2001

Computer-assisted project-based learning in English for specific purposes

Chanmi Moon

COMPUTER-ASSISTED PROJECT-BASED LEARNING

IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

———————————————

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

———————————————

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

in

Education:

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

———————————————

by

Chanmi Moon

December 2001

COMPUTER-ASSISTED PROJECT-BASED LEARNING
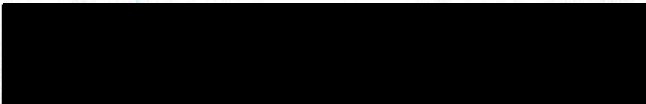
IN ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

_____

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

_____

by

Chanmi Moon

December 2001

Approved by:

_____   Nov. 6, 2001
Lynne Diaz-Rico, Ph.D., First Reader   Date

_____
Young Suk Hwang, Ph.D., Second Reader

ABSTRACT

The aim of this project is to address the need for effective English learning and develop an English curriculum which practically meets learners' needs. This project is for students who study business English in Korean community college. This project presents effectiveness of English learning in the content concerning with English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. These ideas are incorporated into the project to develop the unit, Creating a Company, which consists of six lesson plans.

This project presents one of the most effective lesson plans because it has appropriate combination of teaching business English with various learning experiences such as working as a group, integrating technology in class, and completing a project. Therefore, this project will help teachers to prepare students for their future in the twenty-first century.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

endless loving careg and support. I dedicate this project
to my loving parents with the utmost affection.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND

The Role of English in Korea

English plays a significant role in the twenty-first century. The combination of globalization and the rapid development of the Internet has fueled the demand for English as an international language. People all over the world, whether they are native speakers or non-native speakers, increasingly use English to communicate with each other for a variety of purposes. These purposes include negotiation, business, culture, trade, politics, traveling, education, and entertainment.

Along with this global trend, English in Korea plays an important role not only in academics, but also in many career fields. With a good command of English, students can go to prestigious universities and develop a number of successful career prospects. Moreover, ever since Korea faced an economic crisis in 1997, English has been one of the most important concerns in the Korean business world because proficiency in English is used to attract investments from other countries.

In particular, the use of English on the Internet in Korea has become very popular in education and business. A

1

number of schools and companies have Web sites not only in Korean, but also in English. Students in college sometimes use the Internet to research information in English only. Most international trade, negotiation, and advertisement of business in Korea are implemented in English on the Internet by using e-mail and Web sites. Therefore, not only college students who prepare for getting a job but also employees who want to gain career advancement at work are enthusiastic about learning English.

English Education in Korea

English Education in Elementary School

The Korean Ministry of Education, in 1997, mandated that elementary school teachers teach English two hours per week to third grade students (Kim, 1999). Then, in 2001, the school teachers were required to teach English one hour a week to third and fourth grade students, and two hours a week to fifth and sixth grade students. The main goal of teaching English to elementary students is to motivate the students to become interested in English and begin speaking simple words or sentences. Most teaching is focused on listening and speaking, using a variety of activities such as games, songs, and watching videos.

The Ministry of Education encourages teachers to conduct the class in English only. However, most elementary school teachers are already tired of excessive work and find it difficult to use English in teaching classes. At present, the schools employ teachers who specialize in English to be in charge of English classes.

English Education in Middle and High School

English is one of the most highly emphasized subjects in Korea, along with Korean and mathematics. In Korean middle and high schools, more time is devoted to studying English than any other subject. Questions about English consume a large portion of the exams for university and college entrance. Because the main goal of middle and high school education in Korea is to help students to achieve a high score on the entrance exam for university and college, English education focuses on the exam, which is mostly composed of reading comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, and listening comprehension. In a typical English class, teachers read and translate the text and explain the grammar to students, and students try to memorize their teacher's notes to get a high grade. Recently, English education in Korea has been progressively changing. As educators realize the importance of oral communication, many middle and high

schools have started employing teachers from English-speaking countries to teach conversational English classes.

English Education at the College and University Level

In universities, students take English 101 as a requirement in their first year, a course which mainly consists of reading. In addition to this course, there are several conversational English classes taught by English-speaking teachers. In the process of preparing to get a job or to extend their educational background, many university students put more emphasis on studying English than other courses for their major. Therefore, many students who want to practice or learn more about English go to foreign language institutes at the universities or private institutes which are famous for well-trained instructors.

Problems with English Education in Korea

Recently, the Korean Ministry of Education has made it easier for middle and high school students to study abroad at their own expense. This shows that nationally there is some degree of distrust and dissatisfaction concerning the English educational programs in Korea. The

frustration with learning English urges students to go abroad with the belief that this is the only way to become fluent, despite the enormous expense.

The main problem with the English educational system in Korea originates from the fact that it is excessively focused on the entrance examination requirement for universities. Curriculum and materials emphasize grammar, reading, and vocabulary, not speaking and listening. It makes students tired of English and results in students having a hard time making themselves understood in conversation even though most can communicate fairly well in written English.

Another problem with teaching English in Korea is the poor educational environment. Because of large classes, teachers cannot attempt to apply various learning styles such as cooperative learning or project-based learning in the classroom. Nor can they encourage interaction between teachers and students or students and students. Eventually, this environment produces teacher-oriented classrooms which are not always the best environment in which to teach Asian students. Studies show that Asian students learn better in small groups (Bodycott & Walker, 2000). Therefore, teachers in Korea should try different

learning styles in their classes to make students learn more effectively.

English for Specific Purposes in Korea

As the use of English becomes more popular in Korea, more people will need to sharpen English skills to excel in business, education, and technological sciences. English will become more necessary for students in middle and high school to prepare for the exam for college and university entrance. College students will need English to prepare for continuing education or beginning new careers. People at work will need English skills to keep their position, advance, or be promoted. Ever since the economic crisis in Korea, the importance of English in business has increased. Perhaps one of the most efficient ways to teach English for Koreans is to offer specialized English courses designed to meet specific needs; for instance, taking a course in Business English, which encourages students to use English on the Internet by communicating with each other and searching for, and evaluating, information-related business, will be very helpful to college students preparing for business careers that require people to use the Internet as basic literacy.

Target Teaching Level

Community college in Korea is the target teaching level of this project. Generally, the goal of the curriculum in community colleges is to build bridges between the education in college and needed skills at the workplace so that students can be experts in certain professions. Whereas teachers in middle or high school cannot create their own curriculum because of the national examination for college entrance, instructors at the community college level can effectively design a course to meet the needs of their students. Because of the characteristics of on-the-job training, community college graduates have higher percentage of employment than four-year college graduates do. Compared to four-year colleges, community colleges offer more specific and practical English courses. These courses prove to be more beneficial in business and everyday life. Because they consider English to be an effective tool in the workplace, community colleges focus on four different English skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Purpose of the Project

The main goal of this project is to develop an English curriculum for students who study business English

in Korean community colleges. The five objectives that this project should accomplish are as follows: to motivate students to learn English by showing that the content they learned in class is relevant to real business situations, to encourage students to get used to basic literacy in the twenty-first century by seeking and evaluating information on the Internet, to practice communicating in English by using e-mail, to apply cooperative learning to promote social development, and to engage in project-based learning so that students understand not only a small part of a company, but also the whole process of creating a company.

Content of the Project

This project consists of five main parts. Chapter One, Introduction, presents the background of English as a foreign language in Korea and describes current English education and its problems. Chapter Two, Review of the Literature, investigates five key concepts: English for specific purposes, cooperative learning, project-based learning, literacy in the twenty-first century, and computer-assisted language learning. Chapter Three, Theoretical Framework, incorporates concepts derived from the literature review and presents a model to be applied

to the teaching and learning of English as foreign language. Chapter Four, Curriculum Design, presents the content of the curriculum instructional plans. Chapter Five, Assessment, lays out the assessment strategies and methods used in the unit of lessons.

Significance of the Project

In the twenty-first century, Korean society and business requires people to use English and the Internet in daily life. This encourages people not only to be cooperative as a group, but also to understand the whole process of the work so that they can carry out the assignment as a whole project. Considering the expectations of society and business in the twenty-first century, this project presents a more effective model for teaching English. This project will be valuable to teachers in community college who want their students to be successful in the future and look for good combination of teaching business English with various learning strategies while engaging students to use the Internet as a communication tool.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Project-Based Learning

Moss (1998) defined project-based learning as "an instructional approach that contextualizes learning by presenting learners with problems to solve or products to develop" (p. 1). According to Roth-Vinson (2000), project-based learning connects students' interest with the "real world," approaches students with a learning style which is interesting, motivating, and challenging, and places students in the "driver's seat" of their own learning. Instead of becoming passive, students become active in receiving knowledge, determining subject matter, and selecting and generating the activities they will pursue. Therefore, project-based learning encourages students to be more involved and intrinsically motivated in the learning process.

For instance, learners might interview local employers, then draw a bar graph with the results of the responses of employers to the questions, so that readers can easily see what qualities they need to be equipped with to get a job (Moss, 1998).

Project-based approaches have in common two fundamental elements: learners create a question or topic to establish learning needs; and learners generate a final product or result to apply the driving question (Blumenfeld, Soloway, Marx, Krajcik, Guzdial, & Palincsar, 1991).

According to Blumenfeld et al. (1991), four characteristics promote use of project-based instruction in classrooms: a driving question that is related to a real-world situation and correctly applies various content areas; opportunities for students to conduct active research that encourages them to study concepts, analyze data and information, and present their findings and knowledge in different ways; collaboration among students, teachers, and others in the community that promote students to share their conclusion and knowledge with the members of the learning community; and the use of cognitive tools in learning environments that assist student to present their ideas effectively, such as computer-based laboratories, hypermedia, graphing application, and telecommunications.

In sum, project-based learning is a model of contextual learning, which uses content and methods based on "real world" experience. It is a student-centered

approach in which students actively get involved in the
process of learning activities.

The Process of Project-Based Learning

Wrigley (1998) identified the fundamental phases
which are shown in most projects: selecting a topic,
making plans and doing research, and sharing results with
others. Before starting on a project, forming a
dependable, cooperative relationship is important because
the success of project-based learning depends on group
effort. By doing some activities such as communication
tasks and peer- and self-evaluation, students can easily
produce the appropriate classroom circumstance.

Selecting Topics. A project has to incorporate topics
about which learners are concerned and in which they are
interested. Before beginning instruction, a teacher can
assess what the class needs, what the target areas are,
and what skills can be improved. Then, the teacher can
decide the project topics. When the teacher and learners
come up with new ideas about a project during a discussion
together, they may design new types of projects or topics
that are suitable for the completion of project learning.
A project may emphasize the objectives of one
instructional unit, such as a unit on health, or it may
include several units. A project may happen during a unit

12

or be a culminating final event. Whatever the project they have, learners should make the decisions from the beginning (Moss, 1998).

Making Plans and Doing Research. After selecting a topic, learners start working cooperatively to design the project, carry on research, and plan their product. Learners who work in a team with low language proficiency or have little experience, may need constant assistance from other members throughout the project. Pre-project activities are necessary, such as introducing problem-solving strategies, language for negotiation, and methods for developing plans. To accomplish project tasks, learners are inevitably required to use specific language skills. For instance, when learners practice interviews to collect specified information, they have to know and practice how to create and ask questions as well as take notes (Moss, 1998).

Sharing Results with Others. Learners share project results and conclusions with others in a variety of ways. Learners can conduct oral presentations with written products or presentation tools within the classroom or in other classes within the program. Project results or products can be distributed to the larger community, as in the case of English learners from an adult program in New

13

York City, whose project culminated in the creation and management of a cafe and catering business (Lawrence, 1997).

Loria, Shaltied, Pieterse, and Rosenfeld (1999) present task pathways according to each stage in the process of the project-based learning (see Table 1). Task pathways provide students with directions in which students can find effective ways to complete their project.

Table 1. The Journey of Project-Based Learning

Stages	Task Pathways
Choosing a direction and question	How to choose an interesting direction? How to expand personal knowledge? How to ask a guiding question? How to identify interesting problems?
Information-search and planning	How to gather and organize information? How to choose an appropriate method? How to plan a project? How to prepare a proposal?
Implementation	How to gather data? How to build a model or prototype?
Data analysis and conclusions	How to analyze data? How to reach conclusion?
Project presentation	How to summarize? How to present the project?
Evaluation	How to evaluate the product and process?

Source: adapted from Loria, Shaltied, Pieterse, & Rosenfeld, 1999, p. 7

Assessment in Project-Based Learning

In project-based learning, assessment plays an important role in the classroom (Roth-Vinson, 2000). Roth-Vinson (2000) lists the functions of assessment in project-based learning as follows:

Assessment helps teachers develop more complex relationships with their students by providing concrete pieces of work for students and teachers to discuss, as well as opportunities for formal and informal conversations about the work. Assessment helps students answer the question "Am I getting it?" and "How am I doing?" Assessment can help make content connections clear. Assessment engages student directly in the evaluation their own work. Assessment helps teachers plan their next steps. Assessment helps students plan their projects (p. 38).

According to Roth-Vinson (2000), authentic assessment is one of the elements of project-based learning. Assessment in project-based learning not only evaluates students' understanding of concepts, but also elevates the development of "real world" skills. Assessment reflects students' process of learning throughout their work on a project and allows students to revise their work integrating new concepts and feedback. In project-based

learning, assessment is related to everyday activities which students are familiar to, so it helps students to develop daily activities and learning. Students are informed of the assessment standards of the project through rubrics for evaluation. Authentic assessment needs an authentic audience which can be classmates, a mentor, or members of the community.

Roth-Vinson (2000) suggested several ideas about how to plan assessment with project-based learning. Assessment planning involves organizing learning, so the learning process can be observable and documented. Assessment planning of project-based learning includes analyzing appropriate assessment in a particular activity and determining which criteria to examine while observing, reading, and participating in the activity.

In project-based learning, assessment has to take diverse forms so that assessment can evaluate all students regardless of their backgrounds and skills and provide useful feedback to all. "It may help to think about triangulation: multiple assessors—such as the students themselves, peers, the teacher, and mentors; multiple units of assessment—such as individual students, groups, the whole class; and multiple formats—such as written work (formal assignments and informal journal entries),

observations (of group activities and individual work), presentation, informal discussions and questions, project designs, and the final product" (Roth-Vinson, 2000, p. 39).

In short, to make an effective learning environment, assessment is an important component of project-based learning. Assessment is beneficial for students as well as teachers. Through assessment students can examine if they are on the right track and teachers can plan students' next steps. Authentic assessment of project-based learning evaluates students' understanding as well as their process of learning over time. When teachers plan assessment with project-based learning, they have to consider proper assessment in a specific activity and multiple assessments, so teachers can offer meaningful evaluation and feedback to all students.

Benefits of Project-Based Learning

Proponents of project-based learning declare that students obtain an awareness of key formulas and concepts during researching and seeking resolutions to given problems (Blumenfeld et al., 1991). In the process of learning, students enhance understanding of connections and see those subject matters with an extended, rather than narrowed, view (Blumenfeld et al., 1991).

Student-centered research of project-based learning provides students with meaningful learning experience (Blumenfeld et al., 1991). Students search for solutions to open-ended problems by proposing questions for research, discussing ideas and predictions, planning and developing proposals, gathering and examining information, deducing conclusions, generating further questions, and completing artifacts (Stepien & Gallagher, 1993). While solving problems through research and study, learners can analyze knowledge needs, position necessary resources according to these needs, systematize the appropriate aspects, and combine various information (Land & Greene, 2000).

According to Blumenfeld et al (1991), projects can integrate what students learn in the classroom with real-life experiences because project-based learning situates students in realistic problem-solving situations. Therefore, students can get a feel for how school classes are connected to "real life" (Roth-Vinson, 2000). Questions and answers that arise on a daily basis are given value and are shown to be open to systematic inquiry (Blumenfeld et al., 1991).

Project-based learning offers students an opportunity to learn to take initiative on their own and perform as a

member of a group (Roth-Vinson, 2000). In order to complete a project, it encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning (Roth-Vinson, 2000), as well as engage their effort actively while working with members in a group (Blumenfeld et al., 1991).

While working in pairs or in teams, learners experience diverse opinions and viewpoints. They also realize that they should have skills to design a plan, systematize, moderate, make their points, and reach a agreement about problems such as what tasks to accomplish, who will be in charge of each task, and how research and information will be investigated and presented.

Learners identify these skills as significant strategies for living successful lives (Stein, 1995) and employers also agree these skills are essential in a high-performance workplace (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991).

In brief, project-based learning is beneficial for students. In project-based learning, students have opportunities for meaningful learning as they understand key concepts through extended research, experience the connection between class and real life, take individual responsibility of learning as well as contribution to a

group, and learn and apply the skills the workplace requires.

Effect on Second Language Acquisition

Project-based instruction as an instructional activity is becoming popular in general education as well as English as a Second Language (ESL) education. Beckett, Carmichael, Mohan, and Slater (2000) suggested the framework for teaching language, skills, and content simultaneously, which is a significant intent described by Dewey for project-based instruction (Dewey & Dewey, 1915). The setting, which is inspired by Mohan's Knowledge Framework (Mohan, 1986), displays how teachers can incorporate the improvement of language and skills at different levels of a project while encouraging students to learn content at the same time. The basic framework can be applied to any topic area.

The project conducted by Beckett, Carmichael, Mohan, and Slater (2000) includes fifty-seven Japanese students in a one-year exchange program at a Canadian university. Students decided their topic and worked on a three-month research project, resulting in a thirteen-to-fifteen-page report with bibliography, graphics, and illustrations. They submitted a proposal first, and then, turned in project binders every two weeks to receive feedback from

teacher. When they finished their project, they conducted a presentation about it.

According to students' feedback, the framework helped them to learn the relationship between language, content, and skills. Specific information about their topic was considered "content." How they got information was considered "skills." How students expressed their knowledge was also considered "skills." While getting the information, students learned new vocabulary; that was considered "language." While researching, how students analyze is a skill, and how they write a summary is language writing ability.

Project-based learning connects English in class and English in real-life environments (Fried-Booth, 1997). It motivates learners to practice English because project-based learning situates learners in environments in which authentic language is needed to communicate. When learners work together in project work, they can improve skills to plan, organize, and negotiate. This happens even among learners with low language proficiency. During working in a group for the projects, each members' strengths and favored ways of learning (e.g., by reading, writing, listening, or speaking) empower the work of the group altogether (Lawrence, 1997).

In short, project-based learning has positive effects on second language learning. Students who learn English through project-based learning acquire not only content and skills, but also language. Especially, because project-based learning integrates English in class and English in real world, learners are encouraged to practice authentic English.

In sum, project-based learning is an instructional approach that connects learning with real life experience. It also encourages students to be active in their learning process. Assessment plays an important role in project-based learning. Authentic assessment is beneficial for both students and teachers. Teachers can provide feedback to all students by using multiple assessments. By means of project-based learning, students learn concepts through research, realize the relationship between class and the real world, and take responsibility both as an individual and as a group member. Project-based learning is also beneficial for language learners because they learn authentic English through content and skills. Therefore, a well-designed project-based learning class should be integrated into the curriculum.

English for Specific Purposes
and Business English

Background and Importance of English for Specific
  Purposes in an English-as-a-Foreign-Language
  Environment

The research of English for specific purposes (ESP)

has a long and varied history (Strevens, 1997). After

World War II, a scientific, technical, and economic

activity was enormously expanded and, as a result of

development, two forces--technology and commerce--

dominated the world. This fast growth produced the need

for an international language and, because of the economic

power of the United States, English took this role

(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Also, in early 1970s, people who attended the

Conference on Second Language Learning and National

Development in Asia, Africa, and Latin America announced

the demand for English as follows:

"The language problem in development stems from at

least three communication needs which are increasingly

being recognized both in developing countries themselves

and in other countries aiding in their development:

internal communication, transmission of science and

technology, and international communication" (Mackay &

Mountford, 1978, p. vi).

According to Johns and Dudley-Evans (1991), "the demand for English for specific purposes (e.g., English for science and technology, English for business, vocational ESL) continues to increase and expand throughout the world" (p. 297). For example, according to Swales (1988), English for Specific Purposes: An International Journal has more subscribers from non-English-speaking nations than the number of subscribers from English-speaking nations, with more than fifty percent of the articles from writers teaching in EFL environment.

Koreans in particular have a high interest in English as a tool of international communication in business. In 1995, the Korean government began a "globalization" policy, with the goal of enhancing Korea as an economic force to contend with other developed nations in the international market. In 1997, in economic crisis, South Korea received US $57 billion in financial assistance from the International Monetary Fund (IMF). Korea continues to draw interest and attention from other countries looking for commercial investment. The current Kim Dae-Jung regime seeks improved democratic processes and freer trade markets. Because of the policy of a free-market economy, Koreans have been even more interested than previously in

24

English as a language of international business communication. Recently, a lot of business people in Korea are encouraged to write business documents in English (Park, Dillon, & Mitchell, 1998).

People all over the world want to learn English, not for the pleasure or appreciation of the language, but for the purpose of being successful in international technology and commerce. This trend created a new type of learner, who learns English because of a special need; such as business people who want to sell their products internationally, mechanics who need to understand instruction manuals, doctors who need to be up-to-date in the file of medicine, and a lot of students who need to understand textbooks and research materials written in English only (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

What is English for Specific Purposes?

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that "ESP is just one branch of EFL/ESL, which are themselves the main branches of English Language Teaching in general" (p. 19). At this level, ESP can be differentiated from General English. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), based on distinctive courses, ESP is classified into three subcategories: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for

the Social Sciences (ESS). Each subcategory of ESP divides into two branches, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), also called English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) and Vocational English as a Second Language (VESL).

As an approach to language teaching, ESP allows the learner to decide content and process according to their needs or specific goals (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991). Strevens (1988) provided this extended definition and list of claims:

> A definition of ESP needs to distinguish between four absolute and two variable characteristics. First, in absolute characteristics, ESP consists of English language teaching which is; designed to meet specified needs of the learner; related in content (i.e., in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities; centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse; in contrast with "General English." Second, in variable characteristics, ESP may be, but is not necessarily, restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g., reading only); not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

The claims for ESP are: being focussed on the learner's need, wastes no time; is relevant to the learner; is successful in imparting learning; is more cost-effective than "General English." (p. 1-2)

Business English in English for Specific Purposes

According to Hoekje (1996), business English is in the field of English for Specific Purposes because it has the similar framework for analysis and pedagogical practice. "Business English is communicative, functional, and performance-based" (Hoekje, 1996, p. 412). Compared to the General English course, a Business English course is designed to meet a particular need relevant to target situation. Pedagogical practice also depends on business knowledge that learners have (Hoekje, 1996).

Ellis and Johnson (1994) defined three characteristics of Business English. First, a sense of purpose is the most significant element in business meetings, telephone calls, and discussion. Language is a tool to bring successful results to business. The need of language mainly depends on negotiation such as obtaining what one wants or convincing others to follow one's opinion. Another important characteristic of Business English is its social aspects. Because most business contacts happen between people who have never met each

other before or know very little about each other,
business people need to know international ways to
communicate with various people from different cultures
and languages. Thirdly, clear communication is a crucial
element in Business English. When business people do not
have enough time for communication, information can be
misunderstood. Therefore, a clear and logical process of
language is necessary in the business world.

Needs Analysis

Generally, course design is the process of making a
syllabus, developing a methodology for teaching, and
producing assessment procedures, ultimately in order to
advance learners to a certain state of knowledge.
Therefore, course design reflects the specific purposes of
teaching. What makes ESP different from other English
teaching is its particular course design, with a goal of
meeting learners' individual needs and interests
(Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). When the courses are related
to learners' interests, learning is better and faster
because learners' interest and needs affect their
motivation. Therefore, in ESP, the most important element
of course design is needs analysis, which General English
does not need. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987),
"needs analysis is the awareness of a target situation--a

definable need to communicate in English" (p. 63).
Teachers need to figure out the target situation
concerning necessities, lacks, and wants. Necessities is
what learners are required to know to perform properly in
the target situation. When teachers design a course, they
have to be concerned with what learners know already.
Therefore, teachers determine the necessities that the
learners lack. Because learners' motivation is also
crucial, teachers apply learners' wants to the course
design (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

A fundamental step to design an ESP course is to
gather enough information for needs analysis. Hutchinson
and Waters (1987) listed a number of ways to collect
information about necessities, which are as follows:
questionnaires, interviews, observation, data collection
e.g. gathering texts, and informal consultations with
sponsors, learners, and others (p. 58). After collecting
information, the course designers have to analyze target
needs using these questions: Why is the language needed?
How will the language be used? What will the content areas
be? Who will the learner use the language with? Where will
the language be used? When will the language be used?
(p. 59)

Therefore, in order to produce an effective course design, teachers need to analyze the target situation and learners' necessities, lacks, and wants. Teachers can start designing an appropriate course based on gathered information about what learners specifically need and want from the lecture.

Three Types of English for Specific Purposes Course Design

There are a number of approaches to ESP course design. However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) classified these into three main types:language-centered, skills-centered, and learning-centered (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Language-centered course design is an approach of teaching English which focuses on the linguistic features of the target situation. The content of the ESP course is directly connected to the analysis of the target situation. It is the simplest process for designing a course and is one of the most frequently used by many English teachers.

However, the language-centered process has several weaknesses. Learners are used only to provide information of the target situation, and are not considered at every step of the procedure. Based on the first needs analysis,

the process of the curriculum may become rigid and inflexible. This approach emphasizes data from needs analysis more than other factors which possibly influence learning. Because the data analysis of the language-centered approach is superficial, it emphasizes the performance, not the competence.

The skills-centered course design is an approach of teaching English that focuses on analyzing skills and strategies required to cope in target situation. This course design can help learners with limited time and resources to develop specific skills, such as reading skills and strategies which students can develop not only during, but also after the course. It has been often used in many countries over the world, especially in Latin America. College students sometimes have to read textbooks in English which are not published in their own language. In order to meet these students' needs, a lot of ESP courses are introduced to help students to read the textbooks in English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

In the skills-centered approach, the needs analysis is used to assess learners' competence and the potential knowledge and abilities that learners bring to the classroom. However, learners are not considered to determine the content of the course because the

skills-centered process deals with the learner as a language user instead of a language learner. This is believed to be a weakness of this approach.

The learning-centered course design is an approach of teaching English focusing on the learning process of learners all the way through the course of study. The main purpose of this course design is to maximize the potential of the learning. In this approach, learning is a process in which, in order to understand new information, learners use knowledge and skills they already have. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) saw learning as "an internal process, which is crucially dependent upon the knowledge the learners already have and their ability and motivation to use it" (p. 72). The learning-centered approach emphasizes not only the performance and the competence, but also how learners acquire the competence. It also mainly focuses on "how the learner can learn the knowledge most effectively" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p.75).

The learning-centered course design can be seen as a negotiated process because learners, as well as all possible factors such as ESP learning situation and the target situation, are considered in order to determine the content of syllabus, materials, methodology and evaluation procedures. It also can be seen as a dynamic process

because the course design can be changed according to the variations of needs and resources. The learning-centered approach is more complex than others because it includes not only other approaches but also the recognition of the complication of the learning process (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

When designing a curriculum, ESP teachers have many elements to consider. Three approaches have their own advantages and effectiveness. Therefore, ESP teachers have to decide which course design will be successful for which learners based on the comparison of these three approaches.

In summary, the use of English is becoming popular in almost every international field. As the use of English increases and is deployed in more areas, the needs of English learners become more varied and detailed. People in different situations need English for business, science and technology, and academic purposes. Concerning these particular needs and wants, English for specific purposes can be viewed as an effective teaching approach because it emphasizes the course design that meets individuals' needs. In order to create effective ESP course design, English teachers have to use not only needs analysis of the target situation but also more dynamic and interactive

processes which reflect the content of the syllabus, learning materials, methodology, and tests.

<div align="center">Cooperative Learning</div>

What is Cooperative Learning?

    Cooperative learning is one of the most extensively studied instructional techniques in education (Johnson & Johnson, 1991). Over the past twenty years, many scholars have researched the features of cooperative learning and its effect on students' achievement in different educational environments (Slavin, 1994). Researchers found that cooperative learning affects students' achievement, attitudes, and social relations, as well as other variables (Stevens & Slavin, 1995).

    According to Marr (1997), the term cooperative learning indicates "instructional techniques or grouping structures in which students are divided into heterogeneous groups to complete instructional activities" (p. 7). Individual members participate in, and together complete, the group activity. Cooperative learning structures enhance students' social and academic development because of the interaction in which students in a group support and encourage each other and work

together to attain success. While working, all members learn what they need to know.

Johnson and Johnson (1991) suggested four important elements in cooperative learning: (a) positive interdependence, in which all group members take part in to reach the success of the group; (b) individual accountability, in which individual members have a assigned responsibility to learn and contribute to a group project; (c) cooperation, in which students work together through discussion, problem-solving, and collaborating; and (d) evaluation, in which all members of the group analyze and assess, if they work together effectively and revise work as needed.

In brief, cooperative learning is an instructional group activity in which students learn information through the interaction between members. Therefore, this activity encourages students to be accountable for their own learning and to motivate each other's learning.

Cooperative Learning Structures

According to Slavin (1989), who studied more than 60 different research entries to evaluate the impact of particular cooperative learning structures, five programs have special effectiveness on achievement and social development. These are Student Teams Achievement Divisions

(STAD), Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT), Team-Assisted Individualization (TAI), Group Investigation (GI), and Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC). Generally, teachers utilize Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD) and Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT) across the curricula and at different grade levels. STAD and TGT include team rewards as well as individual accountability to achieve equal opportunity for success for all groups (Slavin, 1990).

Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD) consists of four heterogeneous members constituted as a learning team. The instructor explains the topic and puts students into teams, and then each team works together to complete activities such as worksheets or written problems relevant to the topic. After the activities, the teacher gives a quiz on the lesson. Points on the quizzes depend on students' achievement and are added to a team grade. Each team member has an equal opportunity for improvement or success.

The second cooperative learning structure, Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT), is almost the same as STAD except that it uses games to stimulate students' learning rather than quizzes. A typical sequence might be as follows: first, the teacher delivers a lecture on a

concept and put students into teams; and then each team works together on the activities. After finishing the activities, each team chooses one of the members to compete in a tournament. The teacher asks questions related to what students learned to the group representatives. When a member of the group gets a right answer, his or her team gains points.

Many researchers have studied the positive impact of Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT) and Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD). These methods were especially very effective to help students develop socially and achieve academically. While working with members of a group, students learn how to cooperate with other peers and improve intergroup relations (DeVries, Edwards, & Slavin, 1978; Kagan, Zahn, Wideman, Schwarzwald, & Tyrel, 1985). Moreover, students increasingly stay on task in the class with a positive attitude (Janke, 1978; Slavin, 1978a, 1978b, 1980a), manage themselves, and believe that their efforts will decide their academic achievement (DeVries, Edwards, & Wells, 1974). In studies on the comparison between students in cooperative learning and students in a typical learning setting, cooperative program students show crucial improvement in language arts (DeVries, Mescon, & Shockman, 1975), reading comprehension (Stevens,

Slavin, Famish, & Madden, 1988), math (Madden & Slavin, 1983; Slavin & Karweit, 1984), and science (Sherman & Thomas, 1986).

Team-Assisted Individualization (TAI) is a special cooperative device, which the teacher uses for students in grades three to six. This structure requires a particular set of teaching materials (Slavin, 1990). First, students take a placement test, and then start individualized arrangement of instruction according to the results of the test. Students continue study at their own pace. Sometimes, the instructor teaches concepts to certain groups who have the same topics. Although individual members of the team have different instructional materials, they can review each other's work and assist each other whenever they have problems. At the end of each lesson or unit, a team member produces a test and scores it. When the student passes the quiz, he or she can take another test given by a member of another learning team. At the end of the each week, the teacher gives points to each group according to the average number of units finished by individual members.

According to Slavin (1990), the evaluation of the California Test of Basic Skills proves the positive and critical impact of Team-Assisted Individualization (TAI)

on student achievement (Slavin, Leavey, & Madden, 1984).

Oishi, Slavin, and Madden (1983) stated that students who

are working in TAI have enhanced social development and

promoted interrelationship among members. They also showed

that students gradually realize the fact that most

students like themselves have difficulties during study,

so they progressively gain self-confidence and positive

attitudes in the classroom (Slavin, 1984).

John Dewey invented Group Investigation (GI) and

Sharan and Sharan (1976) further developed it. A

cooperative learning structure, GI allows learners to

choose an extensive topic, and then divide the main topic

into subtopics, research and collect information about the

subtopics from various sources, and make a final

presentation on the result of their study. In GI,

cooperative working skills and individual responsibility

are important elements. According to Talmage, Pascarella,

and Ford (1984), the Stanford Achievement Test proves

those students who used GI in grades two through six

showed notable enhancement in reading and language arts

tests.

In particular, the Cooperative Integrated Reading and

Composition (CIRC) program, which Slavin (1990) promoted

for grades three through six, has a notable positive

impact in reading and writing skills. This program includes several significant elements. First, this cooperative learning program provides students with commercial reading materials and combines writing with the topic of the reading. Then, the instructor teaches small learning groups with the strategies, which emphasize reading comprehension. Lastly, the teacher puts students in heterogeneous study teams.

Each team consists of four pairs of learners. Each pair should be from the same reading group so that at least two students of the team have the same reading ability and attend the small group meeting for reading. In this group meeting, the teacher uses the same unit or lesson. This learning structure allows each group to have a meeting with the teacher every day. The teacher presents a story and new vocabulary just as does a teacher in a typical reading class. Then, the teacher gives students a series of activities to perform in a learning team, such as reading the story aloud with a partner, finishing a work sheet for grammar in a story, reading aloud the list of new words, explaining the meaning of vocabulary, spelling words from the story, summarizing and retelling the story with a partner, and so on. When students finish all activities, the pair reviews each other's work.

After the three classes, the teacher evaluates students with a test which reflects the story and relevant activities in which students studied and participated. The individual points from the test are added to the team's grade. During the week, each group gets direct instruction from the teacher on reading comprehension and metacognitive strategies.

Moreover, students practice writing that is based on what the students previously read. During the process of writing, students can discuss concerns with members of a team or their teacher. When students complete their writing, they publish their work in a team or class book. Furthermore, all students are supposed to read for twenty minutes every evening and finish a book review every two weeks, and these book reports are also added to the final team grade. A number of researchers have shown that the CIRC program significantly enhances the reading comprehension, vocabulary, language expression, language mechanics, spelling, and writing skills (Stevens, Madden, Slavin, & Farnish, 1987; Slavin, Karweit, & Madden, 1989).

The Effects of Cooperative Learning

Many researchers have evaluated the significance of cooperative learning on effectiveness and achievement. The broad studies, most of which have been researched since

1960, show significant results. Researchers usually have compared and contrasted cooperative learning circumstances with competitive and individualistic learning environment. According to results from data analysis, students (especially those at an average level of achievement) perform better in a cooperative learning environment than in competitive and individualistic situations (Totten, Sills, Digby & Ross, 1991).

According to Ames and Murray (1982), through sharing information and study results within a group, students gain new solutions and ideas and experience so-called process gain, which cannot be acquired in individual learning environments. Even young children in first and second grade show process gain.

Academic Achievement. Cooperative learning has a significant effect on academic achievement. Marr (1997) stated that "students in cooperative learning groups frequently demonstrate both higher achievement and greater productivity" (p. 8). The results of several studies have shown that cooperative learning environment enhances students' reasoning skills. Students in cooperative learning settings tend to understand concepts faster than students in competitive and individual situations

(Laughlin & Jaccard, 1975; Laughlin, McGlynn, Anderson, & Jacobson, 1968).

Furthermore, evidence shows cooperative learning circumstances encourage students to use metacognitive strategies more often and enhance students' achievement and reasoning abilities (Larson, Dansereau, O'Donnell, Hythecker, Lambiotte, & Rocklin, 1985). Students working with a group easily retain information and generally produce new solutions and ideas.

Peer Relationships and Social Development. Cooperative learning has a significant effect on peer relationships and social development. Johnson and Johnson (1991) stated that "the interaction that most influences student performance in instructional situations is student-student interaction" (p. 3). Students in a cooperative learning group work together to reach group goals. In a cooperative group setting with other members, students learn from each other, stay on task, and generate relative perspectives. In several studies, the results show that peer relationships take important role in the teenagers' development and socialization (Hartup, Glazer, & Charlesworth, 1967; Johnson, 1980). Johnson and Johnson (1991) listed several ways in which these peer relationships are important:

In their interactions with peers, children and
adolescents directly learn attitudes, values, skills,
and information unobtainable from adults. Interaction
with peers provides support opportunities and models
for prosocial behavior. Peers provide models of,
expectations of, directions for, and reinforcements
of learning to control impulses. Children and
adolescents learn to view situations and problems
from perspectives other than their own through their
interaction with peers. In both educational and work
settings, peers have a strong influence on
productivity. Student educational aspirations may be
more influenced by peers than by any other social
influence. (p. 31)

Other research has shown that students in cooperative
learning settings care about each other no matter what
race or ability or disability peers may have (Johnson &
Johnson, 1983; Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983).
Furthermore, in the process of working cooperatively,
students improve their self-esteem, socialization skills,
and interpersonal skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

In sum, cooperative learning has significant positive
effects on learners' academic achievement, peer
relationships, and social development. Therefore, teachers

need to integrate cooperative learning in the classroom, so that students can learn more while working together and helping each other.

Cooperative Language Learning

Along with academic achievement and social development, cooperative learning is remarkably beneficial for language learning (Rivers, 1994). Cooperative learning helps learners to develop language more through integrating language with content (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). According to Olsen and Kagan (1992), cooperative learning provides students with rich opportunities, including as follows: to use language actively, to expand complexity of communication, and to use language for social purposes.

Increased Active Communication. In cooperative learning classes, students do most of the talking, while in traditional classes, teachers do. Because in traditional classes one student speaks at a time, each student has only a short time to talk out of fifty minutes. On the contrary, in cooperative classes, students can talk most of the time through activities because they speak at the same time in a given time. Therefore, students in cooperative learning class receive more communication compared with other students (Olsen & Kagan, 1992).

Increased Complexity of Communication. While stating new information, explaining rationales, and integrating information, students increase their linguistic complexity. Cooperative learning groups show a remarkable amount of discourse that repeats, re-states, or clarifies information (Johnson, Johnson, & Maruyama, 1983). While students exchange information, discuss the issues, and collaborate to complete the activities, each member of a group can explain their knowledge of the concepts (Johnson & Johnson, 1989). To clarify comprehension, students also use gestures, visuals, and hands-on material. Consequently, cooperative learning helps students to develop complexity of communication as well as high quality discourse (Olsen & Kagan, 1992).

Social Language Development. In cooperative learning, students work together with members of a group to complete assignments. In their interaction, students practice several skills such as "paraphrasing other's ideas, asking for explanations, summarizing group progress, clarifying, indicating agreement or disagreement, and interrupting politely" (Olsen & Kagan, 1992, p. 7).

There are many findings on the positive effects of cooperative learning with regard to language learning. According to Jacob, Rottenberg, Patrick, and Wheeler

(1996), "theorists see cooperative learning as beneficial to second language learners because it offers opportunities for premodified input that focuses in meaning in low-anxiety contexts, interactionally modified input, and comprehensible output" (p. 255).

Previous studies on cooperative learning in L2 classrooms compared teacher-centered classes and small group or pair work. The study results show that second language learners in cooperative learning environments, such as group or pair work, have more chances to practice second language than other learners in teacher-fronted classes (Long, Adams, McLean, & Castanos, 1976; Pica & Doughty, 1985).

According to field research conducted in ESL classes in junior high schools in Israel, as a result of cooperative learning, students performed better overall evaluation of English proficiency and in listening comprehension than did students in whole class instruction (Sharan, Bejarano, Kussell, & Peleg, 1984).

Ghaith and Yaghi (1998) described the impact of cooperative learning on second language acquisition principles and mechanics. According to the result of their research, cooperative learning helped the low achievers in experimental classes to gain more from the class.

According to Dornyei (1997), cooperative learning (CL) has been found to be a highly effective instructional approach in education in general, and this has been confirmed with regard to second language (L2) learning as well. Dornyei (1997) also presents reasons for the success of CL from a psychological perspective, focusing on two interrelated processes: the unique group dynamics of CL classes and the motivational system generated by peer cooperation.

Dornyei (1997) stated that "CL tends to produce a group structure (including peer relationships and learning norms) and a motivational basis that provide excellent conditions for L2 learning" (p. 498). A CL class enhances students' motivation to get involved in a variety of activities during collaborating with group members to achieve group goals, which is an important element for effective communicative second language classes (Dornyei (1997).

Coelho (1992) presented similarities between cooperative group skills focused on CL and L2 functions focused on communicative language teaching. The research shows that CL can support the groundwork for communicative language curriculum design.

Olsen and Kagan (1992) explained a number of reasons
why learners become more proficient in language as a
result of group work. The reasons are as follows:

Learners have more comprehensible input through peer
interactions; have better listening skills as a
result of responding and acting on what has been
said; receive immediate response to their
participation; build on the talk of others through
elaboration and restatement; have longer
conversational turns than in the whole-class teaching
situation; consult with each other to seek opinions
and information; initiate their own questions,
articulate their needs and interests; become aware of
audience, purpose, and social context; exchange
information about ideas, feelings, and needs; have
access to a more varied and complex use of language;
focus with conversational partners on meaning and
what is appropriate, rather than on accuracy; have
continual comprehension checks and clarification
requests; relate new information about language to
existing information; experience individually
appropriate language with extralinguistic support
(e.g., facial expression, diagrams) to aid
understanding; and make use of their own natural

learning power in a positive and accepting

environment. (p. 60-61)

In sum, cooperative learning offers a relaxed and enjoyable environment and encourages students to get involved in activities. In the process of cooperative learning, students help each other by exchanging information. Eventually, students improve their academic and social skills and develop language fluency through interaction between students. Therefore, considering the many positive effects on language learning as well as other activities, English teachers should integrate cooperative learning in their instruction.

Computer-Assisted
Language Learning

What are Computer-Assisted Instruction and
    Computer-Assisted Language Learning?

Bourne (1990) stated computer-assisted instruction (CAI) refers to the process of utilizing a computer as an instructional tool to assist teachers and students to accomplish educational goals. According to Dunkel (1991), computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is a more specific term which "concerns the use of computers to assist in second or foreign language (L2) instructional activities" (p. 28).

Recently, the use of computers for language teaching and learning has been expanded. A decade ago, only a small number of professionals considered using computers for teaching language in the classroom. However, as multimedia computing and the Internet have developed, a number of language teachers all over the world have realized the importance of using computers in teaching language (Warshauer & Healey, 1998).

Advantages of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Hall (1998) pointed out a number of advantages of CALL in language teaching and learning. First of all, "the computer adds variety to the language learning experience" (p. 45). Learners or teachers can integrate texts, videos, and sound materials from the computer into their activities in order to provide "a further dimension" to language learning. Hall (1998) also stated, "The computer individualizes learning" (p. 5). "There will be a range of learning needs, learning styles and learning readiness in any group of learners, including groups long taught together and defined as of like ability" (Donmall, 1996, p. 51).

Computers can be used to support this diversity. Students can function independently of their peers in a class and can decide the pace of progressing, the degree

of difficulty, the frequency to repeat a quiz, and so on. Also, many CALL programs offer the statistical results of sessions on the screen, which encourages students to take more responsibility for their learning while checking their position in the class (Hall, 1998).

Learners can get immediate feedback from the computer while doing exercises. When students work on pencil-and-paper quizzes, they realize what mistakes they made only after their teachers mark their papers. In contrast, the computer gives instant answers and explanations while students work on exercises. This will help students to reduce the repeated mistakes they make (Hall, 1998).

Many activities with the computer offer a frequency of interaction which can hardly be found in books, tapes, and television. In a typical language learning classroom, all of the students cannot have the teacher's attention all the time. Thus, the interaction with computers helps the learning process even though computers offer more limited responses than teachers do (Hall, 1998).

The computer helps teachers to save time and work. For instance, teachers can use the time they spent for routine work, such as marking and grading, for preparing class with more creative teaching, and meeting learners'

specific needs. This is eventually beneficial to students (Hall, 1998).

Many students are already familiar with computers because of the popularity of computer games, the Internet, and personal computing. Teachers can use this to their advantage. Because most of their students are familiar with computers, they will find these new teaching methods both interesting and enjoyable (Hall, 1998).

Three Phases of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Language teachers have used computers since the 1960s. Warschauer (1996) divided this history into three main stages: behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL, and integrative CALL. Each stage accords to not only a specific step of technology, but also a specific pedagogical approach.

Behavioristic CALL. Based on behaviorist theories of learning, the first phase of CALL was devised and used in the 1960s and '70s. The program of behaviorist CALL is also known as "drill and practice" because it requires redundant language drills. According to Taylor (1980), drill and practice courseware is based on the computer-as-tutor model, which means a computer delivers

teaching materials to the students. Warschauer (1996) concisely noted the rationale of drill and practice:

Repeated exposure to the same material is beneficial or even essential to learning. A computer is ideal for carrying out repeated drills, since the machine does not get bored with presenting the same material and since it can provide immediate non-judgmental feedback. A computer can present such material on an individualized basis, allowing students to proceed at their own pace and freeing up class time for other activities. (p. 3)

Many CALL tutoring systems with these concepts were produced for mainframe computers. These systems contained vocabulary drills, brief grammar descriptions and drills, and translation tests at different sessions (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985).

Communicative CALL. The communicative approach to teaching, the second phase of CALL, became popular in the 1970s and 1980s. Those who supported the communicative approach thought that the drill and practice programs did not concern authentic communication to a satisfactory degree. According to Underwood, who is a main supporter of this approach, communicative CALL

focuses more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves; teaches grammar implicitly rather than

explicitly; allows and encourages students to generate original utterances rather than just manipulate prefabricated language; does not judge and evaluate everything the students nor reward them with congratulatory messages, lights, or bells; avoids telling students they are wrong and is flexible to a variety of student responses; uses the target language exclusively and creates an environment in which using the target language feels natural, both on and off the screen; and will never try to do anything that a book can do just as well. (Underwood, 1984, p. 52)

Stevens (1989), who criticized behavioristic CALL, noted that all CALL programs and activities should encourage learners' motivation and should promote interaction not only between learner and computer, but also between learners.

Communicative CALL includes several types of programs. First, one of the most frequently used programs is the "computer as tutor" program because the computer knows the right answer (Taylor & Perez, 1989). A lot of programs provide skill practice, but not in a drill format. Examples of these types contain programs for paced reading, text reconstruction, and language games (Healey &

Johnson, 1995). While looking for the answer, learners get involved in activities such as making choices, control, and interaction. Another communicative CALL model is the "computer as stimulus" model (Taylor & Perez, 1989). The main objective of this program is to encourage students' discussion, writing, or critical thinking, not so much to encourage students to find the correct answer. The third model of communicative CALL is the "computer as tool" (Brierley & Kemble, 1991), or, as often called, the computer as workhorse (Taylor & Perez, 1989). This type of program contains work processors, spelling and grammar checkers, desktop publishing programs, and concordances. In this model, the programs allow the learner to use or understand language rather than present language material.

Even though communicative CALL seems like an important improvement compared with behavioristic CALL, many scholars felt that CALL did not maximize its potential (Pusack & Otto, 1990). Dissatisfied with teaching compartmentalized skills (even though they used communicative CALL), educators started thinking of the computer as "a greater contribution to marginal rather than to central elements" of the language teaching process (Kenning & Kenning, 1990, p. 90). This idea encourages

educators to develop models which combine the diverse language learning process (Warschauer, 1996).

Integrative CALL: Multimedia. Warschauer (1996) stated, "integrative approaches to CALL are based on two important technological developments of the last decade-- multimedia computers and the Internet" (p. 4). Learners gain access to various media, such as text, graphics, sound, animation, and video, through multimedia technology known as the CD-ROM. Furthermore, hypermedia make multimedia more effective because it links multimedia resources together, which enables learners to find information simply by clicking a mouse.

Warschauer (1996) noted many advantages of using hypermedia for language learning. First it provides a realistic learning environment because listening and seeing come together on the screen. Second, it combines skills because one activity can bring reading, writing, speaking, and listening together. Thirdly, learners can manage their own learning because they can work at their pace and navigate their own way and go further or skip other features.

Lastly, it assists learners to concentrate on a primary purpose, the content, not spending much time on a secondary purpose, such as language form or learning

strategies. For instance, while listening to the lesson,

students can check various links where they can get access

to grammatical descriptions or quizzes, vocabulary,

pronunciation, exercises, or prompts, which provide them

with a proper learning strategy (Warschauer, 1996).

Integrative CALL: The Internet. According to

Warschauer, Shetzer, and Meloni (2000), "Computer-mediated

communication (CMC) refers to communication that takes

place via networked computers"(p. 2). CMC is possibly the

single most influential computer application for teaching

language (Warschauer, 1996). Through computer-mediated

communication (CMC), "language learners can communicate

directly, inexpensively, and conveniently with other

learners or speakers of the target language 24 hours a

day, from school, work, or home" (Warschauer, 1996, p.6).

The Internet includes many various ways of

communication and information exchange. Warschauer,

Shetzer, and Meloni (2000) categorized these ways as

asynchronous computer-mediated communication, synchronous

computer-mediated communication, and hypertext.

Asynchronous computer-mediated communication refers

to CMC that people use to communicate non-simultaneously

through tools such as electronic mail or web bulletin

boards. This allows people to write messages for others to read at their time and place.

In synchronous computer-mediated communication, people can communicate in real time with others who are on-line at the same time. Synchronous CMC takes several forms: chat rooms, instant messaging, and videoconferencing. This communication makes a simultaneous conversation possible with not only one-to-one communication, but also one-to-many, so a teacher or student can use it within a small group, the whole class, a partner class, or international discussion list of a number of people (Warschauer, Shetzer, & Meloni, 2000).

Computer-mediated communication enables people to exchange not only short messages, but also long documents, graphics, sounds, and video. In a short time, learners can navigate the Internet to find needed resources such as newspaper or journal articles, radio broadcasts, short videos, movie reviews, and book quotations among a lot of files all over the world. Learners can even publish their own texts or multimedia sources on the Web, so that people can access those materials through the Internet (Warschauer, 1996).

The Future of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

According to Warschauer (1996), along with the development of the Internet, information technology plays a significant role in society. In this situation, language teachers might pose the question, "What is the role of the language classroom in the information technology society?" Many language teachers believe that language teaching must help student to get ready to perform well in "the networked society." Concerning the future use of computers in the language classroom, Warschauer (1996) suggested two major areas: "an increased emphasis on electronic literacy, and the increased incorporation of intelligent CALL into the classroom" (p. 17).

Intelligent CALL. Intelligent CALL is "the idea to have software that uses the power of the computer to offer easy interaction with the material to be learned, including meaningful feedback and guidance; comprehensible information in multiple media designed to fit the learning style of individual students; and ways for students to carry communication beyond an individual computer screen" (Warschauer, 1996, p. 18).

Learners need to know how to do more than to use a software program in order to make the best use of the program for their particular intents. A Study shows that

students hardly know how to organize information in a proper framework (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991). Therefore, intelligent software must offer learners both context and data.

For example, in order to make CALL programs more intelligent, the programs must respond to the learner's answer with not only the explanation of the reason why it is right or wrong, but also suggestions for further thought. Most learners also hardly know how to apply proper learning styles to the programs (Healey, 1993). Thus, intelligent CALL programs must help learners to find the way to use the program efficiently.

In his book, On the Edge: Intelligent CALL in the 1990s (1989), Underwood noted advances in artificial intelligence, hypermedia, and simulations to produce new approaches of language teaching with computers. "Natural language processing," which is "the computer's ability to extract something approaching meaning from text or speech," is a significant feature to "the intelligent tutoring systems, the hypermedia rich in helpful navigational aids, and the realistic interactive microworlds "(Warschauer, 1996, p. 18).

Sells, Shieber, and Wasow (1991) suggested four related areas of study which have to be included in

natural language processing: "investigating the psychological processes involved in human language understanding; building computational systems for analyzing natural language input and producing natural language output; developing theories of natural language structure; and determining the mathematical properties of grammar formalisms" (p. 1).

Electronic Literacies. Students who live in an information technology society have to acquire new electronic literacy skills so that they can research and respond to a number of the materials in English on the Internet. According to Warschauer (1996), the following two areas are significant for language teachers to be concerned with.

At first, teachers have to consider "finding, evaluating, and critically interpreting net-based information" (p. 17). Before people become accustomed to using the Internet, people went to the library to search for information and read it at the library or home. However, reading on the Internet encourages people to find and evaluate information at the same time. People even can produce their own texts from their research. Language teachers might need to teach not only how to understand

texts, but also how to interpret and evaluate the huge amount of texts on the Internet.

The second area teachers need to be concerned about is effective online writing. Most online writing has been used to encourage students to practice writing. However, in the networked society, many people use e-mail, Web sites, or multimedia documents with the purpose of not only doing business, but also completing assignments in college.

In response to the new environment, language teachers have to teach students practical online writing skills with "the genres of electronic communication" and "the relationship of texts to other media." In the future, students will want not only to get information from the Web, but also to publish their own Web site by using multimedia sources. Then, teachers might need to teach them how to integrate multimedia such as texts, images, sounds, and video, while not weakening the emphasis on language (Warschauer, 1996).

In sum, as the use of computers becomes commonplace, many people try to integrate computers into language teaching and learning. CALL provides language learners with a variety of language learning experiences. With the help of technology, CALL has been effectively improved to

meet language learners' needs. There are diverse CALL
models: computer as drill and practice, computer as tutor,
computer as stimulus, computer as tool, CD-ROM, and the
Internet. Each model has its own advantages. Therefore,
language teachers need to analyze the effectiveness of
different models and integrate appropriate CALL models to
their teaching.

Technological Literacy for the
Twenty-First Century

What is Technological Literacy for the
Twenty-First Century?

The 1991 National Adult Literacy Act defines literacy
as "an individual's ability to read, write and speak in
English, and compute and solve problems at levels of
proficiency to function on the job in society, to achieve
one's goals and develop one's knowledge and potential"
(Charp, 1996, p. 6). In the twenty-first century, the
computer, the Internet, e-mail, word processing and Web
sites have become invaluable tools for communication
(Evans, 1999). Evans (1999) stated that the new literacy
for the twenty-first century is technological literacy.
Technological literacy is defined as "a personal ability
to adopt, adapt, or invent proper technological tools in

an information society to positively affect his or her life, community, and environment" (Hansen, 2000, p. 31).

Many educators and leaders of society believe that technological literacy is basic, significant, fundamental, and crucial to the success of students in the twenty-first century (Hansen, 2000). Hansen (2000) stated that "technological literacy is essential to human development for the pursuit of our most basic and universal human goals. It is this understanding of the importance of technological literacy that ought to guide us in our curriculum development efforts and in our teaching" (p. 30).

The need of technological literacy is also crucial in the work place in today's society. According to Charp (1996), "literacy goes beyond the basic skills of reading, writing and arithmetic and includes computer and other technology-related skills in the context of the workplace" (p. 6). More than five millions jobs added to the workforce since 1993 require professional, management, or technical skills (Charp, 1996).

As people realize its importance, fostering technological literacy has become a critical issue in a society and education. In 1996, to promote technological literacy, President Clinton provided $2 billion in

matching funds (John, 1996). The American Technology Honor Society (ATHS) also established the mission to assist students to be equipped with technological literacy (American Technology Honor Society for the Advancement of Technology, 1996).

Basic Use of Technology in Modern Classroom

Reading, writing, and arithmetic in the modern sense are updated with technological skills. Now students in a modern society have to know how to use e-mail, word processors, list servers and Web sites in order to read, write, and compute (Evans, 1999).

For instructors looking to incorporate computer technologies, Evans (1999) presented four basic technologies, which can be used in the traditional classroom of college: e-mail, word processing, list serves, and course Websites.

E-mail. E-mail offers "a comfort zone" to students. Some students feel uncomfortable talking with an instructor about their academic deficiencies face to face. Other students may be too shy to talk to the instructor in person. However, e-mail gives students opportunities to approach the instructor via cyberspace. Students have less anxiety to talk to the instructor because of "faceless communication" (Evans, 1999, p. 102).

Furthermore, e-mail can help students to improve basic typing, writing, and communication skills. Students who have a part-time job and cannot reach the instructor during formal office hours can use e-mail to contact the instructor in their free time. Regarding that, e-mail is an efficient way to use time in a fast-paced information age. Thus instructors should integrate e-mail into a course to help student to be prepared for the future (Evans, 1999).

Word Processing. Students have to know basic word processing skills to prepare for the technical workforce. To encourage students to get involved in computerized learning circumstances, teachers should integrate the use of word processing software into the requirements of a traditional class. This requirement of using a standard word processor program helps students to get used to real-world standards of performance such as professional reports and documentation, which are important for information society (Evans, 1999).

List Server. Evans (1999) stated, "the class mailing list is perhaps one of the greatest timesaving devices for faculties and students"(p. 103). For example, the instructor can respond to a frequently asked question (FAQ) once, instead of answering the same question several

times. Then, all students who are signed to the mailing
list can receive the response. This system enhances the
efficiency of instructors by decreasing repeated
responses, and it also enables students to clearly
understand the topic by reading all responses.

For example, in order to establish open communication
for the discussion sites, students in Santa Fe Community
College receive daily mail by Lyris list server as the
mailing list provider (Evans, 1999). The continuous
interaction between the instructor and students can build
a strong bond of open communication and bring out an
active learning experience. Students can ask the
instructor or each other for information, tips, and proper
strategies for problem solving. Even when the instructor
is absent, students can help each other respond to the
questions. Students, especially, can build friendship by
providing each other with considerate messages, which will
be posted to the whole class.

On the Internet, people generally use electronic
mailing lists, discussion groups, and special interest
groups. Also many educational organizations commonly use
list serves to deliver announcements and important
information. The instructor should integrate a mailing

list into a classroom as a technology requirement in a typical college class (Evans, 1999).

Course Websites. According to Evans (1999), the instructor can create an educational Web site for a course, which contains course syllabi, assignments, announcements, exercise and exams for practice, frequently asked questions, and links to other related Web sites. Students can approach necessary information whenever they want using access to the Internet. Students can read information they want online or print it out for review while the instructor does not need to distribute a lot of copies of handouts. Lately, the instructor can use word processor packages such as Corel WordPerfect and Microsoft Word, which have tools to make Web pages easily. The instructor also can use File Transfer Protocol (FTP) to link files to college Web space.

Along with the development of computer technology, many students and teachers often use e-mail, word processing, list serves, and course Websites. These technologies have become useful tools of communication in the classroom. Language teachers need to realize the importance and advantages of using these technologies, and integrate them into the classroom to make an effective language learning environment.

The Importance of Information Technology

For the last twenty years, information technology has grown exponentially (Plowman, 1997). According to Plowman (2000), the power of current technology is doubling faster than every eighteen to twenty four months. The fast growth of technology results in abundant information.

Because of the complex contemporary environment, people have various, plentiful information choices in their academic studies, in the workplace, and in their personal lives (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2001). People can get information through libraries, community resources, special interest organizations, media, multimedia, and the Internet. With this huge amount of information, people need to understand and evaluate it carefully to differentiate between quality information and useless information (Association of College and Research Libraries, 2001).

According to the Association of College and Research Libraries (2001), information technology emphasizes the use of technology as well as information searching and evaluation. Information technology skills help people to use technologies, such as computers, software applications, and databases, in order to complete various academic, work-related, and personal goals.

As the world gradually proceeds from the industrial era to the information era, international economic development depends less on the factor of labor or capital and more on the capability to deal with information such as exchanging and interpreting information (Castells, 1993, 1996). In order to survive and to be successful in this society, people should be able to read, write, and communicate effectively over the Internet (Waschauer & Healey, 1998).

Modern people in rapid-paced societies should see the importance of information technology for language use and learning (Warschauer, 2000). According to Harnad (1991), along with the prior three revolutions (language, writing, and print), information technology is becoming the fourth revolution in human communication and cognition. Like the Gutenberg revolution 500 years ago, information technology will significantly influence the way people exchange, approach information, and share information. Especially because informational technology is growing simultaneously with informationalism and globalization, the impact of information technology will appear far more quickly on literacy and communication practices (Warschauer, 2000).

In sum, the importance of informational technology has increased in education and the workplace. Information

technology has become a powerful tool, crucial to survival in the twenty-first century. Therefore, English educators need to apply this tool to help students to become literate in an information-based society.

Changing Language and Literacy Skills

Warschauer (2000) suggested some of the new language and literacy skills that are necessary in informational technology. He divided those skills into the categories of reading/research and writing/authoring.

Reading/Research. The dominant way of reading is changing from the page to the screen (Reinking, McKenna, Labbo, & Kieffer, 1988; Snyder, 1998), particularly among young people for whom the use of computers has become a part of their lives (Tapscott, 1998). Information is decoded on a screen at the click of a mouse, which affects not only psycholinguistic processes, but also the way instructors teach reading skills such as skimming, scanning, and guessing words from context (Anderson-Inman & Horney, 1998; McKenna, 1998). English language teachers should also consider new text styles which integrate graphics, images, and audiovisual content to deliver a message (Bolter, 1998; Kress, 1998; Lemke, 1998).

Reading is not only a simple psycholinguistic act of interpreting letter and words, but also a social practice

which occurs in specific sociocultural context (de Castell
& Luke, 1986; Gee, 1996). Furthermore, thinking about the
cost of paper and publishing, reading from the screen
affects the new socioeconomic situation. This shift also
encourages readers to read more consciously to build
knowledge from a lot of sources (Bolter, 1991; Landow,
1992).

The following skills are central to the ability to
read from the screen:

finding the information to read in the first place

(e.g., through Internet searches); rapidly evaluating

the source, credibility, and timeliness of

information once it has been located; rapidly making

navigational decisions as to whether to read the

current page of information, pursue links internal or

external to the page, or revert to further searching;

making on-the-spot decisions about ways to save or

catalogue part of the information on the page or the

complete page; organizing and keeping track of

electronic information that has been saved.

(Warschauer, 2000, p. 521-522)

More people will learn basic English skills because
of the high demand of English as a international language
for the twenty-first century. Recently, in many European

countries, secondary students are encouraged not only to decode English but also to use English for the purpose of complicated global communication (Warschauer, 2000). Along with these skills, critical, active, and interpretive reading is important as well. Especially, because of vast information on the Internet and its "hypertextual organization," the nature of reading has changed and critical reading skills become more important (Warschauer, 2000).

Writing/Authoring. In writing, similar shifts are happening and will continue to happen (Bolter, 1996; Faigley, 1997). For the most part, writing has received less attention in English language classes compared to reading and it is often viewed as grammar correction of sentences on paper (see the discussion in Raimes, 1991). Before the information revolution of the 1970s, this function was enough for the needs of most learners. However, recently, the need for effective written communication has become very significant, along with the rising importance of the information and the expanded use of computer and the Internet (e.f., American Management Association International, 1998).

New types of writing/authoring skills that are required include the following:

integrating texts, graphics, and audiovisual material

into a multimedia presentation; writing effectively

in hypertext genres; using internal and external

links to communicate a message will; writing for a

particular audience when the audience is unknown

readers on the World Wide Web; using effective

pragmatic strategies in various circumstances of

computer-mediated communication (Warschauer, 2000, p.

523)

New types of writing on the Internet are important

for people to communicate clearly with other people from

different countries. Warschauer (1999) explained the

significance of writing by describing a case from previous

research conducted in China, which included an ESL writing

course. A graduate student from China, Zhong, was taking

the course. Researchers argued about who would have the

authorship for the research data, which they had obtained

while working collaboratively. When his Swedish colleagues

tried to take control of the data under their authorship,

Zhong strove to write e-mail to them to object to their

plan. However, his first draft of e-mail was not suitable

and did not deliver his message. Zhong worked on the

e-mail message with a teacher of the course. After

finishing two more drafts of e-mail, he finally could

convey his message. When he sent them the e-mail, the problem was solved in a pleasant manner (Warschauer, 2000).

People living in an information-based society find an abundance of material on the Internet. It has changed the way people read and write. In reading, people need to decode the text as well as to develop skills for reading, evaluating, and organizing a huge amount of information. People also need to write correctly and effectively by using text, hyperlink, graphics, and audiovisual material. English teachers need to help students to develop effective literacy skills considering the shift of reading and writing.

In sum, technological literacy is an important ability for young people in the twenty-first century. Teachers need to encourage students to acquire technological literacy by developing computer skills that enable them to gather information, send, receive, analyze, and evaluate information.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A Model for Project-Based
Instruction

A Description of the Model

The five key concepts presented in the previous chapter, project-based learning (PBL), English for specific purposes (ESP), cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and technological literacy, can be interrelated to form a theoretical framework that applies to this curriculum project. The first concept, project-based learning, has three fundamental phases: selecting a topic, making plans and doing research, and sharing results with others. These phases, in turn, can be linked to three different types of course design (learning-centered, skills-centered, and language-centered course design). Aspects of cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy also align with these PBL phases (see Figure 1).

Figure 1. A Model of Project-Based Learning

| Project-based learning | Aspects of... | | |
	Cooperative learning	Computer-assisted language learning & Technological literacy	English for specific purposes
Selecting a topic	Positive interdependence	The Internet	Learning-centered course design (Motivate learning)
Making plans and doing research	Individual and group accountability	The Internet E-mail Word processing	Skills-centered course design (Reading, writing, and telephoning)
Sharing results with others	Evaluation of presentation (peer & teacher)	Power Point presentation	Language-centered course design (Presentation)

Using Project-Based Learning to Create a Company

Project-based learning is an instructional approach to English language teaching in which students generate a final project. Creating a Company is introduced as a group project in this curriculum design. Teaching English with project-based learning provides students with meaningful learning experiences because it encourages students to be active in their learning.

There are three main phases in a project: selecting a topic, making plans and doing research, and sharing results with others. In each phase of project-based

learning, students are actively involved in the process of learning. They decide the subject matter, research information, receive knowledge, and present and exchange their ideas. As students complete their projects, they can understand and learn concepts and solutions through investigation and discussion. Students will learn not only how to create a company but also how to interact with others. Project-based learning is beneficial for language learners because they can learn language through content and skills. "Learner involvement in authentic social interaction in the target language with a knowledgeable source facilitates language acquisition" (Sivert & Egbert, 1995, p. 55).

English for Specific Purposes

English for specific purposes is a systemic approach to language teaching in which teachers determine content and design courses based on the learners' needs. The content of Creating a Company is based on authentic English used in the real business world. As they design curriculum for English for specific purposes, teachers analyze the target situation, figure what kind of skills learners need to know, and apply these to the course design. This curriculum, Creating a Company, will be useful for students and teachers who are looking for good

examples of course design based on authentic business English.

This curriculum introduces three different types of course design: learning-centered course design, skills-centered course design, and language-centered course design. Each course design corresponds to a particular phase of project-based learning. Learning-centered course design encourages students to be motivated to learn. Therefore, in this design students can design their own companies and find the connection between their projects and real life. In skills-centered course design, teachers analyze skills and strategies required dealing with target situation. In this design, students practice needed skills such as reading, writing, and telephoning to complete their projects. In language-centered course design, students make a presentation to share the results of their projects with other students in the classroom.

Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is an instructional structure in which students are divided into groups to complete activities. Cooperative learning plays a crucial role in the group project, Creating a Company. Students will learn information through interaction with members in a group,

which motivates individual learning as well as others'
learning. Eventually, cooperative learning will result in
a positive effect on students' academic achievement and
social development. Moreover, cooperative learning is
beneficial for language learners because it provides
learners with more opportunities to practice English in a
low-anxiety environment, which is crucial for language
learning.

For successful group work, these four elements are
necessary: positive interdependence, individual
accountability, group accountability, and evaluation.
While working on a project, students learn to decide the
topic together, assign individuals' responsibilities, work
together through discussion and collaboration, and analyze
the efficiency of their work. Moreover, through the
interaction between members, students have more
opportunities to practice listening, speaking, reading,
and writing.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Technological Literacy

Computer-assisted language learning refers to the use
of computers to assist language teaching. Technological
literacy is an individual's ability to use technology to
reach one's information-acquisition goals. Because those

two key concepts have a lot in common with respect to the use of computers, they are considered as one category in this curriculum design.

Computer-assisted language learning and technological literacy play a significant role in the group project, Creating a Company. To complete a project, four basic technologies will be used, which are follows: the Internet, e-mail, word processing, and Power Point. The Internet provides students with enormous information. When researching information for a group project, students can easily find authentic material through the Internet. E-mail is a useful tool for communication in a group project. Students will use e-mail for exchanging information with group members and submitting their work to the instructor. Using e-mail in a project not only helps students to improve their typing, writing, and communication skills, but also saves time and paper. Throughout the whole project, students will use word processing for writing so that they will get familiar with the standard word processor programs. When students share their results with the class, they will use Power Point as a tool for presentation.

CHAPTER FOUR

CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Rationale for the Design

Based on the theoretical framework model presented in Chapter Three, a unit plan is designed to help students to learn business English through the group project, Creating a Company. The unit of instruction consists of six lesson plans, which are designed to complete the group project. The unit integrates five key concepts into lessons: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy.

The unit is intended for two-year college students who want to develop English skills for their professional performance in business. In addition, the unit plan is designed for English learners who desire to learn English in the content of business, to use technology as a class tool, and to enhance their social development through cooperation. In this unit, the role of teacher is that of a facilitator. The teacher in this curriculum gives fundamental information and direction, encourages students to get involved in activities, and provides help whenever students need it.

Each lesson of the unit has several components drawn from the theoretical model: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy (see Figure 2). Each lesson features several focus sheets, work sheets, or assessment sheets. Focus sheets present information that students are supposed to learn in a lesson and guide or offer examples that help students to do worksheet activities later. In order to motivate students' learning, all lessons consist of different focus sheets, which provide authentic sources from the Web. Students can visit the Web sites listed on the focus sheet for more information. The goal of the work sheet is to complete the objectives of each task chain of a lesson. Teachers can check students' knowledge through the worksheets because students do worksheets based on their understanding of the previous focus sheet. Worksheets involve various group activities, researching, writing, and presenting in the process of completing a project. Assessment sheets present criteria to evaluate the understanding and skills that students need to acquire through each lesson.

Figure 2. Content of the Lesson Plans

Lesson	Task Chain	Key Word Components
A	1	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning
	2	1. Cooperative learning 2. Computer-assisted language learning 3. Technological literacy
B	1 & 2	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning 4. Computer assisted language learning 5. Technological literacy
C	1 & 2	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning 4. Computer assisted language learning 5. Technological literacy
D	1 & 2	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning 4. Computer assisted language learning 5. Technological literacy
E	1 & 2	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning 4. Computer assisted language learning 5. Technological literacy
F	1	1. English for specific purposes 2. Cooperative learning 3. Computer assisted language learning 4. Technological literacy
	2	1. Project-based learning 2. English for specific purposes 3. Cooperative learning

Content of the Lesson Plans

This unit features a group project that includes research, writing, presenting, and evaluating, and involves considerable small group collaborative learning. Working with a group of four to five people, students will form a Business Proposal Group to develop a formal proposal to improve the quality of business in a targeted market. Students spend most of their time in class at a computer lab, with access to the Internet and word processors. Students' project will culminate in the last class of the unit, when groups make a formal 15-20 minute presentation of their proposal in class, followed by audience questions and reactions.

The unit lesson sequence is designed to complete a project, with lessons as follows: Industry Evaluation and Company Purpose, Mission Statements and a Business Plan, Marketing, Advertising Strategy, Writing Business Letter and Telephoning, and Presentation.

The unit begins with the introduction of the project. Lesson A incorporates the following components from the theoretical model: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. In the lesson, students form groups according to

their interests and each group decides what kind of company they are going to create for a project. After deciding on a company, students in each group track the health of the industry they choose through the Internet. Students send the results to the teacher by e-mail and keep a copy for their folder. Lesson A uses learning-centered design that encourages students' motivation. By selecting a topic together with members of a group, students will develop positive interdependence. In this lesson, students learn to work cooperatively, to analyze the data or statistics, to gather information, and to evaluate it. Students also get used to use the Internet for research and E-mail for the communication.

In the next lesson, students learn the basic knowledge which is needed to establish the company. Lesson B also incorporates five components from the theoretical model: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. Students learn and practice how to write mission statements and a business plan for their own company. Students receive various examples of mission statements and a business plan from focus sheets. Students can obtain more information from the Websites listed on the focus sheets. Then students

complete a worksheet with members of a group to write their own mission statement and a business plan based on the focus sheets, using the word processor to write. Each group sends the results to the teacher by e-mail and keeps a copy for their notebooks. Lesson B features a skills-centered design in which students practice reading and writing of business English. Through working with a group, students realize the importance of cooperation and individual accountability. In this lesson, students use technology such as word processors, the Internet, and E-mail to complete their assignments.

In Lesson C, students learn the basic theory of marketing and marketing strategies. Marketing is one of the important elements in the business world. Lesson C incorporates five of the key concepts in Chapter Two: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. In the first task chain, students study the simplified theory of marketing with focus sheets. For further information, students can visit the Web sites listed on the focus sheets. Then, students apply the basic marketing theory to their own company and discuss and develop their own marketing strategies on work sheets with a group. When they finish, each group sends

the teacher the results by e-mail and keeps a copy for their folder. Through the lesson, students work cooperatively, learn theory related to business in English, apply theory into their own business, and write by using a word processor, and use e-mail to communicate with others. This takes place using a skills-centered design.

In the next lesson, students learn about advertising in the process of creating a company. Lesson D integrates five components in the previous chapter: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. In the first task chain, students build up their basic knowledge of advertisement. As students complete a work sheet, they analyze the necessary criteria in advertising. In the second task chain, students in a group develop a more specific plan for advertisement for their own company. Students can search more materials by means of the Internet. When students complete their advertising campaign, they send it to the instructor by e-mail and keep a copy for their notebooks. In Lesson D, students cooperate with members of a group to analyze and evaluate the criteria of advertisement and to make decisions. They also practice writing and using

technology for communication. This is also skills-centered.

Lesson E uses skills-centered design in which students practice business letter writing and business telephoning. This lesson has five concepts from the theoretical framework model: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. In the first task chain, students learn how to write business letters. Students distinguish between the informal letter and business letter using focus sheets as they learn useful expressions. Then, they practice business letter writing related to their company on work sheets. Students use a word processor and work together with members of a group. They send several examples to the teacher by e-mail and keep a copy for their notebooks. In the second task chain, students learn useful expressions for business telephoning on idiom cards and practice those expressions with a partner. Then, students play a game to practice the expressions they studied. Again, this incorporates a skills-centered approach.

The last lesson is sharing the results with others by doing presentations which are evaluated. Lesson F integrates five key components from the theoretical

90

framework model: English for specific purposes, project-based learning, cooperative learning, computer-assisted language learning, and technological literacy. Each group does a presentation as a proposal for the improvement of their company in a market. Students evaluate other groups' presentations. Each group uses Power Point as a technology to make their presentation professional. After each group's presentation, students have time for questions and answers about the group's project. For the last activity, students do the group member evaluation. This last activity is language-centered.

Thus, following the model in Chapter Three, the unit synthesizes a set of key concepts into a six-lesson sequence that integrates a variety of course design approaches into a communicative, collaborative example of project-based learning. This demonstrates an exemplary use of English for specific purposes.

CHAPTER FIVE

ASSESSMENT OF INSTRUCTION

The assessment of students' performance is divided into two categories: group and individual (See Appendix A). For group grades, assessment consists of three parts: writing by e-mail, notebook, and presentation. As a part of individual grades, there are checklist (participation) and group member evaluations. Each evaluation component has its own criteria for grading. Based on those criteria, the teacher evaluates students' ability to write business English, work cooperatively, complete a project, and use technology as a tool of communication.

Each group has writing assignments for each task chain of lessons. Students use a word processor to complete assignments and sent them to the teacher by e-mail. The teacher assesses students' business English writing skills based on stated criteria (See Appendix A).

Notebooks are the major components of the group's assessment. Students will submit notebooks in the last class as documentation of their project. Notebooks include two sections. Section One is a collection of all work sheets. Section Two includes members' names, roles or assignment of each member, minutes of meetings, an

attendance record, a list of Web sites or references they used for notebooks, and so on. The teacher assesses the content, organization, and format of notebooks and cooperation of a group based on criteria (see Appendix A).

The last group assignment is the oral presentation in Lesson Six. The teacher evaluates content and organization, language fluency, the use of technology, and delivery of each group's presentation based on criteria (see Appendix A). Students evaluate other groups' presentations with peer evaluation form (See Appendix A) and give the presenting group feedback.

For individual grades, there are two components: checklist for participation (See Appendix A) and group member evaluation (See Appendix A). The teacher grades individual student's participation by using a checklist in class. In the last lesson, students evaluate their group members with the evaluation form. This encourages students to achieve individual accountability and reduces the problems of "free riders".

In general, each group will receive a general grade for all members. However, in order to encourage individual accountability in a group, if there are strong indications that some members have worked particularly well on behalf of the group (based on individual records and group input)

then that person will receive a higher grade. If there is anyone who has not significantly contributed to the group (based on individual records and group member evaluations) then that person's grade will be reduced.

In sum, the assessment of the six lessons is designed to evaluate many aspects of students' learning. It evaluates the results of the project students have worked as a group, the ability to use English for specific situations, cooperation and accountability, and technological skills. In order to assess those elements accurately, the unit has different categories of assessments and each assessment has a variety of criteria. This evaluates group work as well as individual.

In summary, the project-based learning lesson plans for this project have been developed from various perspectives. In Chapter One, Introduction, the background of the project was revealed. In Chapter Two, Review of Literature, theories of five key concepts were discussed. In Chapter Three, Theoretical Framework, based on interrelationship between theories presented in Chapter Two, a theoretical model was formed to apply to this curriculum project. In Chapter Four, Curriculum Design, the contents of the six lessons in the unit were explained in detail, and the teaching approach linked directly to a

theoretical model. Lastly, in Chapter Five, Assessment of Instruction, a variety of assessments for the unit were introduced. The Project-Based Learning unit of instruction is presented in Appendix B: Project-Based Learning Unit Plan. This unit will be beneficial for EFL/ESL learners and others who want to study English in the content of business and develop cooperation and technological skills.

APPENDIX A

TEACHER ASSESSMENTS

Students' Performance Score Sheet

Student Name: _____

Grade: 90-100%: A   80-89%: B   70-79%: C   60-69%: D   Below 59%: F

		Unit One					
		A	B	C	D	E	F
Group	Writing (by E-mail) (15%)						
	Notebook (40%)						
	Presentation (20%)						
Individual	Checklist (Participation) (15%)						
	Group Member Evaluation (10%)						
Total Grade							

General Comments:

Final Course Grade: _____

Criteria for Grading Written Assignments

Group Name: _____

Student Names:_____

Grade: 90-100%: A   80-89%: B   70-79%: C   60-69%: D   Below 59%: F

---

1. Sophistication of Analysis (25%)
The author follows the instructor's guidelines for the paper.   _____

2. Organization and Logical Development (25%)
The paper shows evidence of prior planning.   _____

3. Clarity of Expression (25%)
Words are chosen carefully and sentences are well constructed.   _____

4. Grammar, Punctuation, Spelling (25%)
The papers are characterized by consistently correct grammar,
punctuation, and spelling.   _____

General Comments:

Total Score: _____

Criteria for Grading Notebooks

Group Name: _____

Student Names: _____

Grade: 90-100%: A   80-89%: B   70-79%: C   60-69%: D   Below 59%: F

Section 1: The components of notebooks: Section 1 (40%)   _____

Section 1: All work sheets (mission statements, business plan, marketing, advertisement, inventories, business letters, etc.)

Section 2: The components of notebooks: Section 2 (40%)   _____

Section 2: a list of members; roles and assignment for each member; minutes of all meetings and proceedings; an attendance record, a list of all Web sites that students consulted for information; a bibliographic entry of all newspaper, books, articles, etc.

Section 3: Format (20%)   _____
Appearance is professional and word-processed.

General Comments:

Total Score: _____

Oral Presentation Evaluation Checklist

Group Name: _____

Student Names: _____

Grade: 90-100%: A   80-89%: B   70-79%: C   60-69%: D   Below 59%: F

1. Content and Organization (40%)   _____

The introduction "set up" the presentation with a preview of points.

The main points were well developed and supported with facts and examples.

Visual aids such as computer slides and overheads were used effectively.

The conclusion summarized the presentation effectively.

2. Language Fluency (40%)   _____

Pronunciation

Grammar

Vocabulary

Comprehensibility

Overall fluency

3. Delivery: Vocal and Physical Aspects (20%)   _____

The language and tone were conversational.

The delivery was free of vocalized pauses (such as "you know," "uh," or "I mean").

Eye contact was maintained with audience.

The speakers' appearance was confident and professional.

Hand gestures and physical movement were used appropriately.

General Comments:

Total Score: _____

Peer Evaluation Form (Presentation)

The presenting group's name: _____ Date: _____

Topic: _____

1. Clarity of topic: Vague ⟵ 1   2   3   4   5 ⟶ Clear

2. Organization: So-So ⟵ 1   2   3   4   5 ⟶ Great

3. Content appropriate: Yes _____   No _____

4. Handout useful: Yes _____   No _____

5. Pace of presentation: Too slow ⟵ 1   2   3   4   5 ⟶ Too fast

6. Presentation graphics: So-So ⟵ 1   2   3   4   5 ⟶ Great

7. Suggestion/Comments

Criteria for Grading Checklist (Participation)

Student Name: _____

Grade: 90-100%: A   80-89%: B   70-79%: C   60-69%: D   Below 59%: F

---

1. Speaking (20%)
Communicates competently in social and classroom settings.   _____

2. Fluency (20%)
Speaks fluently.   _____

3. Structure (20%)
Uses a variety of grammatical structures.   _____

4. Vocabulary (20%)
Uses appropriate vocabulary.   _____

5. Listening (20%)
Understands classroom discussion without difficulty.   _____

General Comments:

Total Score: _____

Group Member Evaluation

Group Name: _____

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so- so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so- so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so- so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so- so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so- so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so- so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so- so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so- so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so- so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so- so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so- so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so- so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so- so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so- so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so- so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so- so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so- so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so- so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so- so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so- so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so- so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so- so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so- so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so- so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so- so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so- so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so- so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so- so	no

APPENDIX B

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING UNIT PLAN

Unit Overview

Unit: Creating a Company

Overview:

This is a group project that includes research, writing, presenting, and evaluating, and involves considerable small group collaborative learning. Working with a group of 4-5 people, students will form a Business Proposal Group to develop a formal proposal to improve the quality of business in a targeted market. The projects will culminate in the last class of the unit, when each group makes a formal 15-20 minute presentation of their proposal in class, followed by audience questions and reactions. For most of this project, students will have class in a computer lab with access to the Internet and word processors.

Contents:

Instructional Plan A: Industry Evaluation and Company Purpose

Instructional Plan B: Mission Statements and a Business Plan

Instructional Plan C: Marketing

Instructional Plan D: Advertising Strategy

Instructional Plan E: Writing Business Letter and Telephoning

Instructional Plan F: Presentation

Instructional Plan A

Industry Evaluation and Company Purpose

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives:
1. To be able to decide the company to create
2. To be able to read statistics and track the health of the industry

Warm up: The instructor distributes various brand marks (Focus Sheet A-1) to students and asks students which company they like, what parts of the company are attractive, and if they have any ideas for a company they want to establish.

Task Chain 1: *Deciding the Company to Create*
1. The instructor asks students about something in which they have an interest, or a special product they have in mind for their own company. When students give ideas the instructor writes them on the white board and asks the students if any others have the same interest.
2. The instructor assigns students to small groups depending on their interests and has them create a company. Students can select a popular product from their country which does not exist in the U.S. and market it in the U.S.
3. The instructor distributes to students guidelines for the unit, creating a company (Focus Sheet A-2). The instructor goes over the focus sheet with students and answers the questions students may ask about the guidelines.
4. Each group decides the name for their group and discusses the company they will create. Each group sends the names of the group and members and the short explanation of their company to the instructor by e-mail.

Task Chain 2: *Tracking the Health of the Industry*
1. The instructor hands out Web sites (Focus Sheet A-3) to groups. The instructor gives a simple direction how to find the information they need with the Web sites on the paper.
2. Each group visits the Web sites on the focus sheet and gathers statistics or information to track the health of the industry, keeping a copy for the notebook.

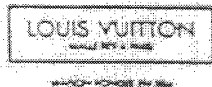Final Assessment: *Checking Students' Comprehension and Group Functioning*

1. The instructor checks students' comprehension and group functioning using Figure 5: Checklist (Participation).

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Focus Sheet A-1

Global Brands

Focus Sheet A-2

Guidelines for Creating a Company

The Proposal: Creating a Company

Overview

This is a group project that includes research, writing, presenting, and evaluating, and involves considerable small-group collaborative learning. Working with a group of 4-5 people, you will form a Business Proposal Group to develop a formal proposal to improve the quality of business in a targeted marketing. Your project will culminate in the last class of the unit when your group makes a formal 15-20 minute presentation of your proposal in class, followed by audience questions and reactions.

The Major Components of this Group Assignment

1. to conduct research and define the needs of a targeted company
2. to submit a group notebook that contains:
   1) your group's final proposal
   2) evidence of both group and individual effort
3. to give a formal presentation of the plan in class

Due Dates

Group notebooks are due in the last class of the unit. Presentation shall take place on the last class of the unit.

Requirements

1. You will meet outside of class as needed.
2. Document your group's proceedings and information gathered. Please note that all notebook contents are public records. The presence of these records in the notebook indicates that the group has read and approved these entries. The work of each person will contribute to the whole.
3. Research your targeted company so that you understand (to the extent possible in a short amount of time), the demographic trends, economical needs and strengths, economic base, cultural make-up, socio-economic distributions.
4. Create a company specifically for your targeted market. Include a written description and physical representation including a mission statement and philosophy statement.
5. Present your final proposal on the last class of the unit. Your presentation is designed both to inform and to persuade the Board and class participants of the feasibility and appropriateness of your proposed company.

Guidelines for Creating a Company

Assessment (Grading)

In general, your group will receive grades for all members. However, if there are strong indications that some members have worked particularly well on behalf of the group (based on individual records and group input) then that person will receive a higher grade. If there is anyone who has not significantly contributed to the group (based on individual records and group member evaluations) then that person's grade will be reduced. The small parts of the grades are received from participation (checklist) in class.

Group grades: Writing by e-mail: 15%, Notebook: 40%, Presentation: 20%
Personal grades: Participation: 15%, Group member evaluation: 10%

The Components of Notebooks

Section 1: All work sheets (mission statements, business plan, marketing, advertisement, inventories, business letters, and etc.)

Section 2: A list of members; roles, and assignment for each member; minutes of all meetings and proceedings; an attendance record; a list of all web sites that you consulted for information; a bibliographic entry of all newspaper, books, articles, etc

Each person is responsible for a copy of the whole project.

Presentation

Each group needs to includes handouts for all class members and at least one of the following:

1. Overhead transparencies
2. Computer-assisted presentations like PowerPoint
3. The homepage for the company

Focus Sheet A-3

Tracking the Health of the Industry

Here are some sites that will be helpful for tracking the health or the industry or type of business you decide to create to help you decide which individuals, and geographical territory you will target.

Dismal Scientist: Packed with statistics! Economic profiles on any zip code in the U.S., Daily updated economic indicators, interesting articles on current trends.
http://www.dismal.com/

U.S. Census Bureau: For statistics on American people, businesses, and geography. This site leads slowly.
http://www.dismal.com/

Instructional Plan B

Mission Statements and a Business Plan

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives: 1. To write mission statement
                2. To develop a business plan

Warm up: The instructor asks students the following questions:
                1. Have you heard about mission statements or business plans?
                2. What are they?

Task Chain 1: *Writing Mission Statements*

1. The instructor distributes various mission statements (Focus Sheet B-1). Students work in a group. Students take a look at the examples in Focus Sheet B-1 and compare them to see the differences of mission statements among different companies.
2. Each group receives Work Sheet B-1. Groups make mission statements for their company by using word processing. Each group sends it to the instructor by e-mail and keeps a copy for their notebooks.
3. The instructor walks around groups to help them and answer their questions.

Task Chain 2: *Developing a Business Plan*

1. The instructor hands out Work Sheet B-2 to groups. The instructor gives the directions for Work Sheet B-2. Each group visits the web sites to get more information as necessary as they work on Work Sheet B-2.
2. The instructor hands out Focus Sheet B-2 for an example of a business plan. Each group reads Focus Sheet B-2. The instructor hands out Work Sheet B-3 and each group starts writing its own business plan.
3. Each group finishes Work Sheets B-2 and B-3 using a word processor, sends it to the instructor, and keeps a copy for their notebooks. If groups cannot finish in class they can send it to the instructor before the next class.

Final Assessment: *Checking Students' Comprehension and Group Functioning*

1. The instructor checks students' comprehension and group functioning using Figure 5: Checklist (Participation).
2. The instructor assesses e-mails about mission statements and a business plan (Work Sheet B-1, 2) from groups and corrects them and replies. Students keep a copy for their notebooks.

112

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Various Mission Statements

Boots Mission Statement

Boots The Chemists:

Our vision is to be the world's leading retailer of products and services that help make our customers look good and feel good.

Boots Opticians:

Our vision is to be the world's best provider of eye care and eye wear.

Boots Healthcare International:

Boots Healthcare International's mission is to maximize the value of The Boots Company's participation in the global self-medication market by being a leading developer and marketer of innovative products and differentiated consumer healthcare brands.

Halford Pledge:

- We will always put our customers first.
- We will know our parts and products.
- We will keep our store looking great.
- We will have the best merchandise at the right place.

Garage Pledge:

- We will always put customers first.
- We will perform "right first time" repairs.
- We will keep our garage looking great.
- We will deliver the best service at the right price.

Boots Contract Manufacturing:

Our purpose is to maximize the operating value of Boots Contract Manufacturing. We will achieve this by developing and manufacturing products primarily in cosmetics, toiletries and healthcare sectors which meet our customers' needs and expectations and by growing profitability in our market share.

Boots Properties:

Boots Properties vision is to be the leader amongst corporate property organizations, by helping enable the creation of maximum operating value from Group businesses, and by delivering the highest possible long-run returns from our portfolio.

We will have a reputation for skill and expertise, enabling us to attract and retain the highest quality value-focused professionals.

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/compfact/boots/boots13.htm

Focus Sheet B-1 (con't)

Various Mission Statements

McDonald's Mission Statement

To be the family restaurant that people enjoy more. This will be achieved through five strategies: Development, Our People, Restaurant Excellence, Operating Structure, and The Brand.

- *Development:* Lead the Quick Service Restaurant market by a program of site development and profitable restaurant openings.
- *Our People:* Achieve a competitive advantage through people who are high caliber, effective, well motivated and feel part of the McDonald's team in delivering the company's goals.
- *Restaurant Excellence:* Focus on consistent delivery of quality, service and cleanliness through excellence in our restaurants.
- *Operating Structure:* Optimize restaurant performance through the selection of the most appropriate operating, management and ownership structures.

The Brand: Continue to build the relationship between McDonald's and our customers in order to be a genuine part of the fabric of British society.

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/compfact/mcdonals/mc12.htm

Work Sheet B-1

Making Mission Statement for the Company

Directions:

Create proper statements and objectives for your company by using models on Focus Sheets B-1.

Mission statement:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Work Sheet B-2

Developing a Business Plan

Directions: Each group makes a business plan. You can directly go to the Web site to get more information (http://www.bized.ac.uk/stafsup/options/thebplan.htm).

Step 1 - Planning ahead

No matter how big or small a business organization, some sort of plan is vital. Planning ahead is essential if you are to establish a successful enterprise. You need to set business objectives such as profits and growth and then gather information from market research. You need to analyze your information and set an action plan. Financial planning is a core component of a new business.

Look at the Barclays site - the Small Business Banking section.

Follow the links to look at "Starting up" and "Business Planning"

What are the main areas a business plan should cover?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Step 2 - Have you got what it takes?

Go to the Have you got what it takes? (http://channel14.com/readeal/) section on the Channel "Real Deal" site. Have you got what it takes?

Answer the questions as truthfully as possible.

Write a summary of your results from the quiz.

_____

_____

_____

_____

117

Work Sheet B-2 (con't)

Developing a Business Plan

Step 3 - Whom can you turn to?

Look in the advice section of the Barclays web site and answer the questions below.
You may also want to try looking at some of the links they suggest to help answer:
What are the main places a business can go for advice?
(http://www.business.barclays.co.uk./misc/index.htm)

_____

_____

_____

Step 4 - What sort of business are you?

A business plan should include details of the legal status of the business. Use the
Barclays web site "business status" section.
Write a brief account of each type of business given below:
1) Sole Trader

_____

_____

2) Partnership

_____

_____

3) Private Limited Company

_____

_____

4) Franchise

_____

_____

Source: http://www.bised.ac.uk/stafsup/options/thebplan.htm

Work Sheet B-2 (con't)

Developing a Business Plan

Step 5 - "Show me the money"

Particular attention will need to be paid to the sources of finance. Use the <u>Shatter the Illusion section</u> of the Real Deal site to find out the various sources of finance available for your business idea. (http://www.chanel14.com/realdeal/). Summarize each of them below:

_____

_____

_____

_____

Source: http://www.bised.ac.uk/stafsup/options/thebplan.htm

An Example of a Business Plan

HALLS FOODS

Steve Hall has been working in catering for a number of years and has seen the gap in the market for delivered gourmet meals. His kitchen is to be based in Romsey Hampshire and he will deliver to the local market. In the first year he will employ two catering assistants and a delivery driver. He will assist with the catering as well as the administration of the business. There is no competition in the immediate area. Steve is **renting** the property at an annual cost of **£11,400**, the **Uniform Business Rate** is **£600** annually. He is using cost plus pricing and does not have any competitors in his local area. He anticipates sales of **25** meals a day for the first 3 months, **30** meals a day for the next three months, **35** meals a day for the following four months, a slack month in November selling **25** meals and then **50** meals a day during a busy December. He is promoting the business locally using the local newspaper, radio and flyers. His yearly **advertising** cost is **£2004** (Newspaper £504, Radio £1000, Flyers £500) and he pays this monthly.

His annual indirect costs are:

Salaries £48 000

Light, Heat £600

Power £204

Insurance £600

Transport and packaging £600

Maintenance £408

Telephone £240

Postage and Stationery £240

He spreads these costs over the year using budget payments and so for the cash flow forecast divides each item by 12. His start up costs is £40 000 for capital items and other equipment. He is making a personal contribution of £10 000 and has obtained a loan from the bank for £30 000 over 5 years at 10% interest, payable monthly. He intends to charge an average of £20/meal based on cost plus pricing and the raw material purchase cost per meal is £10.He does not allow credit and his main suppliers, S. Ella foods require immediate payment also. In the second year of trading he is hoping to expand into function catering and lunchtime sandwich delivery.

Using the Real Deal Business Plan construct the Business Plan for Halls Foods.

Source: http://www.bised.ac.uk/stafsup/options/thebplan.htm

Work Sheet B-3

Making a Business Plan

Direction: Based on Work Sheet B-2 and Focus Sheet B-2, create a business plan for your own company. For more information, you can go to the Web site (http://www. Bized.ac.uk/stafsup/options/thebplan.htm).

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Instructional Plan C
Marketing

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives: 1. To understand the theory of marketing
2. To be able to analyze market research

Warm up: *The instructor asks students the following questions:*
1. Who knows the term marketing?
2. What is the purpose of marketing?
3. What are the important elements of marketing?

Task Chain 1: *Understanding the Theory of Marketing*
1. The instructor distributes theory notes (Focus Sheet C-1) to students. The instructor uses Focus Sheets C-1 to explain the basic theory for marketing. Students can directly go to the Web site for the theory.
2. Students work in a group. The instructor answers the questions whenever students have them.

Task Chain 2: *Developing the Company's Marketing Strategies*
1. The instructor hands out Work Sheets C-1 to groups. The instructor gives the directions for Work Sheet C-1. Each group visits the Web sites to get more material as necessary.
2. The instructor distributes other links (Focus Sheet C-2) to each group. Each group visits more links to look at and get more information.
3. Each group finishes Work Sheet C-1 using a word processor, sends it to the instructor, and keeps a copy for their notebooks. If groups cannot finish in class, they can send it to the instructor before the next class.

Final Assessment: *Checking Students' Comprehension and Group Functioning*
1. The instructor checks students' comprehension and group functioning using Figure 5: Checklist (Participation).
2. The instructor assesses e-mails about analysis of market research (Work Sheet C-1) from groups and corrects them to reply. Students keep a copy for their notebooks.

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Focus Sheet C-1

Theory Notes

Any business studies textbook will tell you that it is important to identify your market. Initially this process is done through market research. Given the fairly closed nature of the ballooning market, and the fact that many of the staff are balloonists themselves this process is not such an important one. The next stage then is to **segment** your market. The firm also needs to carefully consider the marketing mix and the nature of the product.

Market Segmentation

There are various ways to segment your market. These may include:
- **Demographically** - according to the age structure of the population
- **Geographically** - by country or region or area
- **Behavioristically** - according to the nature of the purchase, the use the product is put to, the loyalty to the brand and so on
- **Benefit** – according to the use and satisfaction gained by the consumer
- **Socio-economically** - according to social class and income levels

Clearly some of these are more relevant than others to Cameron Balloons.

The firm can then use this information to draw up a segmentation map. This is a tool for analyzing the market and helping to identify market opportunities. Any one of the criteria above could be used to draw up a map. For example, Cameron's may want to look at the behavioristic split of their market.

The Marketing Mix

The marketing mix is the balance of marketing techniques required for selling the product. Its components are often known as the four Ps:
- **Price** – the price of the product - particularly the price compared to your competitors - is a vital part of marketing.
- **Product** – targeting the market and making the product appropriate to the market segment you are trying to sell into
- **Promotion** - this may take the form of point of sale promotion, advertising, sponsorship or other promotions.
- **Place** – this part of the marketing mix is all about how the product is distributed. Current trends are towards shortening the chain of distribution.
- In the past many firms have been what could have been described as **product-oriented**. They produced a product and spent their energies marketing this product. There was little flexibility for individual customers or segments of the market. Firms now tend to be **market-oriented**. This means that they are flexible and adaptable to the demands of the market. They aim to change the product as necessary to satisfy their customers.

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/cb/factory/marketing/theories1.htm
http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/cb/factory/marketing/theories2.htm
http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/cb/factory/marketing/theories3.htm

Work Sheet C-1

Developing the Company's Market Strategies

Market Segmentation

Step 1 - Which bit is which?

The marketing theories section has details of some ways that firms can split the market they are dealing in. They were:

- **Demographically** - according to the age structure of the population
- **Geographically** - by country or region or area
- **Behavioristically** - according to the nature of the purchase, the use the product is put to, the loyalty to the brand and so on
- **Benefit** - according to the use and satisfaction gained by the consumer
- **Socio-economically** - according to social class and income levels

Rank these according to which you think will be the most important to your company. Rank them from the most important down to the least important.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Why do you think that the one you have put the first is the most important?

_____

_____

Why do you think that the one you have put the last is the least important?

_____

_____

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/virtual/cb/factory/marketing/worksheets4.htm

Work Sheet C-1 (con't)

Developing the Company's Market Strategies

Step 2 – Which P is which?

What are the 4 Ps of the marketing mix?

Now imagine that you are marketing your own product. Rank these 4 Ps in order of importance to your company. Start with number 1 as the most important.

Write a short paragraph for each of these choices, justifying your reasons for ranking it as you did.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Focus Sheet C-3

More Links

Academic Maketing Journals and Magazines The list of online sources.
http://marketing.kub.nl/linhks.htm

Advertising World The ultimate marketing communications directory by U of Texas.
http://advertisin.utexas.edu/world/

Hitbox's Statmarket Global Internet market data. Sign up to receive free Internet market news via email: a good way for students to keep up with daily events-- especially helpful for those timid about surfing the net. http://www.statmarket.com

Instructional Plan D
Advertising Strategy

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives: 1. To build up the basis for advertisement
2. To develop an advertising campaign for the company

Warm up: The instructor asks questions to students if they have a favorite advertisement and lets them explain why they like it.

Task Chain 1: *Building Up the Basis for Advertisement*
1. The instructor distributes Work Sheet D-1 to students.
2. The instructor talks through Work Sheet D-1 stressing the importance and relevance of each bit of information for 5 to 10 minutes. Students work in the group.
3. Each group finishes Work Sheet D-1 using a word processor, sends it to the instructor, and keeps a copy for their notebooks. If groups cannot finish in class, they can send it to the instructor before the next class.

Task Chain 2: *Developing an Advertising Campaign*
1. The instructor explains what is an advertising campaign for 5 minutes and distributes Work Sheet D-2 to groups. The instructor goes over Work Sheet D-2 with students briefly. Students work in a group.
2. Each group finishes Work Sheet D-2 using a word processor, sends it to the instructor, and keeps a copy for their notebooks. If groups cannot finish in class, they can send it to the instructor before the next class.

Final Assessment: *Checking Students' Comprehension and Group Functioning*
1. The instructor checks students' comprehension and group functioning using Figure 5: Checklist (Participation).
2. The instructor assesses e-mails about advertisements (Work Sheet D-1 and D-2) from groups and corrects them to reply. Students keep a copy for their notebooks.

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Work Sheet D-1

Building Up the Basis for Advertisement

The purpose of the worksheet is for you to collect information from a chosen web site and apply information to build up the basis for advertisement of your own company. Choose one of the company's from the list below and use the links to help you answer the following questions. This information will help you in the preparation of an advertising campaign for your company.

Unilever Company web site (http://www.unilever.com/)
Body Shop Company web site (http://www.the-body-shop.com/)
Pearson Plc web site (http://www.pearson-plc.com)

Step 1 - The Basics

1. Use either the company facts section of Biz/ed or the company's own web-site and try to find evidence of the firms' Competitive Advantage. (i.e., what they are particularly good at)

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Put in your own words- what is unique about the company? (what makes it different from its competitors)

_____

_____

_____

_____

Work Sheet D-1.2 (con't)

Building Up the Basis for Advertisement

Step 2 - A little bit more

To help further we now need a bit more detail about the spheres in which the company operates and the brands they sell.
1. Follow the link below to get to the company facts section or the company's own Web-site and find the different industries (such as Travel, Manufacturing) in which the company operates. Explain briefly what they are:

Unilever Company web site (http://www.unilever.com/)
Body Shop Company web site (http://www.the-body-shop.com/)
Pearson Plc web site (http://www.pearson-plc.com)

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. Try to identify what are the significant brands (names of products) in these different industries:

Brand A _____

Brand B _____

Brand C _____

Work Sheet D-1.3 (con't)

Building Up the Basis for Advertisement of Your Own Company

Step 3 - SWOT it!
Based on previous work, you can apply knowledge for building up the basis for advertisement of your own company. Now we need to use SWOT analysis as a framework to try to identify what an advertising or marketing campaign should focus on.

1. What are the **Strengths** of your company?

_____

_____

_____

2. What are the **Weaknesses** of your company?

_____

_____

_____

3. What are the **Opportunities** of your company?

_____

_____

_____

4. What are the **Threats** to your company?

_____

_____

_____

Work Sheet D-1 (con't)

Building Up the Basis for Advertisement of Your Own Company

Step 4 - Now do what with it?

1. Think about the amount of money that you would have to spend for your own company.

How much is your budget?

_____

2. Suggest a suitable target market under each of the headings below for your client (Age, Sex, Class and Attitudes) .

Age?

_____

Reasons?

_____

Sex?

_____

Reasons?

_____

Socio-economic group?

_____

Reasons?

_____

Attitudes?

_____

Reasons?

_____

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/stafsup/options/advertws.htm

Work Sheet D-2

The Advertising Campaign

Objective

From the information gained from the worksheet you need to develop a corporate advertising campaign that is relevant to your company's mission, objectives, target markets and budget.

Tasks

(1) Choose a relevant media and make an advertising campaign with objectives, target markets, costs and deadlines. Give full details below:

Objectives

_____

_____

Target markets

_____

_____

Costs (N.B. Bear in mind the budget you derived from the worksheet)

_____

_____

Deadlines

_____

_____

(2) Suggest how the campaign could be developed to aid the expansion into target country or worldwide.

_____

_____

Source: http://www.bized.ac.uk/stafsup/options/advertmark.htm

Instructional Plan E

Writing a Business Letter and Telephoning

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives: 1. To write business letter writing
               2. To do business telephoning

Warm up: The instructor asks student is there anyone who can tell the difference between personal letters and business letters and let them share their ideas.

Task Chain 1: *Learning Business Letter Writing*

1. The instructor distributes to the class an example of a formal letter (Focus Sheet E-1) and useful expressions for a formal letter (Focus Sheet E-2) for reference. The instructor goes over the letter to check students' new vocabulary and understanding.
2. The instructor distributes to the class a personal letter about business affair (Work Sheet E-1) and has them work in groups of two or three to transform the information on the letter into a formal business letter. When students finish, the instructor goes over and checks the answers.
3. The instructor puts students into groups, distributes Work Sheet E-2 to groups, and has them write their own business letters for several situations using several expressions on Focus Sheet E-2. Each group finishes Work Sheet E-2 using a word processor, sends it to the instructor, and keeps a copy for their notebooks. If groups cannot finish in class they can send it to the instructor before next class.

Task Chain 2: *Learning Business Telephoning*

1. The instructor distributes phrases and idioms for talking on the telephone (Focus Sheets E-3). Students work in a pair to practice idioms in various situations.
2. The instructor makes idiom cards. The students are grouped into pairs. Each student gets 5 cards. In turn, they turn over the top card and have to initiate a telephone conversation with the partner, somehow and somewhere working in the idiom on their card. The partner does not see the phrase. They think of a situation, and steer the conversation in such a way as to be able to slip in the idiom. The first team to use up all their cards is the winner.

Final Assessment: *Checking Students' Comprehension and Group Functioning*

    1. The instructor checks students' comprehension and group functioning using Figure 5: Checklist (Participation).

    2. The instructor assesses e-mails about business letter (Work Sheet E-1) from groups and corrects them to reply. Students keep a copy for their notebooks.

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Ref 7045
May 14, 2000

Michael Mordan
Neebok Corp.
333rd Avenue
San Bernardino, CA 92407
USA

Dear Mr. Mordan:

I would like more information about your new wrinkle-free sport shirts advertised in K-crew magazine.

Please send us a copy of your catalogue and a price list including shipping and handling costs.

Sincerely,
Shinkyo Nam

Neebok Co.
333th Avenue San Bernardino, CA 92407, USA
Phone: (212) 765-4321
Fax: (212) 765-4322

May 19, 2000

Shikyo Nam
704-6 Neodong, Neogu
Seoul 130272

Dear Mr. Nam:

Thank you for your inquiry. We are delighted to enclose our latest catalog and price list. We look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Michael Mordan
Assistant Sales manager

Source: http://neoqst.com/database/officednglish/chapter3/office3-4.html

Focus Sheet E-2

Useful Expressions for Formal Letter

Useful expressions

We regret to~(that ~)/ It is with regret that ~
Unfortunately
We look forward to ~ ing ..
We are pleased to
We would be pleased to/We shall be delighted to
We shall have to..
Please note that..
We write to
We apologize for
We enclose ..
It was a pleasure to
We are interested in
Should you require ..

Please do not hesitate to ..
We hope to..

We do not feel able to../We are unable to..
Please refer to

Work Sheet E-1

Transforming a Letter

Direction: Here is a personal letter about business affair. Work in groups of two or three to transform the information on the letter into a formal business letter.

Neebok Co.
333th Avenue San Bernardino, CA 92407, USA
Phone: (212) 765-4321
Fax: (212) 765-4322
May 19, 2000

Dear Shikyo:

Good for you. We got your resignation as a vice president of the Neebok Co.

We appreciate the demands that this position has placed on you and respect the fine contributions you have made as a vice president.

Very truly,

Michael Mordan
Assistant Sales manager

Work Sheet E-2

Writing Our Own Business Letters

Directions: Write your own business letters with your group. Write letters for various situations using several expressions on Focus Sheet F-2.

Focus Sheet E-3

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

Hello. Sales Department (NeoQuest). This is Neo. May I help you?
NeoQuest. This is Neo. How may I help you?
Hello. This is NeoQuest.
NeoQuest. May I help you?
*(How) may I help you? How may I assist you?

May I speak to Mr. Kim Neo of Sales Department?
May I speak to Mr. Kim Neo, please?
I'd like to speak to Mr. Kim Neo.

May I talk to the person in charge?
I'd like to speak to the man in charge.

Could you connect me with Planning Department?
Could you transfer this call to Planning Department?

Is Neo there?
Is this 579-7045 (NeoQuest)?

I'm sorry you have the wrong number.
Sorry, you must've (must have) dialed the wrong number.
I'm afraid you have the wrong number.

There's no (Choi Nero) here. What number are you calling?
There's no one here by that name. What number are you dialing?
You have the wrong number. There's no such person here.

Isn't this NeoGuest?
No, this is NeoQuest.

I dialed/called 555 - 7045.
No, it's 579-7045. You have the wrong number.

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

I'm calling NeoGuest at 579 – 7045. The number is correct, but this is NeoQuest, not NeoGuest. You've got the right number, but … Yes, that's our number, but… You dialed correct number, but …
I'm sorry. Sorry for disturbing you. I'm sorry to have bothered you. Sorry.
That's all right.
For future reference, that number is 7046.
May I transfer you to her? May I transfer your (this) call to her? Let me transfer you to her. Let me transfer your (this) call to her. I'll forward you to her. I'll get her for you. I'll dial it for you. I'll connect you with her.
I'll put you through (to her). Hold the line, please. I'll connect you. Hold on, please.
Please call the switchboard and ask for Extension 7046. Will you call the switchboard at 579-7000 and ask for Extension 7046?
Will you call 7000 and ask for the Export Department? Will you ask the switchboard for the Export Department?

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

I'll connect you with her department. I'll put you through to her department.
Hold on, please. Hold the line, please. Hold on (for) a second. Hold on (for) a moment. Just a minute. Just a second. One moment, please. Hang on a second. Just hold on. Would you hold on for a moment?
It will take a few minutes. May I put you on hold? May I put your call on hold?
Who do you want to speak with/to? Who do you want to talk to? Who do you wish to speak to? Who would you like to speak to?
He's on another line. Would you like to hold? He's on another phone. Will you hold? Please hold. Can you hold? Would you care to hold?
I'll get the manager for you. Let me get the manager.
Just a second. I have another call. Hang on a sec/second.

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

Can I call you back? Something has come up. Let me call you back.
How about if I give you a call tomorrow?
Could you call back between 2 and 5 tomorrow?
Which number do I have to call you at? What number should I use to get you?
May I ask where he can reach you? How can he reach you? Please leave a number where he can reach you.
May I have your number, just in case?
You can reach him at 579-7045. His phone number is 579-7045.
The line is busy. His phone is busy. The line is engaged.
He should be back soon. He should be back before 2. He should be back after 2.
He should be with you in about 5 minutes.
(I'm) sorry to keep you waiting, but..

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

Thank you for calling. Thanks for the call. Thank you for your call. I/We appreciate your call.
We seem to have a bad connection. Sounds like we have a poor connection. (Can you call back?)
I can't hear you. Can you speak a little louder? Can you speak up, please?
Excuse me? Pardon? Could you say that again? Could you speak a little slower?
This is he/she. Speaking. This is Lee (speaking).
This is it. You have it.
You can talk to me. Maybe I can answer your question. Maybe I can handle it for you.

Sources: http://neoqst.com/database/officeenglish/chapter2/office2-5.html
http://neoqst.com/database/officeenglish/chapter2/office2-6.html

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

In case he/she can't come to the phone-1

May I speak to Mr. Lee, please?
This is Bill Clinton (speaking). Can I speak to Mr. Lee?/ Is Mr. Lee in?
May I talk to Mr. Lee?

Mr. Lee is not in now/at the moment.
He is out now/at the moment.
He is not here now/at the moment. He won't be back until 4:30.

Mr. Lee's away on a business trip.
He's out of town on business.
He's out on business now.
He's on a business trip now. He'll be back this Friday.

Mr. Lee is in a meeting (until 4:30).

Mr. Lee hasn't come here yet.
He hasn't come in yet.

Mr. Lee is not working today.
He's not in the office today.
He's got the day off today.
He's off today.

Mr. Lee's gone for the day.
He's gone home.
He's left for the day.
He won't be back in the office today.
He left for home.

Mr. Lee can't come to the phone now.
He's not at his desk now/at the moment.
He's away from his desk.

He's on another line now.
He's on another phone now.
He's talking/speaking on another phone now.

He called in sick this morning.
He called in with flu this morning.

Focus Sheet E-3 (con't)

Phrases and Idioms for Talking on the Telephone

In case he/she can't come to the phone-2

He no longer works here.
He quit a month ago.
He quit working here.

May I have your name, and he will call you back as soon as possible?"
May I have him call you back?
Shall I have him call you back later?
Shall I have him call you when he gets back?
Do you want him to return your call?
Do you want him to call you back?

Would you like to leave a message?
May I take a message?
Shall I take a message?

Could I have you name?
May I have your name?
May I have your name?
May I ask who's calling, please?
Who's calling, please?
Who's this, please?

No, that's all right. I'll call him later.
No, thank you. I'll call him again.
Okay, I'll call him later. Thanks.
I'll call back later. Thanks.

Yes, please. Tell him Bill called.
Please have him call me at 555-1234.
Yes, would you tell him Bill called?
When shall I call back?
Please have him call me when he gets back.
Yes, would you tell him to call me as soon as he returns?

Thank you. Bye-bye.

Sources: http://neoqst.com/database/officeenglish/chapter2/office2-7.html
http://neoqst.com/database/officeenglish/chapter2/office2-8.html

Instructional Plan F

Presentation

Level: EFL colleges intermediate and advanced: Business English class

Objectives: 1. To do presentations to show how groups will create their companies
2. To evaluate the presentations of other groups

Warm up: The instructor gives short introductions for the presentations.

Task Chain 1: *Doing Presentations*
1. The instructor asks students take turns to make presentations.
2. Each group does a presentation.

Task Chain 2: *Evaluating the Presentations of Other Groups*
1. The instructor hands out Assessment Sheet F-1 to evaluate the presentations of other groups. Each student evaluates the presentations.
2. After one group finishes the presentation, students have time for questions and answers. Students give Assessment Sheet F-1 to the group directly as a feedback.
3. The group which made a presentation turns in the notebooks to the instructor.
4. After finishing all the presentations, members of the group do the group member evaluation with Assessment Sheet F-2 and turn in to the instructor.

Final Assessment: *Evaluating the Presentations*
1. The instructor evaluates the presentations of the groups using Figure 4: Presentation Evaluation Checklist.

Score	Score Status
90-100 %	Above standard
80-89 %	At standard
70-79-%	Approaching standard
60-69 %	Below standard
Below 59%	Additional effort needed

Assessment Sheet F-1

Class Presentation Evaluation

The presenting group's name: _____ Date: _____

Topic:_____

1. Clarity of topic: Vague   ◄—— 1   2   3   4   5 ——► Clear

2. Organization: So-So   ◄—— 1   2   3   4   5 ——► Great

3. Content appropriate: Yes _____   No _____

4. Handout useful: Yes _____   No _____

5. Pace of presentation: Too slow ◄—— 1   2   3   4   5 ——► Too fast

6. Presentation graphics: So-So   ◄—— 1   2   3   4   5 ——► Great

7. Suggestion/Comments

Assessment Sheet F-2

Group Member Evaluation

Group Name: _____

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so-so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so-so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so-so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so-so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so-so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so-so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so-so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so-so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so-so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so-so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so-so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so-so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so-so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so-so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so-so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so-so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so-so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so-so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so-so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so-so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so-so	no

This member _____

1. willingly assists other group members	yes	so-so	no
2. contributes ideas to the group	yes	so-so	no
3. speaks in a friendly manner	yes	so-so	no
4. listens politely	yes	so-so	no
5. asks for help from other group members	yes	so-so	no
6. encourages, compliments, praises	yes	so-so	no
7. stays on task	yes	so-so	no

REFERENCES

Ahmad, K., Corbett, G., Rogers, M., & Sussex, R. (1985). Computers, language learning and language teaching. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

American Management Association International. (1998). E-mail tops telephone, say HR execs at 69th annual human resources conference. Retrieved February 1, 2000, from, http://www.amanet.org/survey/hrc98.htm

American Technology Honor Society for the Advancement of Technology. (1996). Society promotes technology literacy. T H E Journal, 23(11), 22.

Ames, G. J., & Murray, F. B. (1982). When two wrongs make a right: Promoting cognitive change by social conflict. Developmental Psychology, 18, 894-897.

Anderson-Inman, L., & Horney, M. A. (1998). Transforming text for at-risk readers. In D. Reinking, M. C. McKenna, L. D. Labbo, & R. D. Kieffer (Eds.), Handbook of literacy and technology: Transformations in a post-typographic world (pp. 15-43). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Association of College and Research Libraries. (2001). Information literacy: Competency standards for higher education. Teacher Librarian, 28(3), 16-29.

Beckett, G., Carmichael, M., Mohan, B., & Slater, T. (2000, March). Framework for project-based language/content learning. Paper presented at the annual conference of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Vancouver, BC, Canada.

Blumenfeld, P. C., Soloway, E., Marx, R. W., Krajcik, J. S., Guzdial, M., & Palincsar, A. (1991). Educational Psychologist, 26, 369-398.

Bodycott, P. & Walker, A. (2000). Teaching abroad: Lessons learned about inter-cultural understanding for teachers in higher education. Teaching in Higher Education, 500, 79-94.

Bolter, J. D. (1991). Writing space: The computer, hypertext, and the history of writing. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bolter, J. D. (1996). Ekphrasis, virtual reality, and the future of writing. In G. Nunberg (Ed.), The future of the book (pp. 253-272). Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Bolter, J. D. (1998). Hypertext and the question of visual literacy. In D. Reinking, M. C. Mckenna, L. D. Labbo, & R. D. Kieffer (Eds.), Handbook of literacy and technology: Transformations in a post-typographical world (pp. 3-13). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bourne, D. E. (1990). Computer-assisted instruction, learning theory, and hypermedia: An associative linkage. Research Strategies, 8(4), 160-171.

Brierley, B., & Kemble, I. (1991). Computers as a tool in language teaching. New York: Ellis Horwood.

Castells, M. (1993). The informational economy and the new international division of labor. In M. Carnoy, M. Castells, S. S. Cohen, & F. H. Cardoso (Eds.), The new global economy in the information age: Reflections on our changing world (pp. 15-43). University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University Press.

Castells, M. (1996). The rise of the network society. Malden, MA: Basil Blackwell.

Charp, S. (1996). Technological literacy for the workplace. T H E Journal, 23(8), 6.

Coelho, E. (1992). Cooperative learning: Foundation for a communicative curriculum. In C. Kessler (Ed.), Cooperative language learning: A teacher's resource book (pp. 31-49). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

de Castell, S., & Luke, A. (1986). Models of literacy in North American schools: Social and historical conditions and consequences. In S. de Castell, A. Luke, & K. Egan (Eds.), Literacy, society, and schooling (pp. 87-109). New York: Cambridge University Press.

DeVries, D. G., Edwards, K. J., & Slavin, R. E. (1978).
Biracial learning teams and race relations in the
classroom: Four field experiments on
Teams-Games-Tournament. Journal of Educational
Psychology, 70, 356-362.

DeVries, D. L., Edwards, K. J., & Wells, E. H. (1974).
Teams-Games-Tournament in the social studies
classroom: Effects on academic achievement, student
attitudes, cognitive beliefs, and classroom climate
(Report No. 173). Baltimore: John Hopkins University,
Center for Social Organization of Schools.

DeVries, D. L., Mescon, I. T., & Shackman, S. L. (1975).
Teams-Games-Tournament in the elementary classroom: A
replication (Report No. 190). Baltimore: Johns
Hopkins University, Center for Social Organization of
Schools.

Dewey, J., & Dewey, E. (1915). Schools of tomorrow.
London: J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd.

Dole, J. A., Duffy, G. G., Roehler, L. R., & Pearson, P.
D. (1991). Moving from the old to the new: Research
on reading comprehension instruction. Review of
Educational Research, 61, 239-264.

Donmall, G. (1996). Miking a silk purse out of a sow's
ear: A 'language awarenesss' approach to grammar. In
G.Shaw & S. Myles (Eds.), German grammar teaching in
crisis? (pp. 46-60). London: Association for Modern
German Studies.

Dornyei, Z. (1997). Psychological processes in cooperative
language learning: Group dynamics and motivation. The
Modern Language Journal, 81, 482-493.

Dunkel, P. (1991). The effectiveness research on
computer-assisted instruction and computer-assisted
language learning. In P. Dunkel, (Ed),
Computer-assisted language learning and testing. New
York: Newbury House.

Ellis, M., & Johnson, C. M. (1994). Teaching business
English. Oxford: Oxford university Press.

Evans, R. (1999). Serving modern students in a modern society at the community college: Incorporating basic technological literacy. T H E Journal, 27(3), 102-104.

Faigley, L. (1997). Literacy after the revolution. College Composition and Communication, 48, 30-43.

Fried-Booth, D. L. (1997). Project work. (8th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gee, J. P. (1996). Social linguistics and literacies. London: Taylor & Francis.

Ghaith, G. M., & Yaghi, H. M. (1998). Effect of cooperative learning on the acquisition of second language rules and mechanics. System , 26(2), 223-234.

Hall, C. (1998). Overcoming the grammar deficit: The role of information technology in teaching German grammar to undergraduates. Canadian Modern Language Review 55(1), 41-60.

Hansen, J. W. (2000, Fall). Parables of technological literacy. Journal of Engineering Technology 17(2), 29-31.

Harnad, S. (1991). Post-Gutenberg galaxy: The fourth revolution in the means of production and knowledge. Public-Access Computer Systems Review, 2(1), 39-53.

Hartup, W., Glazer, J., & Charlesworth, R. (1967). Peer reinforcement and sociometric status. Child Development, 38, 1017-1024.

Headley, D. (1993). Learner choices in self-directed second landuage learning. Ann Arbor, MI: UMI Dissertation Services.

Healey, D., & Johnson, N. (1995). A brief introduction to CALL. In D. Healey & N. Johnson (Eds.), 1995 TESOL CALL interest section software list (pp. iii-vii). Alexandria, VA: TESOL Publications.

Hoekje, B. J. (1996). Teaching business English. The Modern Language Journal,80, 412.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). English for specific
    purposes: A learning-centered approach. New York:
    Cambridge University Press.

Jacob, E., Rottenberg, L., Patrick, S., & Wheeler, E.
    (1996). Cooperative learning: Context and
    opportunities for acquiring academic English. TESOL
    Quarterly, 31, 2.

Janke, R. (1978, April). The Teams-Games-Tournament (TGT)
    method and the behavioral adjustment and academic
    achievement of emotionally impaired adolescents.
    Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American
    Educational Research Association, Toronto, Ontario,
    Canada.

John, C. (1996). President Clinton makes technological
    literacy a top priority with $2 billion in matching
    funds. Thrust for Educational Leadership, 25(6), 21.

Johns, A. M., & Dudley-Evans. (1991). English for specific
    purposes: International in scope, specific in
    purpose. TESOL Quarterly, 25(2), 297-313.

Johnson, D. W. (1980). Group processes: Influences of
    student-student interactions on school outcomes. In
    J. McMillan (Ed.), Social psychology of school
    learning (pp. 123-168). New York: Academic Press.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. (1983). The socialization
    and achievement crisis: Are cooperative learning
    experiences the solution? In L. Beckman (Ed.),
    Applied Social Psychology Annual 4 (pp. 119-164).
    Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). Leading the
    cooperative school. Edina, MN: Interaction.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1991). Learning together
    and alone (3rd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Allyn &
    Bacon.

Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R., & Maruyama, G. (1983).
    Interdependence and interpersonal attraction among
    heterogeneous and homogeneous individuals: A
    theoretical formulation and a meta-analysis of the
    research. Review of Educational Research, 53, 5-54.

Kagan, S., Zahn, G. L., Widaman, K. F., Schwarzwald, J., & Tyrell, G. (1985). Classroom structural bias: Impact of cooperative and competitive classroom structures on cooperative and competitive individuals and groups. In E. Slavin, S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, C. Webb, & R. Schmuck (Eds.), Learning to cooperate, cooperating to learn. New York: Plenum.

Kenning, M. M., & Kenning, M. J. (1990). Computers and language learning: Current theory and practice. New York: Ellis Horwood.

Kim, E. (1999). The solutions for the problems with English education in Korea. Retrieved October 5, 2000, from http://www.mantoman.co.kr/m2807.htm

Kress, G. (1998). Visual and verbal modes of representation in electronically mediated communication: The potentials of new forms of text. In I. Snyder (Eds.), Page to screen: Taking literacy into the electronic era (pp. 53-79). London: Routledge.

Land, S. & Greene, B. A. (2000). Project-based learning with the World Wide Web: A qualitative study of resource Integration. Educational Technology Research and Development 48, 45-67.

Landow, G. P. (1992). Hypertext: The convergence of contemporary critical theory and technology. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Larson, C., Dansereau, D., O'Donnell, A., Hythecker, V., Lambiotte, J., & Rocklin, T. (1985). Effects of metacognitive and elaborative activity on cooperative learning and transfer. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 10, 342-348.

Laughlin, P., & Jaccard, J. (1975). Social facilitation and observational learning of individuals and cooperative pairs. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 873-879.

Laughlin, P., McGlynn, R., Anderson, J., & Jacobson, E.
     (1968). Concept attainment by individuals versus
     cooperative pairs as a function of memory, sex, and
     concept rule. Journal of Personality and Social
     Psychology, 8, 410-417.

Lawrence, A. (1997). Expanding capacity in ESOL programs
     (EXCAP): Using projects to enhance instruction.
     Literacy Harvest. The Journal of the Literacy
     Assistance Center, 6(1), 1-9.

Lemke, J. L. (1998). Metamedia literacy: Transforming
     meanings and media. In D. Reinking, M. McKenna, L.
     Labbo, & R. D. Kieffer (Eds.), Handbook of literacy
     and technology: Transformations in a post-typographic
     world (pp. 283-301). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Long, M., Adams, L., McLean, M., & Castanos, F. (1976).
     Doing things with words-Verbal interaction in
     lockstep and small group classroom situations. In J.
     Franselow & R. Crymes (Eds.), On TESOL '76
     (pp. 137-153). Washington, DC: TESOL

Loria, Y., Shaltied, L., Pieterse, E., & Rosenfeld, S.
     (1999). The development of software to support
     teachers and their students in PBL: "The golden way."
     In B. Hasselgreen, Conference Proceedings for the 7th
     European Conference on Learning and Instruction
     (EARLI). Goteborg University, Sweden.

Mackay, R., & Mountford, A. (1978). English for specific
     purposes. London: Longman.

Madden, N. A., & Slavin, R. E. (1983). Mainstreaming
     students with mild academic handicaps: Academic and
     social outcomes. Review of Educational Research, 53,
     519-569.

Marr, M. B. (1997). Cooperative learning: A brief review.
     Reading & Writing Quarterly,13(1), 7-20.

McKenna, M. C. (1998). Electronic texts and the
     transformation of beginning reading. In D. Reinking,
     M. C. Mckenna, L. D. Labbo, & R. D. Kieffer (Eds.),
     Handbook of literacy and technology: Transformations
     in a post-typographic world (pp. 45-59). Mahwah, NJ:
     Erlbaum.

Mohan, B. A. (1986). <u>Language and content</u>. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Moss, D. (1998). <u>Project-based learning and assessment: A resource manual for teachers</u>. Arlington, VA: The Arlington Education and Employment Program (REEP).

Oishi, S., Slavin, R. E., & Madden, N. A. (1983, April). <u>Effects on student teams and individualized instruction on cross-race and cross-sex friendships</u>. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.

Olsen, R., & Kagan, S. (1992). About cooperative learning. In C. Kessler (Ed.), <u>Cooperative language learning: A teacher's resource book</u> (pp.1-30). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Park, M. Y., Dillon, W. T., & Mitchell, K. L. (1998). Korean Business Letters: Strategies for Effective Complaints in Cross-Cultural Communication. <u>Journal of Business Commnication, 35</u>(3), 328-45.

Pica, T., & Doughty, C. (1985). The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition. <u>Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 7,</u> 233-248.

Plowman, T. S. (1997). The information superhighway: Democracy or capitalism? <u>TechTrends 42</u>(5), 23-27.

Plowman, T. S. (2000). Academic integrity and informational technology. <u>TechTrends 44</u>(1), 24-30.

Pusack, J. P., & Otto, S. K. (1990). Applying instructional technologies. <u>Foreign Language Annals, 23</u>(5), 409-417.

Raimes, A. (1991). Out of the woods: Emerging traditions in the teaching of writing. <u>TESOL Quarterly, 25,</u> 407-430.

Reinking, D., McKenna, M.C., Labbo, L. D., & Kieffer, R. D. (1988). <u>Handbook of literacy and technology: Transformations in a post-typographic world</u>. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rivers, W. (1994). Comprehension and production: The
    interactive duo. In R. Barasch & C. James (Eds.),
    Beyond the monitor model: Comments on current theory
    and practice in second language acquisition
    (pp. 71-95). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Roth-Vinson, C. (2000, April). All aspects of project
    planning: Teaching tools for community-based
    learning. Present in annual conference, The Kids Who
    Know and Do, San Francisco, CA.

Sells, P., Shieber, S. M., & Wasow, T. (Eds.). (1991).
    Foundational issues in natural language processing.
    Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Sharan, S., & Sharan, Y. (1976). Small-group teaching.
    Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology
    Publications.

Sharan, S., Bejarano, Y., Kussell, P., & Peleg, R. (1984).
    Achievement in English language and in literature. In
    S. Sharan, P. Kussell, R. Hertz-Lazarowitz, Y.
    Bejarano, S. Raviv, & Y. Sharan (Eds.), Cooperative
    learning in the classroom: Research in desegregated
    schools (pp. 46-72). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Sherman, L. W., & Thomas, M. (1986). Mathematics
    achievement in cooperative versus individualistic
    goal-structured high school classrooms. Journal of
    Educational Research, 79, 169-172.

Sivert, S. & Egbert, J. (1995). Using a language learning
    environment framework to build a computer-enhanced
    classroom. College English, 5(2), 53-66.

Slavin, R. (1994). Cooperative learning: Theory, research
    and practice (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Slavin, R. E. (1978a). Student teams and achievement
    divisions. Journal of Research and Development in
    Education, 12, 39-49.

Slavin, R. E. (1978b). Student teams and comparison among
    equals: Effects on academic performance and student
    attitudes. Journal of Educational Psychology, 70,
    532-538.

Slavin, R. E. (1980). Effects of individual learning expectations on student achievement. Journal of Educational Psychology, 72, 520-524.

Slavin, R. E. (1984). Meta-analysis in education: How has it been used? Educational Researcher, 13(8), 6-15, 24-27.

Slavin, R. E. (1989). Cooperative learning and student achievement. In R. E. Slavin (Ed.), School and classroom organization (pp. 129-151). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Slavin, R. E. (1990). Cooperative learning: Theory, research and practice. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Slavin, R. E., & Karweit, N. L. (1984). Mastery learning and student teams: A factorial experiment in urban general mathematics classes. American Educational Research Journal, 21, 725-736.

Slavin, R. E., Karweit, N. L., & Madden, N. A. (Eds.). (1989). Effective programs for students at risk. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Slavin, R. E., Leavey, M., & Madden, N. A. (1984). Combining cooperative learning and individualized instruction: Effects on student mathematics achievement, attitudes, and behaviors. Elementary School Journal, 84, 409-422.

Snyder, I. (Ed.). (1998). From page to screen. London: Routledge.

Stein, S. (1995). Equipped for the future: A customer-driven vision for adult literacy and lifelong learning. Washington, DC: National Institute for Literacy. (ERIC Document Reproduction Services No. ED 384 792)

Stepien, W., & Gallagher, S. (1993). Problem-based learning: As authentic as it gets. Educational Leadership 50(7), 25-28

Stevens, R. J., & Slavin, R. E. (1995). The cooperative
    elementary school: Effects on students' achievement,
    attitudes, and social relations. American Educational
    Research Journal, 32, 321-351.

Stevens, R. J., Madden, N. A., Slavin, R. E., & Farnish,
    A. M. (1987). Cooperative Integrated Reading and
    Composition: Two field experiments. Reading Research
    Quarterly, 22, 433-454.

Stevens, R. J., Slavin, R. E., Farnish, A.M., & Madden, N.
    A. (1988, April). Effects of cooperative learning and
    direct instruction in reading comprehension
    strategies on main idea identification. Paper
    presented at the annual conference of the American
    Educational Research Association, New Orleans,
    Louisiana.

Stevens, V. (Ed.). (1989). A direction for CALL: From
    behavioristic to humanistic courseware. In M.
    Pennington (Ed.), Teaching languages with computers:
    The state of the art (pp. 31-43). La Jolla, CA:
    Athelstan.

Strevens, P. (1988). ESP after twenty years: A
    re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), ESP: State of the
    art (pp. 1-13). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional language
    Center.

Strevens, P. (1997). Special purpose language learning: A
    perspective. Language Teaching and Linguistics
    Abstracts, 10, 145-163.

Swales, J. (Ed.). (1988). Episodes in ESP: A source and
    reference book for the development of English for
    science and technology. New York: Prentice Hall.

Talmage, H., Pascarella, E. T., & Ford, S. (1984). The
    influence of cooperative learning strategies on
    teacher practices, student perceptions of the
    learning environment and academic achievement.
    American Educational Research Journal, 21, 163-179.

Tapscott, D. (1998). Growing up digital: The rise of the
    net generation. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Taylor, M. B., & Perez, L. M. (1989). Something to do on
    Monday. La Jolla, CA: Athelstan.

Taylor, R. (1980). The computer in the school: Tutor, tool, tutee. New York: Teachers College Press.

Totten, S., Sills, T., Digby, A., & Ross, P. (1991). Cooperative learning: A guide to research. New York: Garland Publishing.

U.S. Department of Labor, The Secretary's Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills. (1991). What work requires of schools: A SCANS report for America 2000. Washington, DC: Author. (EDRS No. ED 332 054)

Underwood, J. (1984). Linguistics, computers, and the language teacher: A Communicative approach. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Underwood, J. (1989). On the edge: Intelligent CALL in the 1990s. Computers and the Humanities, 23(1), 71-84.

Warschauer, M. (1996). Computer-assisted language learning: An introduction. In S. Fotos (Ed.), Multimedia language teaching (pp. 3-20). Tokyo: Logos International.

Warschauer, M. (1999). Millennialism and media: Language, literacy, and technology in the 21st century. In proceedings of the 1999 World Congress of Applied Linguistics. Tokyo: Waseda University.

Warschauer, M. (2000). The changing global economy and the future of English teaching. TESOL Quarterly, 34(3), 511-535.

Warschauer, M., & Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: An overview. Language Teaching, 31, 57-71.

Warschauer, M., Shetzer, H., & Meloni, C. (2000). Internet for English teaching. Alexandria, VG: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Inc.

Wrigley, H. S. (1998). Knowledge in action: The promise of project-based learning. Focus on Basics, 2, 13-18.