental group only were recorded. I am specifically referring to the collected vocabulary

activities (see section III.4.2). The collected activities from the experimental groups were graded but were not recorded and did not go towards the GPA of the student.

All of the assessments had components that were similar to the activities completed during the lessons. For example the vocabulary quizzes had translations, multiple choice, sentence completions and matching (Italian word to Italian definition or antonym/synonym). The comprehensive exams had the following components: listening, reading, grammar, vocabulary section (similar to that of quizzes), speaking, writing and culture questions. An important factor to mention is that the assessments (quizzes and unit exams) were the same ones administered to all students of Italian in the same grade level, and were created by the Italian teachers of the district (see the appendix section 4 for the assessments administered).

III.4.1 Activity 1

This activity addresses research questions number one and number two. It is assumed that if a student is working with a word for a longer period of time, it will aid the retention of the vocabulary. As mentioned earlier, a vocabulary list for each unit of study is presented at the beginning of the unit. The list is presented by the textbook as pairs of target word plus English equivalent. The common practice is to have the students write each target word twice and its equivalent once. For the experiment, while the control group continued according to common practice, the experimental group was required to write a set number of words (8-10) five times each and its English equivalent once. The activity was generally assigned as a homework assignment. The intent of having students copy the selected words five times draws on the notion of “noticing” or giving attention to an item. According to Nation “noticing” can occur in different ways: learners look up word in the dictionary, deliberately study a word, guess a word

from context, have a word explained to them, highlight words etc. (Nation, 2001, p.61). For my study, copying the words 5 times was a way of “noticing”.

III.4.2: Activity 2

This activity addresses research question number three. The students from the experimental group were told that they would have some sort of collected vocabulary activity on the batch of words assigned the previous class. The activities varied: a) matching Italian to English (in columns or word bank), b) dictation of the Italian word and students would write the English equivalent, c) matching of synonyms and/or antonyms if the words were within the same batch of vocabulary assigned the previous class. This collected activity would be graded although it was not recorded nor quantified as data. The grades that the students obtained were not analyzed because the purpose was to encourage the students to focus on the vocabulary each time it was assigned. This was to see if, when added effort is promoted, for example, by warning students of an impending graded assignment, more learning is achieved. The control group engaged in similar activities with the difference being that they knew, as was common practice, that the exercise was not graded.

III.4.3 Activity 3

This activity addresses research question number four. The experimental group was given activities that require more “brain activity”. Instead of engaging in multiple-choice and matching exercises, the activities given to the experimental group required more thought: a) circumlocution of vocabulary in target language: for a given word students were asked to write a definition in the target language. The control group would be engaged in a similar activity but

with the difference being that the definition would be on the page and the students would have to match the word to its definition; b) antonyms and synonyms in target language: both groups were given a matching activity, but the experimental group was required to write the English equivalent of the words in addition to the matching; c) creating sentences in the target language utilizing a given word: the experimental group was asked to write a sentence using a given word, while the control group engaged in a mechanical exercise from the textbook.

III.4.4 Activity 4

This activity addresses research question number five. It is assumed that if students engage in a writing activity where they are “restricted” in using certain words, the vocabulary will be better retained. The experimental group was assigned a topical written or visual prompt and engaged in writing a composition of 75-100 words. In the composition they were required to utilize at least 20 topical words of the unit of study. The control group was given the same prompt but was not restricted to a given amount of topical vocabulary to utilize. They were instructed to use “as much topical vocabulary possible”. This exercise was done as a homework assignment or an in-class activity. Both groups had access to their notes and/or textbook. The rationale for having students use an assigned number of topical chapter vocabulary was prompted by the ongoing situation that many students would use some topical vocabulary but not the newly studied words. For example, if given a prompt regarding leisure activities many would write about basic activities learned in their first year of Italian, e.g. *football americano*, *ballare* and not activities that were presented in the chapter. It was thought that if students were required to use the new vocabulary and think about how to put it in context, it would help in long-term retention.

Interestingly, López-Jiménez (2009), points out:

Some factors that influence L2 vocabulary retention are a) depth of processing, b) number of attempts needed for retrieval of the target word, and c) attention. Laufer and Hulstijn (1998) found that first, writing a letter using a number of words given requires a deeper level of processing than either receiving input that contains the target words or completing a fill-in-the-blank exercise with the target word (depth of processing); second, writing a letter with a number of words already provided draws the student's attention to the use of each of the words within the context of each letter and not within isolated sentences, and it also makes the student interact with the same word more than once (multiple encounters with the same word or number of attempts); third, the fact that the student has to write a letter employing certain words makes the student focus on them (attention). Nevertheless, in a later investigation carried out by Folse (1999) he concluded that those activities in which students had to produce the target words did not cause a greater retention of the L2 compared to a more controlled exercise, which is fill-in-the-blank exercise (p. 64).

III.4.5 Activity 5

This activity addresses research question number six. It is assumed that being obliged to talk about a topic related to the vocabulary studied will improve the retention of the vocabulary. The control group engaged in dialogues with the teacher. Both groups engaged in activities that required the spontaneous use of the target language through dialogues and role play with partners. The experimental group was assigned to prepare a talk on the topic studied; they were instructed to use an established number of related vocabulary words and to speak for one minute. The control group engaged in a dialogue with the teacher and was not restricted to use an

established number of related vocabulary words. They were instructed to speak five times each and use as much topical vocabulary as possible. The same rationale that prompted the writing activity applies to this activity.

III.5 Scoring and data collection

The vocabulary quizzes for each chapter, the unit exams at the end of each chapter, a comprehensive assessment at the end of the completion of the four chapters and a follow-up assessment given three months after the completion of the four chapters, constituted the measure and the data for the experiment. The assessments were created to measure both the receptive and productive aspect of the words studied. Each vocabulary quiz had its own point value and each student received a grade based on the correct answers. The unit exams and the comprehensive exam also had a point value; a rubric was used to grade the writing and the speaking part of the exam. As for the follow-up assessment, it had a point value also. The follow-up assessment was the exact vocabulary quizzes previously administered throughout the chapters, and the sections that had any grammar implication were not assessed (sections C, E and F from vocabulary quiz chapter 2). Each unit exam and the comprehensive exam had listening, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary and culture sections. The only exception is the unit exam chapter two which did not have a formal speaking component. The reason for this situation is the fact that all the assessments, as mentioned earlier, were the same ones administered to all students of the same grade level and course. As a department it was decided not to have a speaking component for that specific test due to practical reasons. For all assessments of the experiment the grade of each student was recorded and the class average for the two experimental groups and the control group, respectively, was computed for each assessment.

In addition to this quantified data, I gathered information from informal observations and surveys. I also kept a journal in which I recorded the observations and anything that was significant that came up throughout the instructional time that the experiment was conducted.

III.6 Results

The results of the study are presented based on the class average of the experimental and control groups of the assessments administered. The charts clearly demonstrate that for all of the assessments the class average is higher for the classes that comprised the experimental group. The data obtained from the project indicate the following findings (refer to Appendix 1 for more details):

	Experimental group 1	Experimental group 2	Control group
Vocabulary quiz chap.1	27.3/39	25.9/39	21.7/39
Vocabulary quiz chap.2	30.4/37	26.3/37	26.2/37
Vocabulary quiz chap.3	28.8/34	26.7/34	23.5/34
Vocabulary quiz chap.4	16.4/20	14.4/20	12.5/20
Unit exam chap.1	104.8/128	95.5/128	87.7/128
Unit exam chap.2	80.7/100	74/100	65.3/100
Unit exam chap.3	94.3/110	87.2/110	80.8/110
Midterm Comprehensive exam of the 4 chapters	85.3/100	75.9/100	72.7/100
Follow-up assessment	81.2/112	72.5/112	61.9/112

All of the assessments were administered to both the experimental groups and the control in the same time frame. The vocabulary quizzes for each chapter tested the related topical vocabulary through translations, matching, multiple-choice and sentence completion.

The vocabulary quiz for chapter one consisted of 39 items and the point value is 39. The class average for the experimental groups is, 27.3 and 25.9. The average for the control group, 21.7, is lower than both of the experimental groups'.

Vocabulary quiz chapter two consisted of 37 items and the point value is 37; the experimental groups' average is, 30.4 and 26.3 and the control group's is 26.2. For this vocabulary quiz the average of one of the experimental group's and the control group's is nearly identical.

Vocabulary quiz chapter three consisted of 34 items and the point value is 34. The experimental groups' average is, 28.8 and 26.7, where the control group's average is 23.5.

Vocabulary quiz chapter four consisted of 20 items and the point value is 20. Again the experimental groups' average is higher than that of the control group's with the averages being, 16.4, 14.4, and 12.5.

On the unit exams for chapters one to three the experimental groups' average is also decisively higher than that of the control groups'. For chapter one, out of 128 points, the experimental groups' average is 104.8 and 95.5; the control group's average is 87.7. For chapter two, out of 100 points, the experimental groups' average is 80.7 and 74; the control group's average is 65.3. For chapter three, out of 110 points, the experimental groups' average is 94.3 and 87.2; the control group's average is 80.8. On the comprehensive exam that encompassed the material covered throughout the three chapters plus the material covered in chapter four, the experimental groups' average once again is higher than that of the control group's. Out of 100 points the averages are, 85.3, 75.9 and 72.7.

Finally on the follow-up assessment administered approximately three months after the comprehensive exam, the experimental groups scored higher compared to the control group. Out of 112 points the average for the experimental groups is 81.2 and 72.5. For the control group the average is 61.9.

The results clearly demonstrate that the experimental groups had a higher class average on all the assessments from those assessing vocabulary to the comprehensive ones that assessed students' performance in the four skills. Most importantly the class average of the experimental groups was higher on the follow-up activity which was intended to measure the extent to which the vocabulary previously studied could be recalled.

III.7 Discussion

The quantified data confirms the assumption and hypothesis made earlier, that there are activities that may aid in the long-term retention of vocabulary; nevertheless, it is important to point out variables, limitations, shortcomings, and implications of the study. I will address weaknesses/shortcomings of the study that I observed during the experiment and where possible a justification or explanation is provided.

III.7.1 Observations and journal entries

From the informal observations and journal entries made throughout the research I noted that individual preferences of activities and motivation may influence long-term vocabulary retention. The issue of individual preference falls under the broad category of learner style, and I did not specifically take learner styles into consideration in the design of the activities. It was not a factor of analysis for my experiment, and to attempt to thoroughly address learner styles is

beyond the scope of this dissertation. Nevertheless, I feel it is relevant to make a few comments based on my observations. Without doubt, people learn or prefer to learn in different ways; and, we teachers take this into account in our every day deliverance of instruction.

Interestingly, Abhakorn (2008) states that, despite the common systems of memory and language and cognitive processing in the brain, language learners vary in terms of factors such as: aptitudes, demographic variables, learning styles, and learning strategies when they start learning a second language. These variable factors have profound effects on how the learners approach language learning tasks and how successful they are (p. 187).

I observed that perhaps the different methods of vocabulary presentation and strategies combine differently with learner factors (learner's gender, individual learning strategies, attitudes, memory, motivation, etc.). Levine and Reves (1990) point out that the retention of vocabulary seems to be related to the learner's general learning patterns or cognitive styles of visuality, auditiveness or contextual association. In addition the processing of new vocabulary is both individual and manifold in the sense that it involves different cognitive processes. They continue pointing out that it is advisable not to impose any one specific method on a learner (p. 45). Their point is interesting; however, Levine and Reves' study was conducted on university students who, for the level of maturity, have more of an awareness of their learning preferences and strategies. In the case of younger students, who were the subjects of my study, guidance and clear instructions on the teacher's part are important; that is not to say that some of the more motivated, active and strategic learners will utilize, in addition to the required activities, other resources and strategies to achieve a goal. Learning strategies is another point that is worth mentioning although, once again, it's a broad subject that was not treated in my dissertation as a factor to analyze for vocabulary retention. I observed that optimal learners use an array of

strategies, matching those strategies to their own learning style and personality and to the demands of the task, in other words, they develop combinations of strategies that work for them.

It can be argued that the activities designed for my study targeted vocabulary and were vocabulary focused tasks. This type of approach steers away from the communicative approach which is the common method in foreign language classrooms. Vocabulary focused activities find support from a study conducted by Min (2008) on Chinese speakers of English as a foreign language in a senior high school in Taiwan. Min indicates that “learners involved in productive word-focused tasks were more likely to recall words than those engaged in receptive tasks” (p. 79).

From an informal survey some students stated that being “forced” to study the newly presented vocabulary each time it was assigned because of a collected activity on it, helped them with the chapter vocabulary quiz. They stated that they spent less time studying for the chapter vocabulary quiz because they “remembered the words better”. Others, in contrast, said that it didn’t help them and that they spent an equal amount of time studying for a chapter vocabulary quiz, and the fact that they had to study it in batches didn’t help them remember the words better. Also, copying the selected words five times did not help some students remember the words better; on the contrary, some deemed it helpful and worthwhile. Some students also commented that copying the words five times did not help if they spelled the word incorrectly the first time. When that happened they would be writing the word incorrectly on the page five times. It can be argued that in an approach that reinforces retention, emphasis shouldn’t be put on the quantity of repetition but rather on the quality of word processing; however, in the experiment, this activity was completed in addition to the others which are thought to have put emphasis on word processing.

Observations and journal entries revealed that not all students that copied vocabulary and completed the various activities scored well on the vocabulary quizzes and on the other assessments. On the other hand some students that did not complete all the activities assigned scored well on the assessments. Although for the present study the individual scores were not analyzed per se, it is considered worthwhile making mention of this observation.

From an informal survey, presenting the word in pairs (target word-translation) was deemed helpful. In fact Nation (2001) states that several studies of learning from lists have shown that for many learners, learning is faster if the meaning of the word is conveyed by a first language translation. First language translations are probably the simplest kind of definition in that they are short and draw directly on familiar experience (p. 66).

Some students of the experimental group found the task of writing and speaking using a required amount of new vocabulary more difficult than other vocabulary activities. Some also commented that it was more difficult to work on circumlocutions as opposed to a matching activity. This may be because the need to apply a deeper level of processing is more demanding therefore felt to be “more difficult”. It may be precisely this difficulty that results in better retention since “deeper and more elaborate processing leads to the formation of a more persistent trace” (Laufer, 1991, p. 223). Also, in a study conducted by Laufer and Hulstijin (2001) on “task involvement”, they concluded that the greater the involvement load on any given activity the more effective the learning.

III.7.2 Variables and limitations

Because this study was conducted in a classroom, several variables could not be controlled. Firstly, as mentioned in section III.4, a pre-test was not administered prior to the experiment. The lack of it did not allow me to actually assess what words were learned among the lists presented for each chapter. Because students were at all levels of performance (see section III.1), for some, the vocabulary presented could have actually been “new” vocabulary, while for others some words may have been encountered in their previous level and remembered. For this reason if this experiment were to be repeated a pre-test would allow more precise data on vocabulary learned and retained.

Some students did not complete the activities as assigned and others completed some but not all. For example some copied the vocabulary the amount of times required, some did not, some did for certain chapters, and others did not. At times the assignments were not completed in all their components. For example during the writing assignments not all students used the number of words required. These issues were expected because of the nature of the type of experiment conducted. In addition, the amount of exposure to the target words the students got after the treatments, the exposure to the target language outside of the classroom (although not likely), and the amount of time each student spent on studying the target language outside the classroom could not be controlled.

The results as presented above were reported as class averages and the individual grades were not analyzed. Because of the design of my experiment I did not consider which activity/activities was/were responsible for each individual’s success or failure. I did not analyze whether it was a combination of the activities or maybe certain ones alone that were responsible for the results of the experimental group. The study did not take into consideration word

difficulty, and all words were treated the same way. For example it did not take into account cognates and words that may have been encountered in the previous level as a result of incidental learning or explicit learning. Furthermore, the activities of the experiment, successful as they might have proven to be with the subjects in the experimental group, may not necessarily be applicable and/or appropriate in the case of other higher level courses.

Since the purpose of this research was to assess the retention of the vocabulary learned and how it was used in the four skills, it did not assess the receptive and productive performance separately. I did not measure whether the difference in scores was a result of the productive performance or the receptive performance.

One criticism that may be leveled towards the use of the activities in this study may be that they shifted away from the methods and strategies suggested by the communicative approach. For example, the activities that required the written repetition of vocabulary may be considered “decontextualized”, meaning that the word is removed from its message context to be focused on as a language item. Even if “decontextualisation” is not an essential element in language learning, there is evidence that it can certainly help learning (Nation, 2001, p. 64). Moreover, it is important that teachers use their own judgment in deciding what methods and strategies to use to enhance and aid the students’ long-term vocabulary retention. Atkinson (1987) pointed out that: “teachers should not opt for the contemporary methods in language teaching just to demonstrate the knowledge possessed by them in order to justify their position as educationists, but should adapt or use other methods according to the condition and situation they face” (Ramachandran and Rahim , 2004, p.175).

III.7.3 Implications and leads for future research

Despite the limitations presented and others that may be considered in reading this dissertation, the following conclusions can be drawn. Although it cannot be determined which activity/activities contributed to the higher class averages of the experimental groups, it is believed that an accomplishment of this project is to have shown that depth of processing is a concept to strongly take into consideration when creating activities for students. The current study suggests that the type of vocabulary activities designed for level II FL learners may have an impact on the retention of the L2 words and encourages FL teachers to seek out activities that require manipulation and thought of the words. This may entail not relying solely on textbook or workbook activities and on matching and fill-in the blank exercises. My comment here, however, is not to discredit workbook/textbook activities and matching and fill in the blank, which have their validity; but, to add to them as deemed necessary.

Further research is needed to actually validate the general claim. Perhaps the activities can be tested alone to ascertain if, in fact, one proves to be more beneficial than another. Students' averages can be analyzed individually to have more accurate results of the actual gains with or without certain activities. A pre-test administered at the beginning of each chapter, to assess prior vocabulary knowledge, would determine what words were retained as a result of the activity/activities. In addition, this would allow an analysis of the words not retained and perhaps an analysis of "word difficulty" can be performed. Possibly, the number of exposures to the words may be another way of measuring retention. Another interesting follow-up would be to assess the receptive and productive performance separately to determine if the activities utilized favor the production over the reception of the language or vice versa.

Although I make mention of learner strategies in section III.7, I explained that they were not taken into analysis as a determining factor in my experiment. An issue to investigate is, if teaching vocabulary focused strategies to students of higher level courses would be more beneficial than teacher generated activities that focus on vocabulary. This leads to another inquiry: can strategies be taught? According to Abhakorn (2008), the answer is yes. She informs us that strategies, like the complex skills of language learning, can be learned through formal instruction and repeated practice (p. 196). I had claimed that because of the age group of the students and because of the level at which the study was conducted, the learners would benefit from teacher generated activities with clear instruction on how to focus on vocabulary. That is not to say, as I mentioned earlier, that the optimal, motivated learner will use resources and “strategies” to achieve a goal. Some students commented, for example, that they created note cards for the vocabulary presented because that helped them “remember” the words better, although it was not a requirement.

With a better knowledge of the research in strategy teaching techniques, a suggestion would be to explore with higher level courses if, in fact, teaching learners how to develop strategies would impact their learning in a positive way and to what extent.

With learners of higher level courses it is intriguing to measure what and how much vocabulary is retained through reading. As a learner and as a teacher, experience proved that reading does have a positive impact on vocabulary retention. In section II.2, I presented studies conducted by two researches that targeted reading and vocabulary retention. Assuming that learners of higher level courses have a “working vocabulary”, as I define it in section I.1, one could explore vocabulary retention through reading.

Conclusion

This dissertation is an action research study conducted to determine if certain vocabulary focused activities would improve the retention of vocabulary in the foreign language classroom. It is observed that students experience forgetting of vocabulary, to a certain degree, shortly after a unit of study. This situation affects language use both in the productive and receptive mode. Furthermore, this experience may cause frustration both in the teacher and learner. In an attempt to overcome this situation, throughout a period of four months and for four units of study, the use of specific vocabulary focused activities was tested with the assumption that they would improve vocabulary retention. The hypothesis is that engaging students in vocabulary focused activities, language use will be enhanced. In addition it was assumed that students would score higher on assessments that assessed the language both receptively and productively. In other words the activities would promote vocabulary retention, thus improve and promote language use.

The results of the experiment confirmed the hypothesis; in fact, the class average for the experimental groups was higher for all the assessments administered compared to the average of the control group. Although there are limitations to this research, it can be concluded that additional focus on vocabulary may lead to better performance not only on formal assessments but more importantly on the spontaneous use of the L2. This study does not claim that the activities the students engaged in will solve the vocabulary retention issue; however, it proved to be meaningful in several ways.

The experiment was conducted by having two groups: the experimental group and the control group. The subjects were level II Italian students. Apart from the vocabulary activities, all other instructional materials were the same between the groups.

The measure of the experiment consisted of assessments which were formal vocabulary quizzes and comprehensive unit exams for four chapters. In addition, a comprehensive test was administered at the end of the four chapters and three months after, a follow-up assessment was administered. In addition to the data from the assessments, informal observations and surveys were helpful in drawing conclusions. The grade of each student was recorded and the class average for the two experimental groups and the control group, respectively, was computed for each assessment.

The results of this study and the positive outcome of the research encourage the use of vocabulary focused activities as an instructional tool to enhance not only acquisition, but more importantly retention. Because the effects of the activities used were tested on the class as a whole and not on individual students' retention, it would be intriguing to investigate the effects of the use of the activities used for this experiment on individual students' vocabulary retention, especially on those students who struggle with the course content in general. Because the activities were tested for level II students, it would be interesting to try these and other vocabulary focused activities for higher level courses. This study proves that when creating activities, it is worthwhile to take into consideration the level of "brain activity" they require.

It is hoped that this research will encourage foreign language teachers to take into consideration activities that are vocabulary focused and to tailor them to their students. Second language teaching has been dominated by an emphasis on communication, but accurate communication depends largely on knowledge of vocabulary. Furthermore, it is hoped that teachers take into account the options suggested by research and theory in the field of vocabulary learning and of SLA in general, to the benefit of their students in the foreign language classroom.

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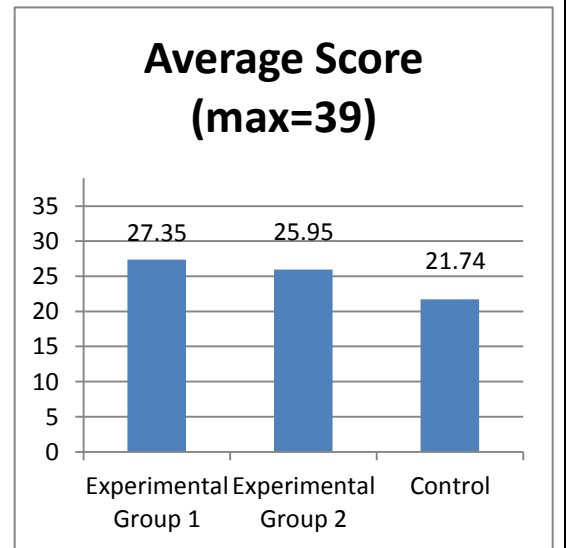
Appendices

1. Graphs of collected data

A.

Vocabulary Quiz Chapter 1

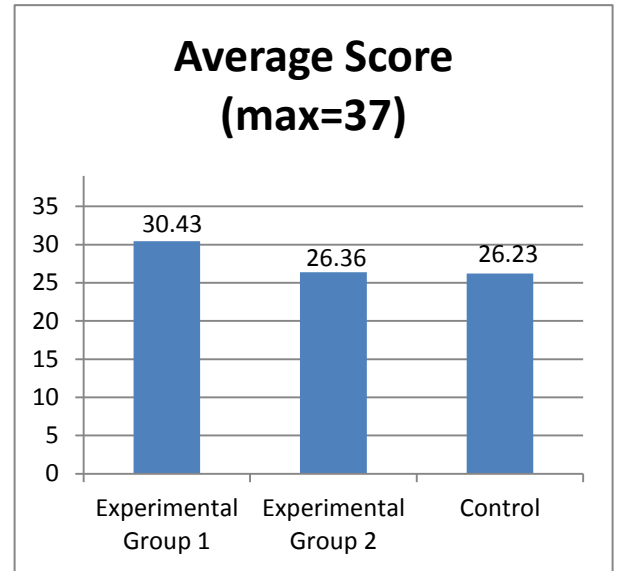
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	23	16	32
	29	34	26
	18	35	27
	18	32	9
	27	38	9
	33	21	15
	23	29	13
	25	35	21
	25	23	21
	25	8	23
	24	12	15
	38	27	36
	31	29	25
	36	26	36
	31	20	29
	28	38	35
	28	27	12
	37	29	27
	25	18	34
	33	17	22
	16	27	12
	25	30	8
	31		13
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=39)	27.35	25.95	21.74
N	23	22	23



B.

Vocabulary Quiz Chapter 2

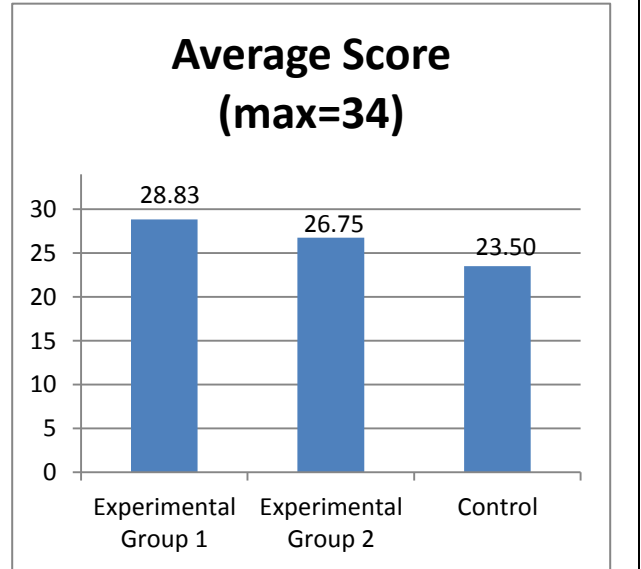
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	37	29	28
	34	15	27
	30	33	28
	32	30	22
	32	31	36
	29	24	37
	30	29	14
	32	26	14
	25	29	28
	30	31	25
	29	32	29
	30	31	35
	31	28	22
	34	25	27
	29	25	27
	31	21	36
	28	19	24
	27	23	27
	29	30	26
	29	26	20
	34	19	18
	27	24	27
	31		
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=37)	30.43	26.36	26.23
n	23	22	22



C.

Vocabulary Quiz Chapter 3

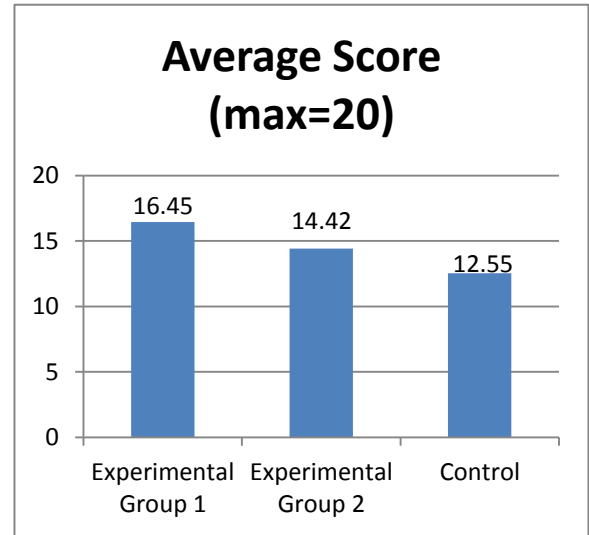
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	33	31	20
	34	20	14
	34	30	22
	27	31	14
	20	28	21
	27	22	18
	33	32	20
	28	16	20
	34	14	34
	26	30	28
	26	32	32
	27	31	32
	27	25	34
	33	31	32
	25	27	7
	21	33	21
	33	27	23
	29	19	24
	23	25	30
	32	31	31
	28		19
	33		21
	30		
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=34)	28.83	26.75	23.50
n	23	20	22



D.

Vocabulary Quiz Chapter 4

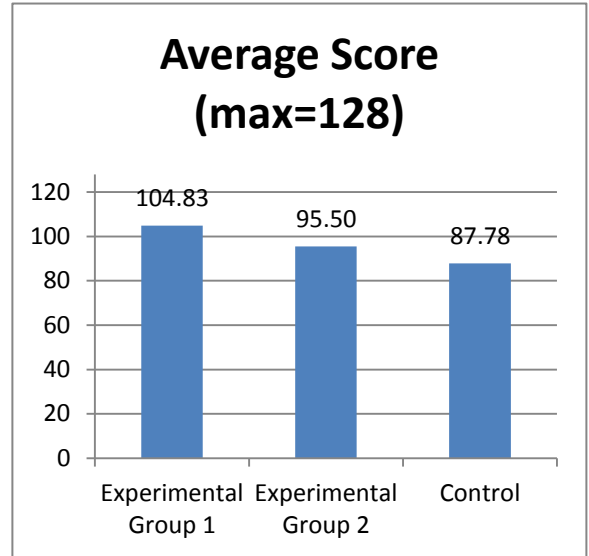
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	16	16	12
	16	12	7
	20	15	11
	20	14	12
	17	15	12
	12	13	4
	16	14	18
	14	17	10
	14	18	2
	18	12	15
	14	8	12
	14	18	12
	16	13	11
	18	20	15
	13	16	18
	17	11	13
	19	18	19
	16	7	20
	17	17	12
	18		16
	20		
	17		
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=20)	16.45	14.42	12.55
n	22	19	20



E.

Chapter 1 test: Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking, Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture

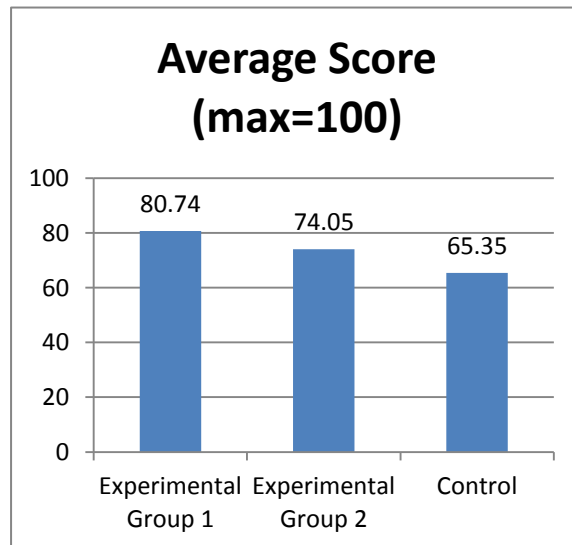
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	104	110	123
	119	92	95
	116	117	110
	105	96	110
	128	107	126
	111	71	107
	95	109	45
	106	62	92
	113	64	76
	107	101	75
	114	112	122
	112	115	69
	62	95	57
	96	108	85
	104	90	121
	114	69	92
	100	98	90
	89	122	97
	107	91	57
	107	67	41
	108	92	90
	123	113	47
	71		92
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=128)	104.83	95.50	87.78
n	23	22	23



F.

Chapter 2 test: Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking, Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture

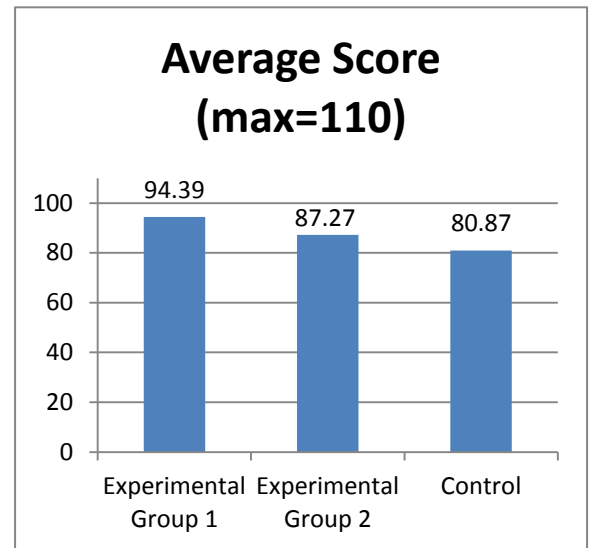
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	66	85	96
	93	69	57
	83	85	90
	74	81	85
	99	78	98
	77	54	88
	77	92	0
	82	55	66
	96	60	47
	74	80	68
	91	75	96
	85	83	49
	73	70	39
	62	85	62
	83	52	98
	90	62	69
	72	74	51
	80	94	59
	83	69	61
	85	61	57
	83	73	65
	93	92	44
	56		58
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=100)	80.74	74.05	65.35
n	23	22	23



G.

Chapter 3 test: Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking, Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture

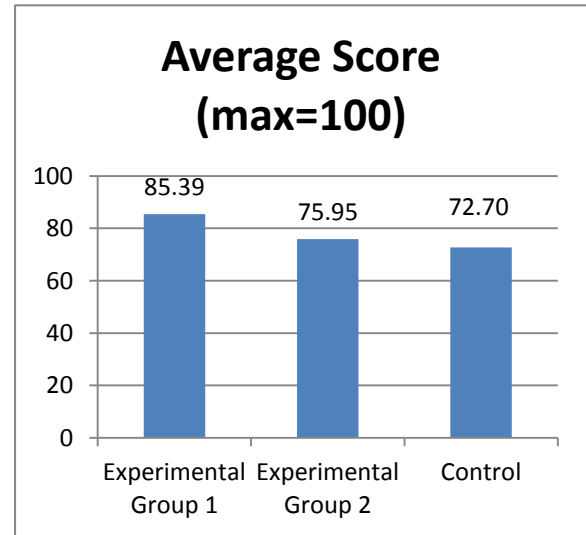
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	96	87	102
	94	82	89
	98	100	99
	98	89	102
	110	94	108
	84	75	94
	89	95	0
	92	70	77
	103	59	77
	97	88	83
	101	94	108
	96	100	75
	82	91	53
	82	96	87
	99	72	107
	103	74	92
	92	106	70
	95	100	78
	91	88	78
	97	66	56
	98	91	86
	102	103	62
	72		77
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=110)	94.39	87.27	80.87
n	23	22	23



H.

Midterm test: Listening, Reading, Writing, Speaking, Grammar, Vocabulary, Culture

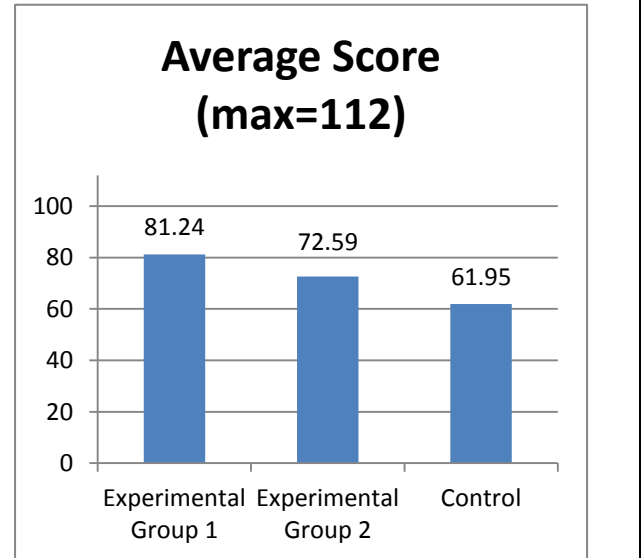
Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	75	82	67
	77	88	76
	67	56	88
	92	65	64
	88	62	64
	88	91	54
	84	81	84
	97	65	70
	83	58	75
	87	94	47
	86	88	97
	82	80	83
	80	53	56
	87	84	54
	85	84	71
	73	45	93
	84	92	81
	91	88	72
	92	96	88
	94	82	67
	98	63	29
	77	74	97
	97		95
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=100)	85.39	75.95	72.70
n	23	22	23



I.

Follow-up Quiz: Vocabulary

Class	Period 1 Day 1	Period 6 Day 1	Period 6 Day 2
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
	112	80	50
	94	34	75
	55	94	71
	88	46	58
	99	94	96
	85	69	23
	86	73	30
	100	56	67
	100	80	89
	80	94	49
	82	50	44
	98	50	99
	80	62	43
	88	94	33
	54	64	82
	73	59	35
	72	71	100
	83	75	100
	63	89	73
	40	85	22
	74	77	
		101	
Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	Control
Average Score (max=112)	81.24	72.59	61.95
n	21	22	20



2. Sample vocabulary activities

A. Experimental group

Nome _____

Data _____

For each word give a definition, follow example;

Ex.: museo > ci vado per vedere arte e monumenti

1) la chiesa _____

2) l'aeroporto _____

3) la farmacia _____

4) l'ufficio postale _____

5) l'albergo _____

6) lo stadio _____

7) la stazione _____

8) l'ospedale _____

9) il teatro _____

10) l'università _____

B.Control group

Nome _____

Data _____

Match the word from the first column to its definition on the second column

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| 1) Il cinema_____ | a) ci vado se sto molto male |
| 2) Il teatro_____ | b) ci vado per prendere il treno |
| 3) L'ospedale_____ | c) opposto di avere torto |
| 4) a destra_____ | d) ci vado per comprare i francobolli |
| 5) la stazione_____ | e) opposto di sinistra |
| 6) l'università_____ | f) ci vado per guardare il film |
| 7) avere ragione_____ | g) ci vado per vedere arte e monumenti |
| 8) l'ufficio postale_____ | h) ci vado per vedere una partita |
| 9) il museo_____ | i) ci vado per vedere un'opera |
| 10) lo stadio_____ | j) ci vado per comprare le medicine |
| | k) ci vado per imparare |

3. Assessments

A. Vocabulary quiz chapter 1

Nome _____

Data _____

Voto _____

Voc quiz chap. 1

1. Match column A with the activity in column B. 1pt.

A	B
_____ 1. aeroporto	a. Comprò un francobollo
_____ 2. un albergo	b. Comprò la medicina
_____ 3. un bar	c. Prendo un aeroplano
_____ 4. una chiesa	d. Dormo qui quando sono in vacanza
_____ 5. un cinema	e. Guardo una partita
_____ 6. una farmacia	f. Vado qui quando sono ammalata
_____ 7. un museo	g. Parlo con Dio
_____ 8. una stazione	h. Guardo un film
_____ 9. un ospedale	i. Prendo un caffè
_____ 10. uno stadio	j. Prendo il treno
_____ 11. un ufficio postale	k. Vedo arte
_____ 12. una banca	l. compro i cibi
_____ 13. un ristorante	m. mangio
_____ 14. un supermercato	n. Dove metto i soldi

2. Write, in Italian, a synonym for each of the following words. (spelling counts!!!!). 1pt.

1. una macchina _____
2. una bicicletta _____
3. un motorino _____
4. una moto _____
5. un aereo _____
6. bus _____

3. Write the opposite of the given word. 1pt.

1. a sinistra _____
2. vicino _____
3. qui _____
4. senza _____
5. da _____

4. Complete with an “avere expression” that is grammatically and logically correct. 2pts.

1. Mangio un panino perché _____
2. Mio fratello beve l'acqua perché _____
3. Siamo in ritardo (late), _____
4. I bambini non guardano i film d'orrore perché _____
5. Oggi è il suo compleanno, _____ 13 _____
6. Quando _____, porto (wear) una giacca.
7. Oggi (io) _____ di un gelato

B Vocabulary quiz chap. 2

Mi chiamo _____

Oggi è _____

Voto _____

Esamino

I vocaboli: Descrizioni fisiche e psicologiche

A. **L'opposto.** Scrivete l'opposto per i seguenti vocaboli. NB: State attenti agli accordi.

1) lisci _____

6) basse _____

2) brutta _____

7) stressata _____

3) grande _____

8) antipatici _____

4) cattive _____

9) povera _____

5) divertente _____

10) paziente _____

B. **Un sinonimo.** Scrivete un sinonimo per le seguenti parole. NB: State attenti agli accordi.

1) simpatiche _____

2) vecchi _____

3) felice _____

4) orgogliosa _____

5) sportivo _____

C. **Completate.** Completate le seguenti frasi.

1. Le persone che sono nate in Cina...

a. è cinese.

b. sono cinese.

c. sono cinesi.

2. Il bambino va a dormire perché...

a. hanno sonno.

b. ha sonno.

c. ha fame.

3. Mia nonna...

a. è anziana

b. è giovane

c. è anziano

4. Mio padre e mio fratello...

a. ha i capelli neri b. hanno i capelli neri c. i hanno capelli nero

5. Filippo capisce tutto! È molto...

a. antipatico b. intelligente c. stupido

D. **Categorizzare.** Dovete categorizzare i vocaboli, decidete se è una descrizione fisica o psicologica.

nervoso	piccolo	bugiardo	bianco	stanco
magro	giovane	sensibile	energetico	lungo

Descrizioni fisiche

Descrizioni psicologiche

1) _____

6) _____

2) _____

7) _____

3) _____

8) _____

4) _____

9) _____

5) _____

10) _____

E. **Una definizione.** Scegliete una parola e scrivete una definizione in italiano.

1) _____

F. **Rispondete.** Rispondete alle domande in italiano con frasi complete.

1) Quando sei nato/a? _____
_____.

2) Qual è la tua nazionalità? _____
_____.

3) Di che colore sono i tuoi capelli? _____

4) Di che colore sono i tuoi occhi? _____

5) Come sei? _____

C. Vocabulary quiz chap. 3

Nome _____

Data _____

Voto _____

Capitolo 3: Esamino

A. La famiglia. Completate le seguenti frasi. State attenti agli accordi!

- 1) Mia madre e mio padre sono i miei _____.
- 2) Il figlio di mia madre è mio _____.
- 3) La figlia di mia zia è mia _____.
- 4) Il fratello di mio padre è mio _____.
- 5) La figlia di mia madre è mia _____.
- 6) La madre di mia cugina è mia _____.
- 7) La madre di mia madre è mia _____.
- 8) Il marito di mia madre è mio _____.
- 9) La moglie di mio padre è mia _____.
- 10) Il figlio di mio fratello è mio _____.
- 11) La figlia di mia madre e del mio patrigno è la mia _____.
- 12) La sorella di mio marito è mia _____.
- 13) Il padre di mio nonno è mio _____.
- 14) Il figlio di mio padre è _____.

B. L'università e le materie di studio. Combaciate. Scegliete la parola corretta e scrivete sulla linea.

- | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| 1) la facoltà _____ | a) subject | i) test |
| 2) l'insegnante _____ | b) degree | j) diploma |
| 3) il compito _____ | c) major | k) nursery school |
| 4) la mensa _____ | d) homework | |
| 5) la specializzazione _____ | e) kindergarten | |
| 6) la laurea _____ | f) lunch room | |
| 7) la materia _____ | g) department | |
| 8) l'asilo _____ | h) teacher | |

C. L'università e le materie di studio. Leggete le frasi e completate con la parola corretta.

matematica alunno liceo scienza laureato assenza letteratura
giurisprudenza/legge assente psicologia aula preside interrogazione
lingue straniere diplomato asilo nido lettere giornalismo informatica medicina

- 1) Per fare il dottore studio_____.
- 2) Un sinonimo di scuola superiore è _____.
- 3) Per fare l'avvocato studio _____.
- 4) Parlo spagnolo, francese, e italiano; studio_____.
- 5) Una persona che finisce la scuola superiore è un _____.
- 6) Lavoro per *Newsday*, ho studiato _____.
- 7) Quando non vado a scuola sono_____.
- 8) Per imparare meglio ad usare i computer studio _____.
- 9) Studio Shakespeare nel corso di _____.
- 10) Un sinonimo di esame orale è _____.
- 11) Insegno la trigonometria, sono professoressa di _____.
- 12) Studio chimica, fisica e biologia. Mi piace la _____
- 13) Il signor Bracco è il vostro _____.

D. Vocabulary quiz chap.4

Vocabulary quiz Chap.4

Nome _____

Data _____

Complete each sentence with the appropriate word.

1. Nella piscina Marco _____.
a. pulisci b. nuota c. partita
2. Domani c'è una _____ di calcio tra la squadra di Kings Park e la squadra di Smithtown.
a. gioco b. suona c. partita
3. Vado in _____ per fare aerobica.
a. palestra b. programmi c. partita
4. Lunedì prossimo (next) ho una _____ di ballo.
a. lezione b. dipingo c. legge
5. Non ho _____ per il week-end.
a. suono b. pratico c. programmi
6. Sono brava in arte, mi piace _____.
a. suonare b. giocare c. dipingere
7. Mio fratello _____ la chitarra.
a. disegna b. gioca c. suona
8. Io non _____ uno sport
a. gioco b. suono c. faccio
9. Sabato _____ la casa perché è sporca (dirty).
a. gioco b. dipingo c. pulisco
10. Mia madre _____ il giornale.
a. dipinge b. legge c. pulisce

Write the following words in Italian:

1. to lift weights 1. _____
2. to travel 2. _____
3. to snow 3. _____
4. the rain 4. _____

5. to be windy

5. _____

6. to take a bicycle ride

6. _____

7. to go for a walk

7. _____

8. to win

8. _____

9. to lose

9. _____

10. magazine

10. _____

E. Exam chap. 1

Nome _____

Data _____

Esame Cap. 1

I. Listening: Listen carefully to the dialogue; then, determine if the following statements are true or false. 1 pt. each

1. Filippo è professore d'italiano. _____
2. Filippo ha 35 anni. _____.
3. Filippo è di Roma. _____
4. Filippo abita a Roma. _____
5. Filippo ha caldo e ha bisogno di una bibita. _____

Listening (cont.): Listen carefully to the dialogue; then, respond to the following statements are true or false. 1 pt. each

1. Di dov'è il signor Fabbri?

2. Perché è nervosa Sara?

3. Di che cosa hanno bisogno il signor Fabbri e Sara?

4. Dove sono i parenti di Sara?

5. Dove ha amici il signor Fabbri?

II. Reading: Read the following passage; then, complete each statement with the best-suggested answer. 1 pt. each

Goffredo ha un cane che si chiama Lila. Lila ha quattro anni. Lila è molto buona con Goffredo e con la sua famiglia, ma non è buona con le altre persone. Lila ha sempre fame. Quando ha fame, mangia tutto: panini, spaghetti, pizza, gelato, plastica, libri, insetti, eccetera. Quando Lila ha sete, lei beve l'acqua, latte e Coca-Cola. Quando Lila ha sonno, dorme. Zzzzzz...Lila dorme in casa e in macchina. Lila è intelligente. Ha un diploma di una scuola per cani! Lila è una buona amica per Goffredo. Quando Goffredo ha Lila vicino non ha bisogno di altri amici.

- 1) Lila è _____
a) Una persona b) un animale

- 2) _____ ha quattro
a) Lila b) Goffredo

- 3) Lila _____ molto buona con Goffredo.
a) è b) non è

- 4) Quando Lila ha fame mangia _____.
a) Solo spaghetti b) tutto

- 5) Lila ha _____.
a) Un diploma b) una scuola per cani

Reading (cont.): Read the passage; then, respond to the questions in complete sentences. 1 pt. each

La Città del Vaticano

La Città del Vaticano è situata nel cuore di Roma e sulla riva destra del Tevere. È uno stato indipendente. Il suo territorio è molto piccolo. Copre solamente circa mezzo chilometro quadrato. Ha una popolazione che non supera i duemila abitanti.

Questa piccolissima città è la residenza del Papa. Il Papa è il capo spirituale della chiesa cattolica.

Gli studiosi di tutto il mondo visitano la Città del Vaticano. La visitano per motivi religiosi, e gli piace ammirare le sue immense ricchezze artistiche.

Ci sono tante sculture, pitture, ed altre cose meravigliose che un turista può vedere nella Città del Vaticano. Si può vedere la famosa Basilica di San Pietro con la grandiosa Cupola. La Cupola è un'opera di Michelangelo. Ci sono anche la Piazza e il Colonnato che sono le opere di Gian Lorenzo Bernini. I Musei, le Gallerie, le Biblioteche, gli Archivi ed i Giardini della Città del Vaticano sono splendidi.

È sempre molto interessante per i turisti vedere la Cappella Sistina con l'affresco del Giudizio Universale dipinto da Michelangelo. L'affresco è stato recente rinnovato alla sua gloria anteriore.

Inoltre, i turisti potranno anche visitare le Stanze Vaticane che sono state dipinte dal famoso pittore Raffaello. La Città è senza dubbio una gemma preziosa d'Italiano!

1. Dove si trova la Città del Vaticano?

2. Quanti abitanti ha? (quante persone ci sono)

3. Chi abita nella Città del Vaticano?

4. Perché molti studiosi e turisti visitano questa Città?

5. Quali sono alcune (some) ricchezze artistiche che un turista può vedere in questa Città.

6. Come si chiama l'architetto della Piazza di San Pietro e del Colonnato?

III. Gramatica: complete each section according to the instructions

Complete with the correct form of the definite article. 1 pt. each

Per ___italiani è lo sport preferito. ___bambini giocano sempre con ___genitori; ___ragazzi giocano con ___amici, ___ studenti giocano dopo la scuola. ___ amici giocano spesso ___sabato o la domenica. ___ padri portano ___ figli a vedere una partita della squadra preferita e ___stadi sono sempre pieni durante ___campionato. ___ professionisti di questo sport sono spesso molto ricchi.

Bonus 2pts. Conosci questo sport? Come si chiama? _____

Complete with the correct form of the indefinite article. 1 pt. Each

Roma è _____città fantastica! Nel centro della città c'è _____ collina che si chiama il Campidoglio, dove c'è ___museo molto importante. C'è ___ fiume che passa per Roma: il Tevere. È in mezzo al Tevere c'è ___isola: l'isola Tiberina. C'è anche ___stadio antico che si chiama il Colosseo. Andiamo al Pincio, dove c'è _____bel panorama di Roma. Vicino al Pincio c'è un bar dove mangiamo _____pizza.

Complete with the correct form of 'bello'. 1 pt. each

1. Io ho una _____macchina
2. Mio fratelloha comprato un _____zaino.
3. Nel giardino ci sono _____fiori.

Complete with the correct form of "buono". 1pt. each

1. Tu hai _____amici
2. Marco ha letto (read) un _____libro.
3. Io frequento una _____università.

IV. Vocabulary: Complete each section according to the instructions.

Write the location in which you would do the following activities. 1pt. each

1. Vedere arte _____
2. Mangiare _____
3. Guardare una partita di calcio _____
4. Comprare i francobolli _____
5. Comprare il cibo _____
6. Comprare le medicine _____
7. Ci vado se sto male _____
8. Ci vado per guardare un'opera _____
9. Ci vado per studiare _____
10. Mettere i soldi _____

Circle the letter of the appropriate response *1 pt. each*

1. Hai fretta?
 - a. Sì, sono in ritardo per la lezione.
 - b. Sì, ho torto.
 - c. Sì, sono di Civitavecchia.
2. Tina, ti presento Paolo, un mio amico.
 - a. Piacere!
 - b. Scusi!
 - c. Arrivederci!
3. Hai voglia di mangiare qualcosa?
 - a. No, grazie. Non ho problemi.
 - b. No, grazie, non ho fame.
 - c. No, grazie. Federico non c'è.
4. Quando è il compleanno di Lorenzo?
 - a. Il primo maggio.
 - b. Per la prima volta.
 - c. Trenta giorni.
5. Hai bisogno di una pausa?
 - a. Sì, sono in forma.
 - b. Sì, sono stanca.
 - c. Sì, ho paura.

Using an "avere" expression describe how the people in the drawings are feeling.

Invent names for each person. *2 pts. each*

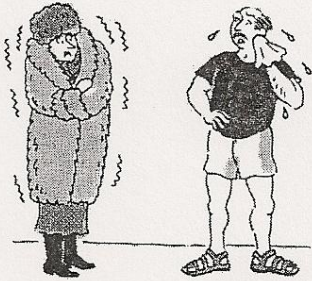
1.



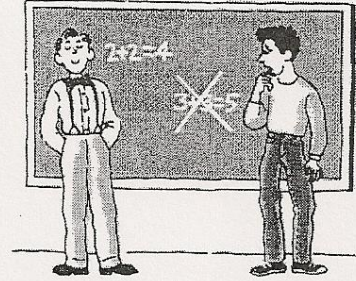
3.



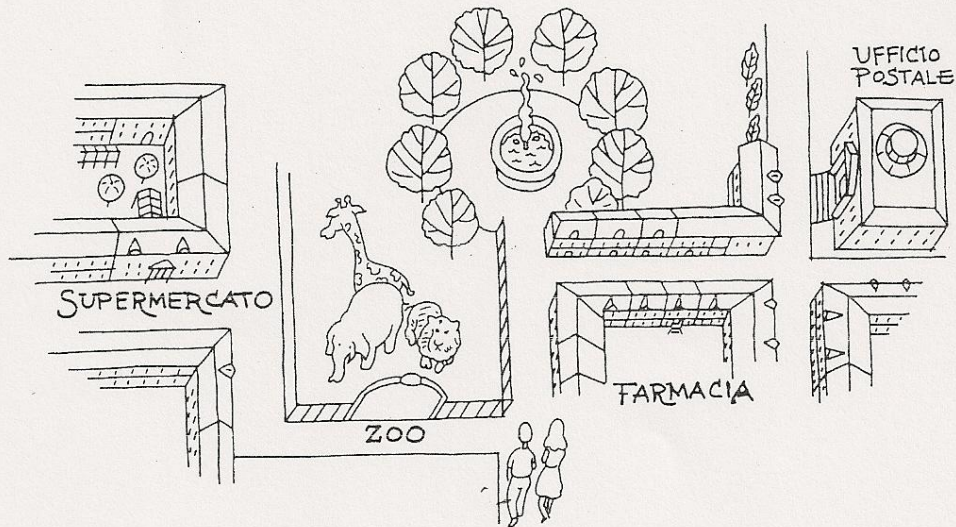
2.



4.



Antonio explains to Sara how to get to various places. Are these directions correct? Locate Antonio, Sara, and the places indicated on the map and judge for yourselves. Then circle vero or falso. 1 pt. each



- | | | |
|------|-------|--|
| vero | falso | 1. Un supermercato? È qui vicino! Sempre dritto, poi a sinistra, poi a destra, poi ancora (<i>again</i>) a sinistra. |
| vero | falso | 2. Uno zoo? È qui vicino! Sempre dritto, poi a destra. |
| vero | falso | 3. Un ufficio postale? Non è lontano! Sempre dritto, poi a destra, poi a sinistra. |
| vero | falso | 4. Una farmacia? È proprio (<i>really</i>) vicino! Sempre dritto, poi a sinistra. |

V. Culture: Based on the information you gleaned from the readings and in class discussions respond to the following questions in Italian in complete sentences. 10 pts.

1. Quante regioni ci sono in Italia?

2. Scrivi un'isola che fa parte dell'Italia.

3. In quale regione si trova Venezia.

4. Perché a Venezia non c'è traffico?

5. Qual è un mezzo di trasporto famoso a Venezia?

VI. Writing: in Italian write a well composed letter (75-100 words) according to the instructions below. Be sure to check your work for agreements: article/noun, subject/verb. Use the form of *bello* and *buono*, include idiomatic expressions with *avere*. Throughout your writing demonstrate your knowledge of the vocabulary and grammar structures learned in this unit. 20pts.

Prompt: *Your pen pal will visit you in two weeks. He wrote to you asking what your city/town is like and what you can do there. He also asked to provide him with directions from the airport to your house.*

VII. Speaking: You will engage in a conversation about your city/town. You will speak five times and for each utterance you need to use two clauses. 20pts.

Script:

Prima parte: At the train station in Perugia Gina and Massimo are waiting for Filippo's arrival.

Gina: Allora, chi è questo Filippo? Quanti anni ha? Di dov'è?

Massimo: È professore d'italiano a Boston, ma è nato a Roma. Ha trentadue anni ed è un buon amico di famiglia...

Gina: Hai una foto?

Massimo: No, ma ecco Filippo. È quello lì finalmente!...

Filippo: Ciao, Massimo come va?

Massimo: Ciao Filippo, bene, grazie!

Gina: Ciao Filippo, io sono Gina, benvenuto a Perugia!

Filippo: Piacere, Gina e grazie!

Massimo: Filippo, hai sete o fame? C'è un bar qui vicino se hai voglia di un panino o di una bibita...

Filippo: Sì ho fame e un panino va bene, ma ho anche bisogno di soldi. C'è una banca qui in stazione?

Gina: Sì, ecco. Andiamo in banca e poi al bar. Ho caldo e ho bisogno di una bibita.

Sara in Italia: Sara is on a plane at the airport in Milano. Destination: Palermo! An Italian gentleman is about to sit next to her.

Alberto: Ecco qui, 10A, finestrino...mi scusi....

Sara: Di niente.

Alberto: Buon giorno, mi chiamo Alberto Fabbri.

Sara: Piacere! Sara Washington.

Alberto: Oh, è americana? Di dov'è?

Sara: Sono di New York.

Alberto: Io di Milano.

Sara: Scusi se sono nervosa. Ho sempre paura dell'aeroplano.

Alberto: Anch'io. Forse abbiamo bisogno di una bella camomilla! Va in Italia?

Sara: Sì, per due mesi. Prima vado in Sicilia e poi in molte altre città, in tutta Italia. Ho parenti in molte regioni: in Sicilia, Campania, Toscana, Veneto...e anche a Roma. Infatti ho anche un passaporto italiano. Mia mamma è italiana.

Alberto: Che bello! Io invece vado a Roma a trovare due amici. Ma solo per una settimana!

F. Exam chapter 2

CAPITOLO 2

Comprensione

A. Chi sono Roberto, Luigi e Marco? You will hear a passage about these three roommates.

You will hear the passage twice. The first time, listen carefully. The second time, listen carefully then answer the questions.

1. Quanti anni ha Roberto?
a. 20 b. 19 c. 18
2. Luigi non è_____.
a. sportive b. pigro c. energico
3. Com'è Marco?
a. pazzo b. carino c. divertente
4. Chi è Rodolfo?
a. un gatto b. un amico di Roberto c. uno studente
5. Com'è il cane?
a. Macchia b. contento c. vecchio

L'estate. You will hear a brief passage. You will hear the passage twice. The first time, listen for general meaning. The second time, listen carefully for details and then answer the questions.

6. Com'è l'estate?
a. lunga b. molto bella c. felice
7. Com'è Maria in estate?
a. tranquilla b. stressata c. nervosa
8. Com'è Maria quando è a scuola?
a. felice b. nervosa c. bellissima
9. Perché non è stressata in estate?
a. non ha compiti b. non ha amici c. è preoccupata
10. Come sono gli amici di Maria?
a. divertenti b. Marco e Giovanna c. nervosi

LETTURA (10 PUNTI)

Com'è interessante Milano! Read the following passage about Milan. Then circle the letter of the item that correctly completes the sentences that follow.

Milano è una città molto interessante, non turistica come Venezia, Firenze o Roma, ma ricca di storia, tradizione e cultura. Milano è una città antica con uno stile moderno. A Milano ci sono bellissime chiese antiche, come Sant' Ambrogio, San Lorenzo e, naturalmente, il Duomo. C'è un famosissimo teatro dell'opera, il teatro alla Scala e ci sono molti altri teatri e cinema. Ci sono ristoranti buonissimi (e carissimi!), negozi sofisticati, musei e gallerie d'arte e tre università, una pubblica e due private. Ma non tutto è positivo. Il traffico è tremendo, la vita è frenetica, lo smog è un problema, soprattutto d'estate, e le case sono carissime. Milano ha gli stessi problemi di tutte le grandi città del mondo, ma, per molti milanesi, è l'unico posto dove vivere.

1. Milano è una città ____.
a. turistica b. tranquilla c. interessante
2. Il Duomo è ____.
a. una chiesa antica b. un teatro c. un museo
3. Il teatro alla Scala è famoso per ____.
a. l'architettura b. l'opera c. il cibo
4. A Milano ____ è un problema.
a. l'università b. il traffico c. la vita culturale
5. Milano e New York hanno problemi ____.
a. simili b. differenti c. di città piccole

Lettura (cont.): Reading the following passage, then answer the questions with the best suggested answer. (10 pt).

Maria Luisa Monteleone

1 Mi chiamo Maria Luisa Monteleone. Ho trentacinque anni. Sono del Piemonte. Abito in Via
2 Mulberry numero 1435 a Manhattan nella città di New York. Ho il mio proprio appartamento che
3 mi piace molto. Lavoro come segretaria in un ufficio nel centro.

4 Ci sono cinque persone nella mia famiglia. Siamo i miei genitori, le mie due sorelle ed io. Mia
5 madre si chiama Rachele. Ha sessant'uno anni. È bassa, atletica e molto generosa. Insegna
6 in una scuola. Mio padre si chiama Flavio ed ha cinquantanove anni. È alto, magro e molto intelligente.
7 Lavora in casa; fa lo scrittore. Gli piace passeggiare e coltivare il giardino. I miei genitori abitano
8 in un villino in Florida.

9 Mia sorella Antonietta ha trentaquattro anni. È bassa, magra e molto attiva. Lei fa la
10 parrucchiera e lavora tre giorni la settimana. Le piace dipingere e dipinge molto bene. Lei è
11 sposata e suo marito si chiama James. Lui è alto, biondo e bello. È americano. A lui piace riparare
12 le automobili. Loro hanno anche una casa in Florida.

13 Mia sorella minore si chiama Marcella. Lei ha trentatré anni. È bassa, bionda e molto intelli-
14 gente. È casalinga. È sposata ed ha due figli: un figlio ed una figlia. Suo marito si chiama Paul
15 Wenzel. È alto, forte e atletico. È americano e fa l'avvocato. Mio nipote, Cristiano, ha quattro anni
16 e mia nipote, Laura, ha due anni. Abitano nel Massachusetts. Il resto della mia famiglia abita
17 nel Piemonte. Mio nonno, che ha novant'anni, è buono e affettuoso. Lui abita con i miei zii in una
18 casa in campagna. Mi piace ricevere lettere da lui, ed io gli scrivo anche. Ho molti zii e cugini e a
19 volte loro mi scrivono. È un vero piacere ricevere lettere dalla nostra famiglia in Piemonte.

20 Siamo una famiglia molto unita. Tutte le domeniche parlo con i miei genitori al telefono.
21 Anche le mie sorelle parlano con loro. Tutti gli anni per Natale, mia sorella Marcella, la sua
22 famiglia ed io andiamo in Florida per vedere i miei genitori e mia sorella Antonietta.
23 Il giorno di Natale i miei genitori preparano un pranzo molto grande e tutti noi ci sediamo ad una
24 tavola grande per cenare e per divertirci. Il Natale è la festa preferita della mia famiglia. Il
25 miglior regalo di Natale per noi è di essere tutti insieme.

1. Di dov'è Maria Luisa
 - a. Manhattan
 - b. Piemonte
 - c. Florida
2. In quale città ha un appartamento?
 - a. Manhattan
 - b. Piemonte
 - c. Florida
3. Con chi abita?
 - a. con nessuno (no one)
 - b. con i genitori
 - c. con sua sorella
4. Com'è Antonietta, la sorella di Maria Luisa?
 - a. le piace dipingere
 - b. è bassa e magra
 - c. è una parrucchiera
5. Cosa piace fare ad Antonietta?
 - a. dipingere
 - b. ha trentaquattro anni
 - c. è una parrucchiera

Vocaboli: Complete each sentence with a word chosen from the word bank. (15 pts).

antipatico	lungo	triste	fiero	magro	ricco	atletico	stressato
giovane	piccolo	sincero	bugiardo	simpatico	biondo	buono	alto
riccio	calmo	arrabbiato	vecchio	sensibile	pigro	contento	

1. L'opposto di *bruno* è _____.
2. Un sinonimo di *allegro* è _____.
3. Un sinonimo di *anziano* è _____.
4. L'opposto di *anziano* è _____.
5. L'opposto di *onesto* è _____.
6. L'opposto di *liscio* è _____.
7. Un sinonimo di *tranquillo* è _____.
8. L'opposto di *tranquillo* è _____.
9. Un sinonimo di *orgoglioso* è _____.
10. L'opposto di *cattivo* è _____.
11. L'opposto di *grande* è _____.
12. L'opposto di *grasso* è _____.
13. L'opposto di *basso* è _____.
14. L'opposto di *corto* è _____.
15. Un sinonimo di *sportivo* è _____.

Grammatica: Complete each section according the instructions.

A. Complete each sentence with the correct form of the word in parenthesis, make all necessary changes so that the sentence is grammatically correct. Then, give the English equivalent. (10 pt).

1. Noi corriamo _____. (molto).

_____.

2. I miei compagni sono _____ simpatici. (molto)

_____.

3. Giovanni e Maria hanno _____ macchina. (stesso)

_____.

4. Abbiamo _____ biglietto. (stesso)

_____.

5. Hai _____ penna. (altro)

_____.

B. Complete each sentence with the correct form of the adjective in parenthesis. (5 pt).

1. Maria è _____ (pigro).

2. Ci sono molti ragazzi _____ (cinese) nella mia classe.

3. Sono nata in Germania. Sono _____ (tedesco).

4. Le ragazze sono _____ (intelligente).

5. L'autobus è _____ (lungo).

C. Complete with the correct form of *essere* or *avere*. (5 pt).

Mi chiamo Gian Marco e _____ uno studente d'italiano. La mia famiglia _____

italiana. _____ due sorelle e un fratello. Mio fratello _____ piccolo ed _____

quattro anni.

Cultura: Based on the readings and discussions done in class determine if the following statements are true or false. (10 pt).

1. La Sicilia è una penisola. _____.
2. Le Alpi si trovano al sud d'Italia. _____.
3. Il vulcano Etna non è attivo. _____.
4. I cannoli sono famosi solo a Taormina. _____.
5. Il Po è un mare. _____.

Composizione: In Italian write two brief paragraphs describing your best male or female friend (il mio migliore amico), and your best female friend (la mia migliore amica). Describe them physically and their character. You must use a total of 75 words, use molto, altro, and stesso at least once each. Check for subject/verb agreement, noun/adjective agreement, and article/noun agreement. (20 pts.)

CAPITOLO 2

INSTRUCTOR'S AUDIOSCRIPT

LISTENING COMPREHENSION AND DICTATION PASSAGES

- A. Chi sono Roberto, Luigi e Marco?** You will hear a passage about these three roommates. You will hear the passage twice. The first time, listen carefully, The second time, listen carefully then answer the question.

B.

Mi chiamo Roberto. Sono italiano. Sono di Milano. Ho vent'anni e sono studente all'università. Ho due compagni di casa; uno si chiama Luigi e l'altro si chiama Marco. Luigi ha diciannove anni ed è molto sportivo ed energico. Marco è il più giovane e ha diciotto anni. Lui è molto simpatico e divertente. Noi abbiamo due animali domestici, un gatto e un cane. Il gatto si chiama Rodolfo. Lui è un po' pazzo, ma è carino. Il cane si chiama Macchia. Ha quindici anni—è molto vecchio. Marco, Luigi ed io siamo contenti della casa e degli amici Rodolfo e Macchia.

L'estate. You will hear a brief passage. You will hear the passage twice. The first time, listen for general meaning. The second time, listen carefully for details and answer the questions. .

Mi chiamo Maria. La mia stagione è l'estate. L'estate è una stagione bellissima! Il tempo è perfetto, le giornate sono ancora lunghe, e la scuola è chiusa. In estate io non sono stressata, perché non ho compiti. In estate sono felice e calma. In estate gioco con i miei amici, Marco e Giovanna. Loro sono divertente e gentili. Quando sono con i miei amici sono allegra. Quando sono a scuola, io sono nervosa e preoccupata. In estate sono una persona nuova!

G. Exam chapter 3

Nome _____

Data _____

Esame cap. 3

I. Listening: Com'è l'Istituto Trionfi? You will hear a commercial for a private school. You will hear the commercial twice. The first time, listen for general meaning. The second time, listen carefully for details. Then indicate whether the following statements are vero (V) or falso (F). 8pts.

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Le scuole pubbliche hanno molti problemi. | V | F |
| 2. L'istituto Trionfi è un liceo scientifico | V | F |
| 3. L'Istituto Trionfi è nel centro di una città. | V | F |
| 4. Gli studenti fanno visite culturali ogni settimana. | V | F |
| 5. Gli studenti possono visitare la loro famiglia ogni week-end. | V | F |
| 6. Non ci sono camere per gli studenti. | V | F |
| 7. Gli studenti vanno ai ristoranti per mangiare | V | F |
| 8. L'Istituto Trionfi prepara gli studenti per l'università. | V | F |

Listening (cont.): You will hear a description of Lisa. You will hear the description twice. Then, determine if the statements are true or false. 6pts.

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Lisa studia lettere. | V | F |
| 2. Sta a casa di solito il pomeriggio. | V | F |
| 3. Ha lezione all'università solo il lunedì, mercoledì e venerdì . | V | F |
| 4. Lisa non ha amici perché studia sempre. | V | F |
| 5. Stasera va al cinema | V | F |
| 6. Domani va all'università per una conferenza | V | F |

II. Reading: Read the following passage about school choices; then, complete the sentences that follow with the best-suggested answer. 5 pts.

Cosa studiare

Mi chiamo Michela, abito a Roma e ho quattordici anni. In ottobre vado al liceo, ma...liceo classico o liceo scientifico o liceo linguistico o liceo artistico? O forse un istituto tecnico? Che cosa voglio studiare per i prossimi cinque anni? È una decisione molto difficile, una responsabilità enorme. Amo la letteratura, ma non sono molto brava nelle lingue. La matematica non è per me, ma le scienze naturali sono molto interessanti. Se faccio il liceo classico studio il latino e il greco antico, al liceo scientifico invece studio l'informatica.

Amo anche cantare e suonare il piano. Suono il piano da dieci anni. Forse vado al conservatorio e studio musica!

1. Michela è una studentessa _____
a. milanese b. romana
2. In ottobre Michela va _____
a. all'università b. al liceo
3. Michela ama _____
a. la letteratura b. la matematica
4. Gli studenti _____ studiano il greco e il latino
a. del conservatorio b. del liceo classico
5. Michela _____ da molti anni
a. suona il piano b. canta

Reading (cont.): Read the following dialogue; then, determine if the statements are true (V) or false (F). 6pts.

Mariella: Oh, Patrizia, comincio ad avere paura di questo esame! Tra due giorni cominciano gli scritti ed io non sono preparata!

Patrizia: Anch'io non sono pronta. Ho il terrore a pensare a lunedì, allo scritto di italiano. Ripasso gli autori del Rinascimento, ma il mio vero problema è martedì, con lo scritto di matematica! Ho bisogno di ripassare trigonometria e di fare molti molti esercizi!

Mariella: Se hai voglia, stasera studiamo italiano insieme qui a casa mia e facciamo un po' di esercizi di matematica. La matematica è la mia materia preferita.

Patrizia: Perfetto! Porto i libri d'italiano di mia sorella, spiegano la letteratura molto bene.

Mariella: Ok, allora. Un momento, arriva mio fratello. Oh, com'è triste! Stefano, come va?

Patrizia: Tuo fratello fa il Liceo Classico? Mamma mia studio greco!

Mariella: Sì, è vero, ma noi allo scientifico abbiamo matematica, non dimenticare! Abbiamo materie molto difficili anche noi! Stefano ha gli orali tra due settimane e anche latina da preparare.

Patrizia: Le interrogazioni orali non sono le mie favorite. Ho sempre paura di dimenticare tutto davanti ai professori.

Mariella: Allora, Patrizia, a casa mia stasera alle otto? Porti i libri di trigonometria e italiano, ok?

Patrizia: Ok! Per me va benissimo!

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Oggi è sabato. | V | F |
| 2. Martedì Patrizia e Mariella hanno l'esame di matematica | V | F |
| 3. Stefano ha gli orali di Greco martedì. | V | F |
| 4. Mariella e Patrizia studiano italiano e matematica per l'esame. | V | F |
| 5. Stefano frequenta il Liceo Classico. | V | F |
| 6. Patrizia non ha paura dell'esame orale | V | F |

III. Vocabulary

Complete the following sentences that are logically and grammatically correct. 15pts.

Aula	giurisprudenza	compiti	cognata	zio	parenti
genitori	filosofia	mensa	nipote	compito	interrogazione
insegnante	esame di maturità	giustificazione		laurea	
diploma	laureato	diplomato	scritti	esame orale	

1. La sorella di mio marito è mia _____
2. Studio Socrate e Plato nel corso di _____.
3. Il fratello di mio padre è mio _____
4. Il figlio di mia sorella è mio _____
5. La legge è sinonimo di _____
6. I miei cugini, i miei zii, i miei nonni ecc. sono i miei _____
7. Mio padre e mia madre sono i miei _____
8. La lezione d'italiano è nell' _____ numero 138
9. Professore è sinonimo di _____
10. Esame scritto è sinonimo di _____
11. A casa faccio i _____
12. Se sono assente ho bisogno di una _____
13. A scuola mangio alla _____
14. Alla fine del liceo gli studenti italiani danno l' _____
15. Quando finisco l'università ricevo una _____

IV. Grammar: Complete each sentence with the word that is logically and grammatically correct. 20pts

- 1) Maria è nervosa perché domani _____ gli orali di Greco.
a) prende b) dà c) va
- 2) Giulia non _____ colazione la mattina
a) mangia b) ha c) fa

3) Gli studenti _____attenti quando il professore spiega.

- a) fanno b) danno c) stanno

4) il turista _____molte foto.

- a) fa b) prende c) sta

5) Io _____zitta quando il professore parla.

- a) sto b) do c) ascolto

6) _____(your pl.) figlio è molto bravo in chimica.

- a) nostri b) vostro c) il vostro d) tuo

7) Vado al cinema con _____(my) amico domani.

- a) il mio b) mio c) tuo d) il tuo

8) _____libro è di Marco.

- a) quello b) quel c) quest' d) quell'

9) _____studente è francese.

- a) quelle b) quel c) quell' d) quello

10) La professoressa _____gli studenti.

- a) ripassa b) interroga c) studia

11) _____(their) casa è grande.

- a) loro b) la loro c) la sua d) la nostra

12) _____(his) professoressa è molto grande.

- a) il suo b) la sua c) sua d) suo

13) Quando ho difficoltà di comprensione _____ spesso domande.
a) do b) faccio c) sto d) parlo

14) _____(my) fratelli sono piccoli.
a) i miei b) miei c) suoi d) i suoi

15) _____gli amici al bar.
a) vado b) incontro c) mangio

16) Domani guardo _____film.
a) quello b) quel c) quell'

17) Maria non _____la macchina molto bene.
a) guarda b) va c) guida

18) Non vado in autobus, vado _____piedi.
a) a b) in c) con

19) Mi piace _____moto.
a) questo b) quest' c) questa d) questi

20) Domani _____bel tempo.
a) è b) sta c) fa

V. Culture: Based on the readings and discussions done in class, determine if the statements are True (vero) or False (falso). 10pts.

- 1) L'Umbria si trova nell'Italia del sud. _____
- 2) Palermo è il capoluogo dell'Umbria. _____
- 3) San Francesco è un artista. _____
- 4) A Perugia c'è l'Università per Stranieri. _____
- 5) Gli studenti italiani vanno al liceo per 5 anni. _____
- 6) Gli studenti italiani non vanno a scuola il sabato. _____
- 7) Gli studenti italiani non studiano le lingue straniere. _____
- 8) In Italia c'è soltanto (only) un tipo di liceo. _____
- 9) Nella scuola media, gli studenti italiani mangiano nella mensa. _____
- 10) È necessario dare l'esame di maturità per entrare al liceo. _____

VI. Writing: In Italian create a dialogue between an Italian student and an American student. Through the dialogue demonstrate your knowledge of the Italian school system and how it is different and/or similar to the American. Use relevant topical vocabulary, use the idiomatic expressions *dare, fare* and *stare* at least once.

Your dialogue should be a total of 75 words. Be sure to check various agreements (article/noun, noun/adjective, subject/verb). Proof read your work before you hand it in. 15pts.

Chap. 3

Speaking: You will engage in a conversation with an Italian student (teacher). You will speak about your school, subjects studied, exams and routine of school. You will speak five times and for each utterance you need to use 2 clauses. 15pts.

Comprensione (15 punti)

Com'è l'Istituto Trionfi? You will hear a commercial for a private school. You will hear the commercial twice. The first time, listen for general meaning. The second time, listen carefully for details. Then indicate whether the following statements are **vero (V)** or **falso (F)**.

Siete stanchi delle scuole pubbliche con i loro problemi? L'Istituto Trionfi è la risposta ai vostri bisogni. Situato in un parco vicino a Siena, l'Istituto Trionfi provvede all'istruzione elementare, media e superiore. La scuola offre buonissime opportunità culturali, come visite settimanali a musei e a luoghi storici, una biblioteca fornitissima, computer, molti corsi di lingua, corsi di musica e innumerevoli attività sportive. I nostri studenti dormono in camere eleganti e mangiano ad una mensa con cibo di alta qualità. Ogni week-end visitano la famiglia o partecipano ad attività organizzate dalla scuola. L'Istituto Trionfi prepara gli studenti per l'università e per la vita!

Lisa è una studentessa di una grande università italiana, l'Università la Sapienza di Roma. Studia matematica. È una brava studentessa, frequenta le lezioni tutti i giorni e studia con passione. Il lunedì e il mercoledì sono giorni difficili per lei perché è all'università per molte ore. Gli altri giorni ha meno corsi e il pomeriggio sta a casa. La sera va spesso a casa di amici o al cinema, ma non oggi. Stasera c'è una conferenza all'università e Lisa ha deciso di andare. Poi torna subito a casa e va a letto. Domani va di nuovo all'università perché dà un esame e ha bisogno di arrivare presto. Non ha paura dell'esame perché studia sempre molto.

1. Lisa studia lettere.
2. Sta a casa di solito il pomeriggio.
3. Ha lezione all'università solo il lunedì, mercoledì e venerdì.
4. Lisa non ha amici perché studia sempre.
5. Stasera va al cinema.
6. Domani va all'università per una conferenza.

Le risposte sono: 1. falso 2. vero 3. falso 4. falso 5. falso 6. falso

H. Comprehensive exam

Name _____

**ITL 2R
Midterm 2012
Part I**

I. Listening: For each question you will hear some background information in English. Then you will hear a passage in Italian twice, followed by a question. After you have heard the question, read the question and the four suggested answers. Decide which choice best answers the question. 15pts.

1. Who is going to bring you home?
a. your brother b. your uncle c. your mother d. your friend
2. Which class is he talking about?
a. gym b. math c. music d. art
3. What is being advertised on the sports channel?
a. a swimming competition
b. a volleyball tournament
c. a new line of beach wear
d. a sailboat
4. What is the health expert recommending?
a. to walk at least 2 kilometers a day
b. to keep in shape with a friend
c. to exercise every other day
d. to be flexible when dieting
5. What is "Popotus"
a. a computer game
b. a new toy
c. an encyclopedia
d. a newspaper

Note the following questions and suggested answers will be in Italian

6. Che cosa fa la madre di Giorgio?
a. lavora in una scuola
b. è studentessa
c. lavora in città
d. frequenta l'università
7. Com'è il suo orario scolastico?
a. è un buon orario perché non ha lezione alle otto
b. non è un buon orario perché non ha un'ora per fare colazione
c. è un buon orario perché la sua prima lezione è arte
d. non è un buon orario perché fa colazione molto tardi.

8. Come sono le aule nella scuola di Carolina?
 - a. sono brutte
 - b. sono moderne
 - c. sono vecchie
 - d. sono piccolo

9. Che cosa è proibito fare oggi alla spiaggia?
 - a. giocare
 - b. mangiare
 - c. nuotare
 - d. bere

10. Cosa fa la signora con i vicini di casa?
 - a. fa jogging
 - b. passeggia
 - c. va a partite di calcio
 - d. gioca a carte

Listening (cont.): You will hear a brief passage twice. Listen carefully; then, determine if the statements are true or false.

1. La narratrice lavora due giorni alla settimana. _____
2. Esce sempre il venerdì _____
3. Non fa mai sport durante il weekend
4. Il sabato sera il suo ragazzo cucina per lei _____
5. La domenica va a passeggiare in centro. _____

II. Reading: Read each selection then complete according to instructions. 17pts.

Una famiglia sportiva. Read the following passage. Then circle the letter of the item that correctly completes the sentences that follow.

La mia famiglia è molto sportiva e preferiamo fare sport insieme. Per fortuna siamo in molti: i miei genitori, io, due sorelle e due fratelli, una vera squadra!

In primavera giochiamo a pallone in campagna durante i week-end. Facciamo anche giri in bicicletta e molte passeggiate.

In estate andiamo al mare per tre mesi: nuotiamo tutti i giorni nel Mediterraneo, facciamo l'aerobica in spiaggia e corriamo lungo la costa per cinque chilometri ogni mattina alle sei. Frequentemente andiamo anche in barca a vela, lo sport preferito di mia sorella Elena.

In autunno preferiamo giocare a pallacanestro e a tennis al coperto. Facciamo però ancora molte passeggiate, perché vogliamo vedere i colori gialli e arancioni delle foglie autunnali.

In inverno sciamo molto: andiamo in montagna tutti i week-end. Stiamo in un piccolo albergo non molto caro e sciamo dalle nove del mattino alle quattro del pomeriggio.

Siamo delle persone molto attive. Preferiamo praticare gli sport, non guardarli. Infatti, in casa non abbiamo la televisione!

1. Nella famiglia del narratore ci sono ____ persone.
a. cinque b. sei c. sette
2. In primavera la famiglia gioca a pallone ____.
a. tutti i giorni
domeniche b. durante i week-end c. tutte le
3. In agosto stanno ____.
a. in città b. in campagna c. al mare
4. In autunno preferiscono guardare ____.
a. la natura b. le partite di calcio c. la televisione
5. In montagna ____.
a. hanno un appartamento b. passano tre mesi c. sciano

Read the following selection; then, determine if the statements are true or false.

Gli sport degli italiani

Come tutti sanno,¹ il calcio è la grande passione degli italiani. Di calcio parlano sempre tutti e il calcio è alla TV, alla radio, sui giornali, sette giorni su sette. La domenica, ovviamente, molti italiani vanno allo stadio a vedere le partite del campionato² o ascoltano comunque³ i risultati alla radio o guardano le partite alla televisione. Il lunedì è invece il giorno delle discussioni sul calcio. In tutta Italia i giornali dedicano pagine e pagine alle partite della domenica e la gente⁴ parla animatamente di campioni e risultati perché ogni italiano è molto attaccato alla sua «squadra del cuore». Quando una città ha due squadre, come Roma (la Roma e la Lazio), Milano (il Milan e l'Inter) e Torino (la Juventus e il Torino), i tifosi⁵ sono divisi e il tifo va alle stelle.⁶ La Nazionale italiana è molto amata⁷ e i giocatori di calcio italiani sono spesso campioni europei o del mondo.⁸ Molti italiani giocano a calcio per hobby: ci sono squadre per uomini, donne e ragazzi di ogni età in tutta l'Italia. Quando c'è un pallone,⁹ anche un giardino o una piccola piazza può diventare un campo¹⁰ da gioco. Il calcio è uno sport poco costoso!

Gli italiani amano molto anche gli altri sport, come lo sci. In inverno molte famiglie vanno a sciare, soprattutto¹¹ sulle Alpi (in Valle d'Aosta o in Trentino) o sugli Appennini (specialmente tra l'Emilia e la Toscana). Ma in Italia ci sono montagne quasi¹² in ogni regione e si può sciare anche in Sicilia, sull'Etna. I campioni di sci italiani sono molto amati dal pubblico. Questo sport, però, costa molto e non tutti possono permetterselo.¹³

Anche l'automobilismo e il ciclismo sono grandi passioni degli italiani. Quando c'è il Gran Premio¹⁴ di Formula 1, tutti fanno il tifo per¹⁵ la rossa Ferrari. E molti seguono con grande interesse il Giro¹⁶ d'Italia e il Giro di Francia, due corse di ciclismo molto famose. Altri sport molti seguiti sono il motociclismo, la pallacanestro, la pallavolo¹⁷ (dove l'Italia ha spesso grandi successi), il nuoto, l'atletica leggera,¹⁸ il tennis e il pattinaggio.

I grandi campioni italiani partecipano alle gare internazionali e in particolare alle Olimpiadi. Quelle invernali del 2006 sono state¹⁹ a Torino. Le Alpi del Piemonte e della Valle d'Aosta offrono agli atleti di tutto il mondo l'opportunità di rappresentare il loro sport e la loro nazione. In queste gare, possiamo sentire il grido²⁰ «Forza,²¹ Azzurri!», perché l'azzurro è il colore della maglietta portata²² da tutti gli atleti italiani quando rappresentano l'Italia negli incontri internazionali.

¹know ²league championship ³however they can ⁴people ⁵fans ⁶il... enthusiasm skyrockets ⁷loved, liked ⁸world
⁹big ball ¹⁰field ¹¹especially ¹²almost ¹³afford it ¹⁴Gran... Grand Prix ¹⁵fanno... root for ¹⁶Tour ¹⁷volleyball
¹⁸l'atletica... track and field ¹⁹sono... were (held) in ²⁰shout ²¹Come on ²²worn

11. Il calcio è presente nella vita degli italiani solo la domenica. _____
12. I giornali, la TV e la radio parlano del calcio solo il lunedì. _____
13. Ogni città ha una sola squadra. _____
14. Il calcio è un hobby comune. _____
15. È possibile sciare in Italia solo sulle montagne del nord. _____
16. Il Gran premio di Formula I, il Giro d'Italia e di Francia sono corse di biciclette. _____
17. Gli italiani dicono "Forza Azzurri!" quando la Nazionale gioca nelle gare internazionali. _____

Name _____

**ITL 2R
Midterm 2012
Part II**

III. Vocabulary, Grammar, Culture

Complete or answer the following phrases with the best suggested answer.

Vocabulary

1. Antonella studia tedesco, inglese e francese. Quale facoltà frequenta?
a. lettere b. lingue straniere c. l'informatica
2. Bevo l'acqua perchè _____
a. bicchiere b. ho sete c. ho fame d. Ho sonno
3. Uso la macchina fotografica per_____ le foto.
a. dare b. stare c. fare d. prendere
4. Quando la professoressa parla gli studenti devono _____
a. stare attenti b. dare una festa c. fare le spese d. fare i compiti
5. "L'interrogazione" è sinonimo di....
a. esame scritto b. esame orale c. compito d. lettura
6. L'opposto di vecchio è...
a. giovane b. anziano c. pigro d. divertente
7. I miei capelli non sono lisci, sono _____
a. ricci b. lunghi, c. corti
8. Non guardo i film d'orrore perchè _____
a. ho fretta b. televisione c. ho paura d. ho torto
9. Oggi _____perchè sono in ritardo.
a. ho freddo b. ho fretta c. ho sete d. ho fame
10. l'opposto di destra è _____
a. sinistra b. dritto c. vicino d. lontano
11. Io _____le finestre perchè fa freddo.
a. apro b. neve c. chiudo
12. La mia squadra vince sempre le _____
a. partite b. giocatori c. sport d. palestra

Grammar

13. . Roberto é (our) _____ cugino
a. il nostro b. la nostra c. nostra d. nostro

14. (my) _____ padre lavora in una banca.
 a. il mio b. mio c. mia d. mie
15. Ho fame, ho _____ di un gelato al cioccolato
 a. voglia b. voglio c. volere d. desidero
16. (This) _____ ragazza é bugiarda.
 a. questa b. quella c. quest' d. quell'
17. (That) _____ giocatore è bravo.
 a. quel b. quello c. quell' d. quegli
18. Domani _____ gli esami di storia
 a. faccio b. do c. prendo d. studio
19. Quando viaggio, _____ molte foto
 a. prendo b. faccio c. vado d. sto
20. _____ zii hanno una casa grande a Roma
 a. i b. gli c. lo d. la
21. _____ padre ha un negozio.
 a. i b. le c. il d. l'
22. Ci sono _____ animali allo zoo
 a. molto b. molti c. molta d. molto
23. La mia amica mangia _____
 a. molto b. molta c. molti d. molte

Culture

24. L'Umbria si trova nell' Italia _____
 a. del nord b. del sud c. centrale d. regione
25. Le Alpi si trovano al _____ d'Italia
 a. sud b. nord c. centro d. montagne
26. Il mezzo di trasporto a Venezia sono _____
 a. le auto b. i motorini c. le barche d. gli aerei
27. L'Etna si trova in _____
 a. Sicilia b. Umbria c. Napoli d. vulcano
28. L'Italia è divisa in _____ regioni
 a. tre b. venti c. diciannove d. cinque

IV. Writing: Choose one of the three topics and write a well-organized composition in Italian. Throughout your writing use vocabulary learned this year. Include irregular “are”, “ere” and “ire” verbs and underline. Use idiomatic expressions at least twice and underline. Use transition words: *ma, infatti, invece, poi/dopo*. Proof read your composition and check for various agreements. 20pts

(75-100 words)

Topic A:

Pretend that you will submit this composition to a contest. Write about your friend Maria. Tell what she is like (physically and character), tell what she studies and what her favorite passtimes are.

Topic B:

Make believe you are in Italy and are visiting the regions of Veneto, Sicilia and Umbria. Write about what you do/can do, see how you get to places etc. You may want to describe the people also. Use the knowledge you have acquired so far about Italian geography to write your composition. Make sure your information is accurate

Topic C

Write a story about the picture below. Do not write a mere description of it. Write a story directly related to the picture . You may want to write a beginning a middle and an end.



Midterm Speaking

For your speaking part of your midterm assessment you will randomly choose 5 questions that I will then ask you and you will respond. For each response you need to have 2 complete sentences. 20pts.

1. Che cosa c'è allo zoo?
2. La chiesa è vicino alla biblioteca?
3. Di che cosa hai paura?
4. Che cosa fanno i bambini quando hanno sonno?
5. Come vai a scuola?
6. Dove ti piace incontrare gli amici?
7. A che ora fai colazione di solito?
8. Che cos'è un'interrogazione?
9. Che cosa fai con la macchina fotografica?
10. Che cosa fai quando il professore spiega?
11. Quanti giocatori ci sono in una squadra di calcio?
12. Che cosa fai in una giornata di pioggia?
13. Esci di casa presto la mattina?
14. Dove fai sollevamento pesi?
15. Tu fai programmi per le vacanze?

Name _____

Score _____/20

Midterm speaking

Question _____

comprehension	
Voc	
2 sentences	
pronunciation	
_____ /4	

Question _____

comprehension	
Voc	
2 sentences	
pronunciation	
_____ /4	

Question _____

comprehension	
Voc	
2 sentences	
pronunciation	
_____ /4	

Question _____

comprehension	
Voc	
2 sentences	
pronunciation	
_____ /4	

Question _____

comprehension	
Voc/grammar	
2 sentences	
pronunciation	
_____ /4	

Teacher Script

1. You are talking to your Italian-speaking friend. He asks:

-come andiamo a casa tua?

-andiamo con la macchina del fratello di mia madre.

Who is going to bring you both home?

2. You are talking to your friend about school. He says:

Non mi piace la mia seconda ora di lezione. La professoressa è simpatica ma la materia è molto difficile per me. Durante la lezione disegniamo e dipingiamo, ma a me non piace disegnare o dipingere.

Which class is he talking about?

3. You are watching the sports channel in Italy and you hear.

In questi giorni sulle coste italiane si disputa il campionato nazionale di pallavolo sulla sabbia. È un'occasione per ammirare i campioni di uno sport che sta conquistando l'Italia. Inoltre, il giornale "la gazzetta dello sport", organizza un torneo di pallavolo che si svolgerà tutti i weekend contemporaneamente al campionato. Per partecipare, basta tanta voglia di divertirsi, un po' di allenamento e un costume da bagno comodo. Iscriverti è facile: visita il sito Internet o telefona allo 0262828.

What is being advertised on the sports channel?

4. You are listening to a talk show on Italian television and a health expert says:

Fare esercizio con un amico è meglio. È un modo divertente per convincere anche i più pigri anche quando si tratta di una semplice passeggiata. Però, è importante trovare un compagno compatibile e flessibile. Cioè, se uno dei due vuole andare più piano o cambiare ritmo o fare un altro esercizio, non c'è problema. Fare esercizio in due è piacevole e può contribuire alla motivazione per tenersi in forma.

What is the health expert recommending?

5. While watching television with your host family in Italy, you hear this advertisement.

Nasce "Popotus", il primo giornale d'attualità per bambini. Finalmente ogni sabato i bambini hanno il loro quotidiano. Il loro inviato speciale in Italia e nel mondo. "Popotus" li informa dei fatti più importanti della settimana: notizie, sport, spettacoli. Li fa riflettere e li diverte, li aiuta e li fa sentire grandi.

What is "Popotus"?

6. Giorgio is telling you about his family in Italy. He says:

La mia famiglia è piccola. Abitiamo in una piccola città. Mio padre lavora in città, mia madre insegna e mia sorella maggiore frequenta l'università.

Che cosa fa la madre di Giorgio?

7. Lucia is talking to you about her schedule. She says:

Non mi piace il mio orario scolastico. È molto difficile. Durante le prime ore ho scienze, matematica, storia, inglese, e italiano; dopo colazione ho arte e educazione fisica.

Com'è il suo orario scolastico?

8. Carolina is describing her school in Genova. She says:

La mia scuola è nuova e grande. Anche le aule sono grandi. Nelle aule ci sono anche calcolatrici, televisioni, videoregistratori e proiettori.

Come sono le aule nella scuola di Carolina?

9. As you and your friend are entering a beach, an employee says to you:

In questa spiaggia non è permesso nuotare a causa di un problema ecologico. Hanno trovato nell'acqua dei prodotti chimici che forse provengono da una fabbrica vicino. Potete rimanere sulla sabbia, ma non potete entrare nell'acqua.

Che cosa è proibito fare oggi alla spiaggia?

10. While staying with an Italian family, your hostess tells you about the neighbors. She says:

La famiglia Ferraro è simpatica! I genitori sono molto gentili, e i loro figli sono sempre allegri e molto sportivi. Tutta la famiglia è molto in forma. Fanno anche footing e giocano a tennis.

Spesso io e mio marito facciamo delle lunghe passeggiate con loro.

Cosa fa la signora con i vicini di casa?

Il mio weekend.

Lavoro moltissimo! Lavoro dal lunedì al venerdì, ma il sabato e la domenica sono libera. Di solito non esco il venerdì sera. Il sabato mattina gioco a tennis con il mio ragazzo, poi mangiamo un panino insieme, e poi andiamo al cinema. Il sabato sera andiamo a ballare in discoteca. La domenica mattina dormo fino alle dieci o alle undici, poi leggo il giornale ed esco con le mie amiche. Di solito passeggiamo in centro. Non compriamo niente perché in Italia i negozi sono chiusi la domenica. La sera il mio ragazzo cucina per me. Lui è un cuoco meraviglioso.

I. Writing Rubric

	3	2	1
Purpose/ Task	Accomplishes the task; includes many details that are clearly connected to the development of the task, but there may be minor irrelevancies.	Accomplishes the task; includes few details ; some of which may be only loosely connected to the task. There are some irrelevancies.	Attempts to accomplish the task; makes some reference to the task but provides few or no supporting details.
Organization: The extent to which the response exhibits direction, shape, and coherence	_____	Exhibits a logical and coherent sequence throughout the essay: provides a clear sense of a beginning, middle, and end. Makes smooth transitions between ideas.	Attempts to provide a logical sequence and/or the beginning or ending is abrupt or unclear. OR Uses a series of separate sentences.
Vocabulary	_____	Includes a wide variety of chapter vocabulary that expands the topic , but there may be minor inaccuracies.	Includes basic vocabulary that does not expand the topic. Some vocabulary may be inaccurate or unrelated to the topic.
Structure/ Grammar:	_____	Demonstrates a high degree of control of structures introduced in chapter. There may be minor irrelevancies.	Demonstrates some control of structures introduced in chapter. Several errors in basic structures.
Word Count	_____	_____	Meets word count requirement

J. Speaking rubric

Name _____

Chapter _____

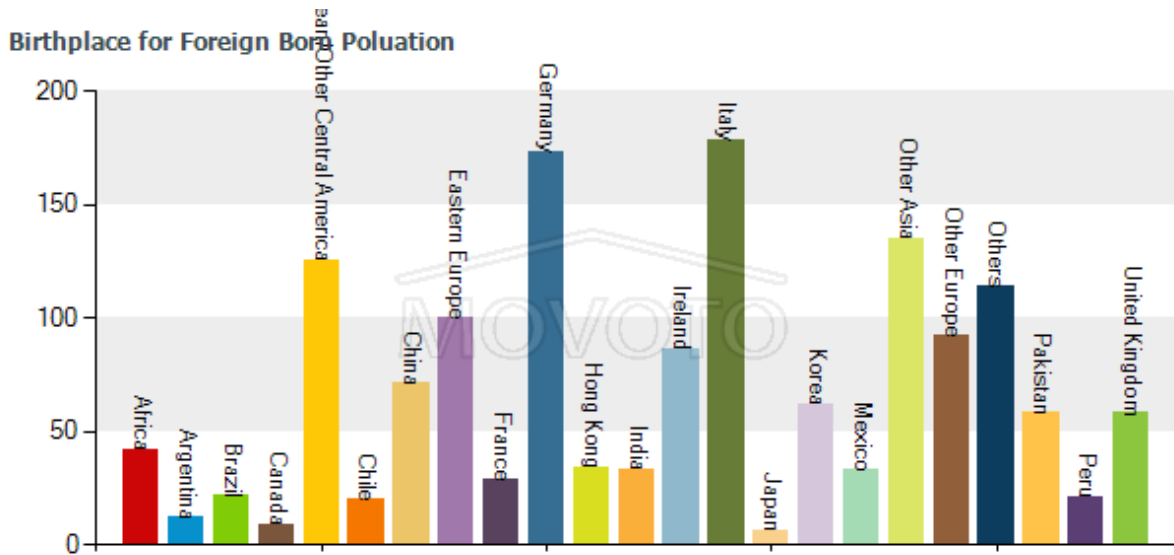
Final score _____

Speaking Rubric 2R

	5 very good/superior	4 Good	3 Adequate	2 Limited	1-0 Extremely weak
Appropriateness	A well developed and appropriate answer	Appropriate answer/connection of ideas	appropriate answer/ some development of ideas/ may rely on repetition	Partially appropriate answer	Inappropriate answer/ does not address question
Ease of expression	High level of fluency	Fluency	Moderate fluency	Low level of fluency/ struggles to express ideas	No fluency
Syntax/grammar/vocabulary	Correct use of grammatical points learned/broad use of chapter vocabulary	Mostly correct use of grammar/ some range of vocabulary	Shows some control of basic structures/ some voc. may be inaccurate and unrelated to the topic	Little control in basic grammatical structures/ limited vocabulary some unrelated to the topic	Restricted by serious flaws in basic grammatical structures/ limited vocabulary, most inaccurate or unrelated to the topic
Pronunciation	Easily comprehensible pronunciation	Pronunciation does not interfere with communication	Pronunciation may require close attention by listener	Serious flaws in pronunciation	Little control of pronunciation

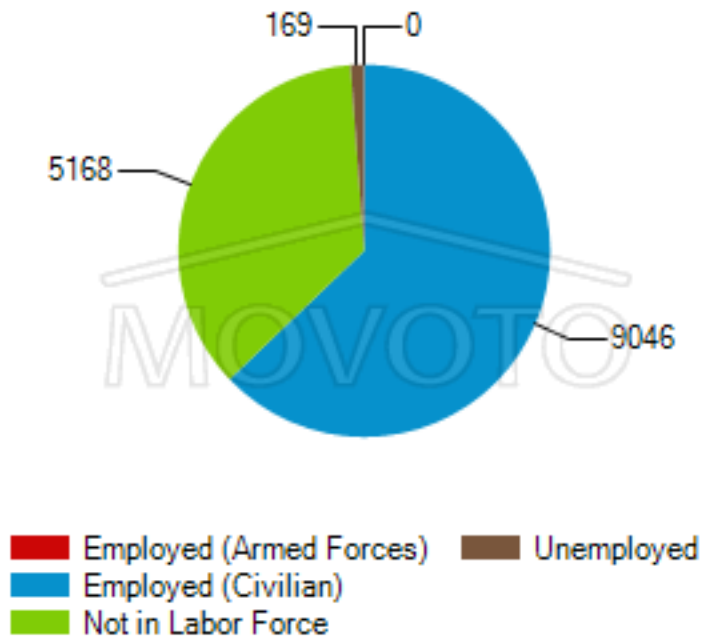
4. Demographic graphs of participants

A.



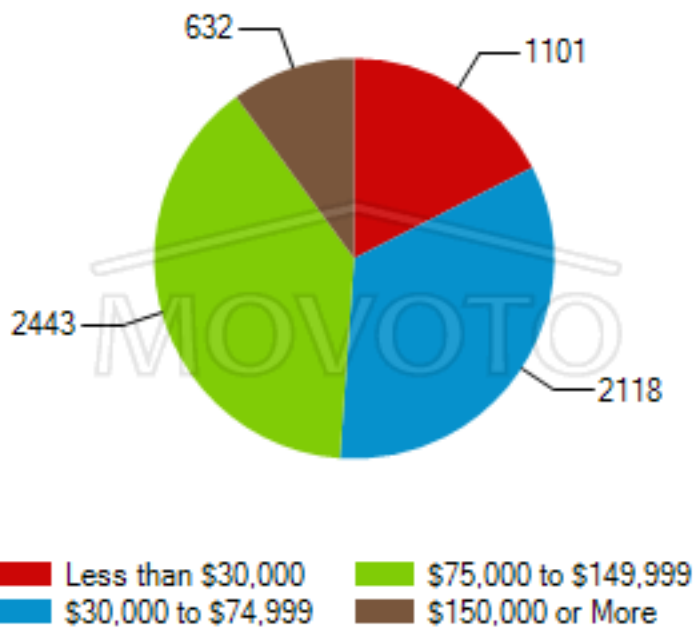
B.

Employment Status



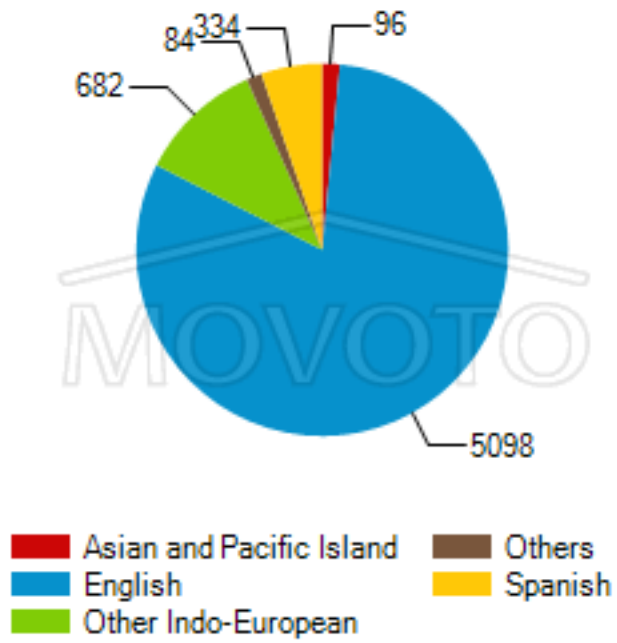
C.

Household Income Levels



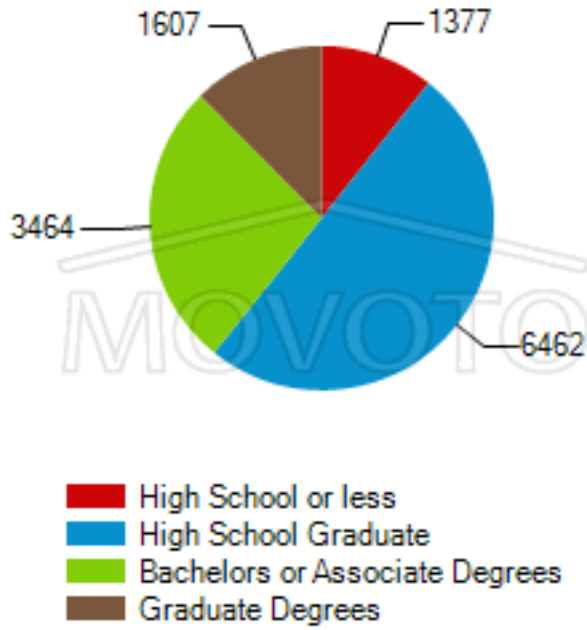
D.

Household Language Distribution



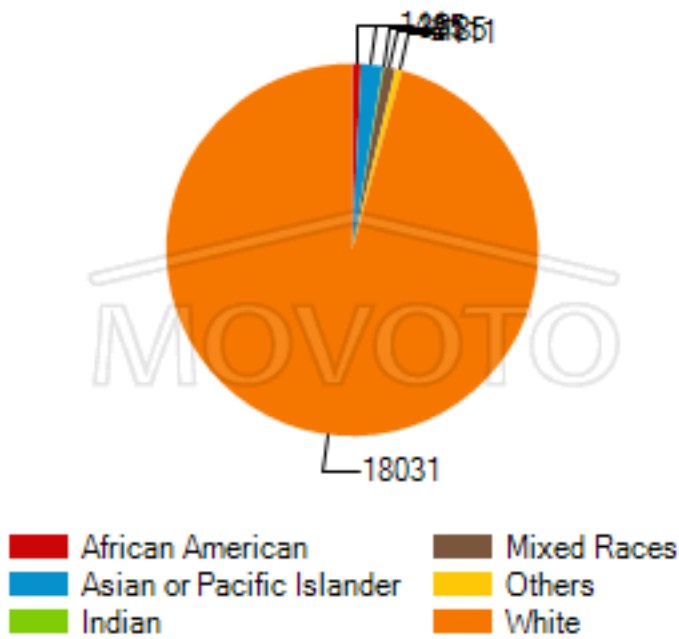
E.

Population by Education Level



F.

Population by Race



G.

Data for academics of High School

Grade 4 English - students meeting standards	79.5%
Grade 4 Math - students meeting standards	84%
Grade 8 English - students meeting standards	76.4%
Grade 8 Math - students meeting standards	85.2%
Dropout rate	0%

Average class sizes

Grades 1-6	23
Math - Grade 8	18
English - Grade 8	20
Math - Grade 10	25
English - Grade 10	24

Demographics

White	94%
Black	0%
Asian	3%
Hispanic	2%
Students receiving free or reduced price lunches	5%
Limited English proficient students	1%

H.

Regents scores

Subject	Scoring below 55	Scoring 55-64	Scoring 65-84	Scoring 85-100
Living Environment				
2010	08	02	55	35
2011	05	04	46	46
Chemistry				
2010	03	13	71	13
2011	01	09	66	24
Earth Science				
2010	00	05	45	50
2011	00	02	41	57
English				
2010	00	01	35	63
2011	02	02	30	65
French				
2010	00	02	29	69
2011	00	00	30	70
Global History				
2010	03	02	25	71
2011	03	02	25	70
Integrated Algebra				
2010	07	04	73	16
2011	04	04	68	23
Italian				
2010	00	00	30	70
2011	00	00	24	76
Math				
2010	22	19	56	03
2011	15	16	54	14
Physics				

2010	02	13	46	39
2011	03	06	59	32

Spanish

2010	01	01	40	59
2011	01	03	47	49

U.S. History and Government

2010	01	01	12	86
2011	03	01	15	82