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12 *Teaching vocabulary*

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Designing the vocabulary programme of a course is similar to most examples of language course design. In addition to considering the situation in which the course occurs, it is necessary to decide what vocabulary will be selected for teaching, how it will be sequenced, and how it will be presented. In this review of vocabulary pedagogy, we will first look at these aspects of selection, sequencing, and presentation, and then explore in more detail two issues that have become a focus of recent research, namely, incorporating vocabulary development into communicative activities, and improving learners' access to vocabulary that has already been partly learned.

Selection

There has been a long tradition of research into what vocabulary will provide the best return for learning. The majority of these pieces of research have been frequency counts, which have provided lists of the most frequent and widely used words of a language. Particularly for the early stages of learning a language, these studies have provided very valuable information. The often repeated finding of frequency counts has been that the most frequent 2,000 headwords account for at least 85% of the words on any page of any book no matter what the subject matter. The same words give an even greater coverage of spoken language. Focusing learners' attention on the high-frequency words of the language gives a very good return for learning effort.

Frequency and range, however, have not been the only factors that have guided the principled selection of vocabulary for teaching. Other factors include the ability to combine with other words, the ability to help define other words, the ability to replace other words, and other factors related to association and availability. These factors and others have been brought together in the notion of a 'core vocabulary' (Carter, 1986, 1987). West (1953) used some of these, but particularly frequency, range, and replaceability, in his classic *General Service List of English Words*, which contains 2,000 headwords with indications of their frequency and the relative frequency of each word's meanings.

Sequencing

There are two sequences to look at here: first, the sequence of levels of vocabulary, and second, the grouping and ordering of words within a set of lessons.

A convenient division for the levels of vocabulary is shown in the accompanying table adapted from Nation (1990), and based on written academic text.

Level	*Number of words*	*Text coverage, %*
High-frequency words	2,000	87
Academic vocabulary	800	8
Technical vocabulary	2,000	3
Low-frequency words	123,200	2
Total	128,000	100

Clearly the 2,000 high-frequency words of English should receive attention first because without these it is not possible to use English in any normal way. These words deserve considerable time and attention. Once learners can use them, the decision as to which level to move to next depends on the use that the learners will make of English.

The academic vocabulary list (Nation, 1990; Xue & Nation, 1984) contains 800 headwords that are frequent in a wide range of academic texts, both in secondary or senior high school and in university, and in newspapers. Here are some examples of words from the academic word list: *abandon, alternative, comply, denote, element, evident.* If learners intend to do academic study or wish to read newspapers, then the academic vocabulary is the next level of vocabulary to teach. If, however, they intend to use English for social purposes, for occupations that do not require the reading of academic text, or for reading novels and popular magazines, the next level to move to is the low-frequency word level.

The division between high-frequency words and low-frequency words is arbitrary and researchers do not agree about where the division should be made, although they agree that the distinction can be most usefully made somewhere between the most frequent 1,500 words and the most frequent 7,000 words. Here are some examples of the more common low-frequency words: *bench, marble, thrill, brilliant, mess, circus, hug.* Less common low-frequency words include *gibbous, phytogeography, gybe, oppidan, telangiectasis,* and *yautia.*

Technical vocabulary has a very narrow range, that is, it is used within a specialized field. Within that field it may be reasonably common. It is likely that every field has its technical vocabulary or the equivalent. Academic fields like law, mathematics, chemistry, and philosophy clearly

have technical vocabularies. It could also be argued that newspapers have their own technical vocabulary, such as the names of people, places, and organizations. Although this vocabulary changes rather rapidly, it does share several features with the technical vocabularies of, say, science. First, the names carry a lot of the message in a particular text. Second, it is often repeated within a text. Third, it may be defined in the text or be considered expected background knowledge for a reader. Technical vocabulary is best taught within the content area of the relevant subject and is usually not a useful focus in preparatory English classes. Grouping items within a lesson will be looked at later in this article in the section dealing with dangers in associative activities.

Presentation

Academic and technical vocabulary lists can be used to make it easier for teachers and learners to treat these types of vocabulary in the same way as high-frequency vocabulary – namely, by learning these items directly through vocabulary exercises or individual learning. Because high-frequency words are relatively few in number, are essential for effective language use and give a very good coverage of text, each individual high-frequency word is worthy of attention by the teacher.

Because low-frequency words are many in number, can often be guessed from context if the high-frequency words are known, and occur very infrequently, each word does not deserve attention from the teacher, but strategies for coping with and learning these words do. These strategies include, in order of importance, guessing from context, using word parts to help remember word meanings, and using mnemonic and rote vocabulary learning strategies. Note that this approach is described from the teacher's point of view. As Kelly (1990) has pointed out, guessing is not a substitute for systematic learning of lexis. Both of these approaches – guessing and systematic learning – deserve attention from the teacher, particularly in terms of strategy development. It is at this point that the teacher's and the learner's interest may diverge. The teacher's main concern will be in the effective development of the strategies. The learner will be mainly concerned with the particular piece of learning that the strategies help.

The general principles for dealing with high- and low-frequency vocabulary have been described, but there are several ways that these principles can be put into practice. Generally, these ways can be described as direct and indirect. They are not necessarily alternatives and may complement each other.

In a direct approach to vocabulary teaching, explicit attention is given to vocabulary. There may be vocabulary lessons where periods of time are

set aside for the study of vocabulary. There will certainly be explicit vocabulary exercises, which may include word-building exercises, matching words with various types of definitions, studying vocabulary in context, semantic mapping, and split information activities focusing on vocabulary. There may also be regular vocabulary testing and possibly assigned rote learning (see Nation, 1982, for a review of research on this topic). Time may be set aside for the learning of strategies and learners' mastery of strategies may be monitored and assessed.

In an indirect approach to vocabulary teaching, the teacher's concern for vocabulary learning will not be so obvious. The teacher may give consideration to incorporating vocabulary learning into communicative activities like listening to stories, information gap activities, and group work, although vocabulary will not often be the main learning goal of the activities. Learners would also be encouraged and guided to do substantial amounts of graded reading. Whenever problems with vocabulary occur in activities, these problems would be dealt with in a principled way. At times these problems may be used as an opportunity to focus explicitly on vocabulary development.

Both of these approaches require thought and planning on the part of the teacher. In an indirect approach, the teacher needs to ensure that learners are being exposed to material and activities that will expand their vocabulary in useful ways. In any language course it is worth looking at the opportunities for direct and indirect vocabulary learning to see that there is a systematic programme of vocabulary development.

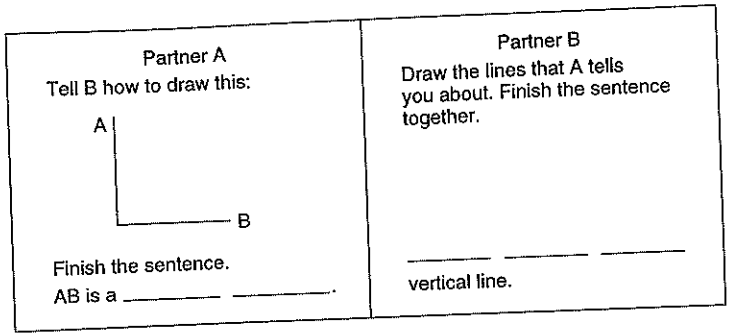
In the next section, we will look further at the presentation of vocabulary to see how it can be incorporated both directly and indirectly into communicative activities.

Learning through communicative activities

Communication activities have a well-established place within many language learning programmes. Although the range of types of such activities is large, all provide learners with opportunities to use language to do things and, in particular, to engage in meaningful interactive oral language production. Typically, their goal is to improve the fluency with which learners access their knowledge of the target language (Nation & Thomas, 1988; Ur, 1981). Other goals include developing confidence in social communication skills (Ladousse, 1983), dealing with the unpredictable nature of conversation (Ladousse, 1987), and improving grammatical accuracy (Rinvolucri, 1984).

Research carried out in recent years indicates that there may also be a role for vocabulary learning either as an incidental goal or as one of the primary goals of a communication activity.

In a study of the acquisition of mathematical vocabulary through the performance of split information activities by eleven- to thirteen-year-old students, Hall (1992) found that the vocabulary learning of students working on these interactive activities was greater than that of students working within a teacher-fronted arrangement with a reading focus. Figure 1 shows a sample task.



Hall concluded that split information activities 'can provide opportunities for talk . . . which increase both language knowledge and content knowledge'. Hall suggests that the requirement for spoken output in these activities and the generative use of new vocabulary items (their use in new contexts and in new structures) are the key factors leading to acquisition of these items.

Simcock (1993) studied learners' performance in ask-and-answer activities where students read a story in pairs and then respond to preset questions from their partners about the events in the story, responding as if they were the people in the story who had experienced these events. She found that new vocabulary encountered in the reading input for the activity was used productively and accurately by learners even when they were not being asked about these items by their partners. This suggests a role for incidental vocabulary learning when the learners' focus is primarily on meaningful performance of a communicative activity.

A study by Elley (1989) provided empirical evidence of incidental vocabulary learning for seven- to eight-year-olds involved in listening to stories in which there was repetition of the new words, illustrations of the words, and redundancy through context. Elley recorded gains of 15% where there was no explanation of the new words and 40% gains where explanation occurred. Although this result relates largely to listening, it also shows the acquisition of vocabulary in a context where attention is on meaningful communication and not on language itself.

Finally, a study by Newton (1993) investigated vocabulary gains through performance of two split and two shared information activities by two groups of four learners.[1] The learners' recognition of vocabulary in the tasks was pre- and posttested and full transcripts were used to analyse the negotiation of this vocabulary during task performances. Three key findings emerged from the study.

First, pretesting showed that many of the 111 words from the four tasks that were not known by at least one member of a group were known by some other group members. In other words, the combined group vocabulary was much greater than that of any one learner in a group. In group 1, for example, 38 words were recognised by all group members, 12 were not recognised by any group members, and the remaining 61 words were recognised by some members of the group but not the group as a whole. For these 61 words – the majority of unfamiliar words in the textual input – the learners within the group were clearly an important learning resource for each other.

Second, further positive evidence in support of this route to understanding of new vocabulary is seen in the negotiation of vocabulary in the performances. Of the 49 requests for word meaning made by learners in the course of performing the tasks, 29 were accurately dealt with by other learners within the group. Two were lost in the interaction and 11 resulted in repeating and spelling the word concerned, but without further information on meaning. Of the remaining 7 items, 5 required some level of supervisor prompting or assistance, and in only two cases did the learners provide inaccurate information. Overall, the learners negotiated unknown vocabulary successfully, thereby helping each other with the learning and use of this vocabulary.

Third, posttesting of the learners' ability to recognise and provide meanings for the vocabulary in the activities showed individual learning gains ranging between 10 and 20 words over the pretest scores for the two groups. This indicates that the learners made important first steps in acquiring new vocabulary through performing the four communication activities.

The research described in this brief review provides evidence for improved vocabulary recognition and use both indirectly, as a result of exposure to new vocabulary in a meaningful communicative context (Elley, 1989; Newton, 1993; Simcock, 1990), and directly as a result of communicative work on targeted vocabulary (Hall, 1992).

1 The split information tasks required interlocutors to exchange unique information each held in order to complete a diagram or table. The shared information tasks required interlocutors to discuss commonly held information in order to problem solve and rank various options.

What are the features of communication activities that encourage vocabulary learning?

First, the face-to-face nature of communication in group activities can help speakers to set their speech to a suitable level for the particular listeners and to adjust it when listeners indicate a lack of understanding. Listeners can also help the speaker by pointing out items that he or she may not be using correctly. Thus learners involved in group work can get help from each other on the meaning of unfamiliar language, including vocabulary items they do not know. Through negotiation, learners can continue to get additional information on an unfamiliar item until they are satisfied that they understand it.

Second, communication activities generally provide a meaningful context such as a scenario for role play or an illustrated setting within which to encounter new vocabulary. This context may not only provide sufficient evidence for a learner to make a reasonable guess as to the meaning of unfamiliar items, but it also assists in the remembering of new items (Craik & Tulving, 1975) and in the networking of new knowledge within the learners' present knowledge structures (Anderson & Reder, 1979).

Third, there is a good chance learners will also be exposed to repeated use of the new items during the course of the activity. Furthermore, because the repetition occurs in a meaningful context, the durability of the learning of the new items is likely to improve.

Fourth, having encountered the new items, learners are likely to be required to use them productively in the activity. If this requires learners to use vocabulary in ways that are not rote repetitions of the way the vocabulary appeared in the input to the task, learning will be much greater (Hall, 1992).

Fifth, from a psycholinguistic perspective, group-based peer interaction typically provides a learning environment in which learners can make errors and express misunderstanding without the adverse effects of exposing their weakness to the whole class or to the teacher (Long & Porter, 1985).

To sum up, there are sound psycholinguistic and pedagogic reasons for using communication activities for improving learners' vocabulary knowledge. But whether and to what extent a learners' vocabulary knowledge will be extended through communication activities is dependent on certain features of the activities themselves. These features include the choice of vocabulary and its placement within the textual input for the activity, the teacher's and learners' strategies for arriving at the meaning of unfamiliar items, and the processing demands of the activity. By being aware of these features and the way they affect learners' responses to unfamiliar vocabulary, teachers can improve the quality of vocabulary learning that is likely to occur during performance of communication activities.

The choice and placement of vocabulary in communication activities

Where the content matter for a task is provided in text form, there is clear evidence that learners spend time talking about vocabulary from this text rather than vocabulary generated by other learners (Newton, 1993). This finding provides us with good reason to take care with the choice and placement of vocabulary items in the printed input for an activity. The choice of a topic and the learners' proficiencies and needs are three primary factors that should determine what vocabulary goes into an activity.

The activity 'Making an Employment Decision' in the Appendix is an example of this principle. This activity was designed as part of a theme-based unit of study on employment for lower-intermediate learners in a university-based English proficiency course. Some of these learners were planning to go on to university study, but most were learning for a range of other purposes. The vocabulary included in the activity both reflects the content of the wider theme and provides for discussion of information relevant to those with an academic orientation (i.e., the names of qualifications), as well as for discussion of information relevant to those with a general community orientation (i.e., popular New Zealand sports, common occupations). For both groups there are also practice reading and saying long numerical figures.

When deciding on the best way to place vocabulary in an activity, there are a number of options to consider. Targeted vocabulary could be placed in instructions, diagrams, lists, a set of rules or criteria, or a description of a scenario. The following guidelines can assist placement.

First, instructions, as the way 'into' the activity, should be transparent, containing as little new vocabulary as possible. Unfamiliar vocabulary in the instructions may inhibit progress on the task and is not likely to receive the same depth of processing and recycling as unfamiliar vocabulary in the content of the task. For example, the activity in the Appendix involves reasonably complex operations, but the instructions have been written simply with few low-frequency words. Of the few potentially unfamiliar words for this particular group of learners, 'applicant' is covered in the initial discussion of the task and 'criterion/criteria' is pre-taught as a target vocabulary item.

Second, potentially unfamiliar vocabulary needs to occur where it is contextually meaningful. This increases the likelihood of the learner's making a successful guess at a word's meaning and encourages independence from dictionaries and the teacher. Options for contextual place-

ment include labels in diagrams or illustrations, or within larger known categories such as a list of sports, or types of jobs or qualifications (such as those in the Appendix).

Finally, tasks should be selected in which the vocabulary will not cause undue strain or breakdown in the flow of task performance. Where difficult vocabulary exists, there are three options. First, vocabulary that is not important for the learners at their present level can be omitted in a revision of the task. This allows a focus on communicative intent rather than language form or meaning. But many tasks cannot be simplified without substantial effort.

Second, vocabulary that is useful and deserves attention can be pre-taught in lessons leading up to performance of the task. This has the advantage of giving the learners opportunities to deepen their recall and productive skill during task performance using vocabulary that has previously been introduced in a controlled setting. However, preteaching takes time and may require learners to meet new items outside of a meaningful context.

Third, both important and less important vocabulary can be glossed in the task with either a definition, an example, a translation, or a picture. Glosses can save time since only the learners who do not know the items need refer to them. However, they may also deny the learners valuable opportunities to apply guessing strategies or to practice helping each other with word meaning. The choice made will depend on the content of the activity, the learning goal, and the constraints within which the teacher is working.

Encouraging depth of processing through communication activities

The fact that learners spend time negotiating vocabulary items during performance of communication activities has already been discussed. However, the presence of unfamiliar vocabulary in a task will not automatically result in negotiation of these items. Newton (1993) found that of the 79 unfamiliar words in four communication activities performed by a group of learners, only 16 were subject to meaning-focussed negotiation. Most of this negotiation of word meaning occurred in the ranking/discussion tasks rather than in the information exchange tasks.

The following extracts show the effect of the type of task on the content of negotiation.

Extract 1 is from a split information task in which learners must exchange information from their incomplete maps of a zoo in order to complete the maps. There is no requirement to understand the items in order to accurately transfer them.

Extract 1

S7 shed
S8 I don't know shed?
S7 s.h.e.d. shed
. . .
S8 what's the meaning of said?
S6 what's a spell s m-?
S8 s.h.e.d.
S7 s.h.e.d.
S6 s.h.e.d.
S5 shed
S7 yeah ok I don't worry, we just write down
S6 and ?

Extract 2 is taken from a ranking/discussion task in which learners look at a zoo's organisation and development issues, work out why these cause problems, and then agree on appropriate changes to overcome these problems. To do this, learners must deal with each vocabulary item they do not know. The result is negotiation of the kind illustrated.

Extract 2

S7 do you know what is number nine?
S5 disco?
S7 yeah
S5 dolphins . . . you know dolphins? . . . dolphins yeah
S7 what animals that?
S5 yeah sometimes they show it in the performance
S8 like swimming pool
S5 yes
S8 yes
S5 swimming pool they jump up and they catch the
S8 ball
S7 just something fish?
S5 like a shark but they are not dangerous
S8 oh yeah its funny

In extract 1 learners were content to exchange items via spelling without successfully negotiating the meaning of the items. In extract 2, on the other hand, learners made an effort to help each other with meaning. The different treatment of unfamiliar vocabulary typified in these extracts is consistent with an analysis of overall negotiation of meaning in transcripts from the two tasks. This showed that 28 (or 17%) out of a total of

141 negotiating questions in the ranking activities were concerned with word meaning, and 26 (18%) with word form and perception. In the split information activities, on the other hand, only 5 (or .01%) out of a total of 326 questions were concerned with word meaning and 113 (35%) with perception.

These results provide clear evidence of a greater focus on word meaning in the ranking information activity and a greater focus on form in the split information activity. The key to these differences seems to lie in the depth of information processing of the two types of tasks. In the split task, information had to be accurately exchanged but was not used in any further decision making or problem solving. Information exchange required relatively superficial processing of task vocabulary. In the ranking task, however, learners had to evaluate the linguistic input provided in the activity and use it to make decisions and solve problems. These operations require deeper levels of comprehension (Bloom, 1956).

This finding is not intended to dismiss the use of split information activities since these have been shown to have two important advantages over ranking or open discussion activities: They generate much more overall negotiation (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Newton, 1993), and talk is much more evenly shared among all participants (Newton, 1993). We may wish, therefore, to consider ways of maintaining the split information dimension of a task, while also ensuring that a depth of information processing occurs. The activity in the Appendix is an attempt to do this.

In task 1 of the activity, learners are required to transfer information from the table. In task 2, the learners must then critically assess and rank this information according to a set of criteria. By incorporating these two types of performance into one activity, the learners are forced not only to be accurate and to concentrate on correct forms, but to undertake meaningful discussion of the information in the activity as well. This has the benefits of split activities – a large amount of negotiation and equal sharing of talk, as well as the benefits of the shared activities – a meaningful focus on content and vocabulary.

Accessing existing vocabulary

Thus far we have focused on learning new vocabulary and the various approaches and factors that influence vocabulary expansion. It is one thing to learn new vocabulary; it is another to be able to access it quickly when it is required for use.

There are two ways vocabulary can be taught so that it can be readily accessed: (1) through fluency activities that provide a well-beaten path to an item, and (2) through richness activities that increase the syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations and networks, thus providing many points of access to an item. Let us look at each of these in turn.

Fluency activities

Fluency activities have certain characteristics. (1) They may involve processing quite a lot of language. (2) They make limited demands on the language user; that is, they involve material that does not contain much unfamiliar language or many unfamiliar ideas. This allows the user to give most attention to the fluency goal. (3) They involve rehearsal of the task through preparation, planning, or repetition. (4) They involve some encouragement for the learner to reach a high rate of performance which requires that the activities reach a high level of automaticity. This encouragement may be in the form of limited time to do the activity or in some continuing record, such as a graph, of the result of the activity. The following fluency activities all make use of many of the features just described. Although vocabulary development is not their main goal, it is one of the subskills developed as a result of the activities.

1. Repeated reading (Dowhower, 1989) involves learners silently rereading the same text with the goal of reaching a faster speed or doing increasingly more difficult comprehension tasks.
2. The 4/3/2 technique (Maurice, 1983; Nation, 1989) requires the learners to repeat the same story or talk to three successive listeners with 4 minutes for the first telling, 3 minutes for the second, and 2 minutes for the third.
3. The best recording technique involves the learner repeatedly recording a talk in the language laboratory until the learner is satisfied that the best possible performance has been recorded.
4. The learners read a text to a high level of understanding and then work in pairs questioning each other about the content of the text.

Note that all of these fluency techniques can be based either on texts provided by the teacher or on material prepared by the learners. Using texts provided by the teacher allows the teacher to focus on particular vocabulary. Using learner-prepared texts ensures that the vocabulary is already known even though it may not yet be readily accessible.

Richness activities

Activities that aim to increase the number of associations attached to a word can be of two types: those that establish syntagmatic relationships,

and those that establish paradigmatic relationships. (Also see Lewis, Chapter 13, this volume.)

Syntagmatic relationships are those that associate a word with other words that can typically precede or follow it. For example, the word *fuel* can be preceded by words like *cost* (as in *the cost of fuel*), *alternative* (*alternative fuels*), *fossil* (*fossil fuels*). As a verb it may be followed by *inflation* (*fuels inflation*), *rumours* (*fuels rumours*), and can occur in the phrase *add fuel to the flames*. Activities that can be used to develop these relationships include the following.

1. *Collocation activities.* A typical collocation activity gets learners to match collocates with given items. For example, the learners have two lists of items that they must match up (Brown, 1974). As Brown (1974) and Rudzka, Channell, Putseys, and Ostyn (1981) show, there are many ways of devising collocation exercises. Collocation activities can also be done as group or class activities with learners drawing on their differing experience to suggest collocates for a given word. Collocation is related to the idea of a word having an underlying meaning. For example, the word *fade* has a range of uses. A colour may fade. A TV picture fades. Light fades. Music fades. Memories and feelings fade. Our looks fade (unfortunately!). A smile fades. Someone can fade into the background. These uses can be considered as several different meanings, and comparison with another language would often encourage such a division. However, if we look at all these uses we can see an underlying meaning that is common to them all. The underlying meaning is something like 'go slowly away until it is no longer there'. By looking for an underlying meaning we then regard the various uses as examples of different collocations rather than as different words. It is more economical in terms of learning and teaching, and more educational in terms of seeing how different languages organise experience in different ways to look for underlying meanings and develop collocational knowledge.
2. *Semantic mapping.* Semantic mapping (Stahl & Vancil, 1986) involves drawing a diagram of the relationships between words according to their use in a particular text. Semantic mapping has the effect of bringing relationships in a text to consciousness for the purposes of deepening understanding of a text and creating associative networks for words. Semantic mapping is best introduced as a collaborative effort between the teacher and the class.
3. *Dictation and related activities.* Nation (1991) has suggested that most value is gained from dictation activities when the dictation text contains known words used in unfamiliar ways. The nature of the dictation activity is that it focuses learners' attention on the collocational relationships within dictated phrases.

Paradigmatic relationships are those that associate a word with others of related meaning. As Cruse (1986) shows, there is a wide variety of possible relationships, and these can be developed in matching and classification activities.

Dangers in associative activities

It is worth remembering that the associative networks that exist for native speakers were gradually built up through normal language use. They were not established by learning opposites, by working through lists of near synonyms looking for differences, or by studying taxonomies of relationships (e.g., the young of deer are called fawns, the young of goats are called kids, etc.). In fact, research by Higa (1963) has shown that learning items together that are near synonyms, opposites, or free associates is much more difficult than learning unrelated items; that is, learning *hot* and *cold* at the same time makes learning more difficult, because many of the learners will mix the word forms and the meanings, and will be unsure after the lesson whether *hot* means 'hot' or *hot* means 'cold'. Similarly, learning items like *shrewd, sly, cunning, crafty,* or *sympathy, compassion, pity,* together results in more confusion than clarity and increases the difficulty of learning. The time for such activities is when all or all except one of the items in a group are largely familiar to the learners and they now need to clarify the distinctions between them. Interestingly enough, it is likely that the overlap of meaning and substitutability in use of such items is much greater than the differences between them; in short, they share a large number of semantic features and differ by only a few or even one.

Conclusion

One purpose of this survey has been to show that vocabulary teaching incorporates a range of approaches and that vocabulary learning requires attention to a range of factors. If teachers are serious about their learners' vocabulary development, then there is a need for planning both on a broad scale in terms of goals and resources and approaches to achieve those goals, and within the scope of a particular language learning task. The research shows that teachers can have a major effect on learning. The challenge is to turn this research into classroom practice.

Appendix: Making an employment decision

You are managers of a large computer business. Your task is to choose one of the following applicants for the position of Staff Welfare and Communications Officer. Four applicants have been interviewed for the job.

Task 1: Exchanging information about the applicants

You have a table with information about the four applicants below. Information is missing from your table. Other members of your group have this missing information. Get this information and write it in the table. (The information is in a *different* order on the other tables.)

Name	Lee, Gek Tay			
Occupation	Lawyer	Truck driver	Social worker	Electrician
Salary				$29,000
Qualifications				Trade certificate
Languages	1. 2.	1. 2.	1. 2. Korean	1. English 2.
Marital status		Unmarried		
Age			34	42
Health		High blood pressure	Very good	
Sports	1. 2.	1. 2. Chess	1. Rock climbing 2.	1. Rugby 2.

Task 2: Choosing the best applicant

Now you must decide together which applicant will get the job. Each of you has two or three different criterion about the most suitable applicant (see below). You must use all the criteria to make a group decision. Listen as each group member says his or her criteria. If the information in the table meets a criterion, put a tick (✔) beside that information in the table. Order the applicants according to the number of ticks they get. The applicant with the most ticks will get the job.

Your criteria

The successful candidate should:

1. Have experience in work that requires communication skills.
2. Be under 32 years of age *if* unmarried.
3. Have earned no more than $40,000 in his or her previous job.

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