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DEVELOPING THE ENGLISH INTERACTIONAL COMPETENCE
OF JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS IN KOREA

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

by
Bonhee Koo
June 1998

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June 1998

Approved by:


Dr. Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

May 26, 1998
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ABSTRACT

In Korea, English has been taught for the most part by grammar translation which neglects the contextual use of language. Therefore, students' English proficiency is limited to linguistic forms only. For my target teaching level, vocational junior college students, the ability to use English for real world communication is critically important in order to enrich their personal life and to enhance their careers. This curriculum is designed to address the problems of teaching English in Korea and the needs of my target teaching level based on an interrelated framework of pedagogical philosophy, language teaching principles, and teaching strategies.

First, based on constructivist pedagogical philosophy, I intend to empower students for active and autonomous learning, to promote social interaction, and to support authentic learning. Second, as a language teaching principle, I aim to teach students how to attain interactional competence in a given context. Third, to achieve this goal, three methodologies are adopted. Collaborative learning is used to create a setting for interaction. Project-based learning is intended to engage students through the content. Finally, the concept of communicative tasks integrates language and content to focus on meaning. The unit, "The Best Place to Live in the U.S." shows how the three integrated dimensions of my theoretical framework have been realized in the lessons.

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I wish to express deepest thanks and love to my children, Heu-nu and Jung-won who are a continuing source of my pride and commitment in education. I would like to grow with as much enthusiasm as they show, and as beautifully as they do.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of This Project

Recently, the need to communicate in English has been almost a requisite to success in Korea. As Korea is now more open to the world than ever, and more Koreans are involved with international activities, there is an even greater need to communicate in an international language: English. Because English is the most commonly used language in the world, Koreans who want to achieve their purposes in various global fields such as trade, politics, education, culture and even entertainment, need English proficiency. Companies prefer applicants who are fluent in English. Also, the increasing level of travel abroad makes Koreans realize that speaking English is necessary for enriching their personal life. However, at the same time, many have been embarrassed by failing to make themselves understood or being unable to carry out simple daily conversation in English, in spite of more than six years of English education in school. This embarrassment may lead them to realize that command of English means not only knowing grammar and reading, but also communicating competently in the real world. In addition, they began to doubt that the English education has furnished an adequate command of English.

English Education in Secondary School

Lecture for grammar translation. Until last year, secondary school is where students were introduced to English. Since English was adopted as a required class in the core curriculum at the middle and high school levels in the 1960s, teaching English has been mainly grammar- translation and audio-lingual-oriented. In the typical English

class, instruction consists of a lecture in Korean. The lecture includes reading text and translating it into Korean, with explanations of relevant grammatical rules and vocabulary. Students listen silently and take notes as they follow the teacher's explanation, meanwhile trying to memorize grammatical knowledge for tests. The only time students say something in English is when the teacher asks students to listen and repeat as the teacher reads some sentences from the textbook or plays recordings of the textbook made by native English speakers. Little genuine communication in English takes place, not only because few English teachers have ability to speak fluent English, but also because both teacher and students are under great pressure to teach and study English for exams.

Teaching English for exams. Most assessments of English competency, from daily quizzes to the highly competitive college entrance examinations, are mainly paper-and-pencil tests featuring grammar, reading comprehension and vocabulary. Speaking and writing skills are not adequately assessed. The format of the tests is usually multiple choice and fill-in-the blanks. Even conversation, pronunciation and intonation are tested in written format. In 1994, almost 40 years after English was adopted as a compulsory subject of school curriculums, English tests in school finally began to include listening skills. However, listening tests are carried out only twice in a year, and the percentage of the total test score that consists of listening skills is too small for teachers and students to invest their time preparing for it. Also, improving listening skills usually takes a long time. Thus, the effect of the new listening components of the test is still in question, for testing of the skill does not automatically mean that students

can learn the skill during the time allocated in class.

Particularly, the college entrance exams, which have great influence on secondary schools, have kept English instruction focused on traditional methods. As Koreans are well known for emphasizing higher education, it is not an exaggeration to say that passing the college entrance exam is the ultimate goal of education from elementary to high school. Without a college degree, it is hardly possible to be a white-collar worker. Thus, most parents regard passing the national college entrance examination as a critical hurdle for their children to advance into higher society. If students fail the exam, they immediately become a “loser” until they succeed on next year’s exam. Although a family may be rich and famous, if the family has a child who fails to pass the entrance exam, it becomes an embarrassment. Parents, teachers and students are together under great pressure from the college entrance exams. Thus, despite general dissatisfaction regarding current English instruction, parents expect that instruction in schools should carefully parallel the requirements of the college entrance exam and teachers should take few risks in adopting new methods. This is the situation that instructors of English face.

English Education in College

English education in the Korean college focuses on reading. Most colleges now recognize the goals of English education as “to improve the ability to communicate in English in order to receive information promptly, and to understand the culture of English-speaking countries as international citizens” (Cho, Moon, & Lee, 1996). This has become broader compared to the goal of English education in the 1960's, which was

“to help students to read texts in English for their subject area” (Gong, 1969). However, the chief focus of English education at the college level is still on reading.

In general, college students are required to take four to six units of English during their first and second years of college, so the ratio of English to the other required courses is around 15 percent in terms of units and classroom hours. For the most part, the classes consist of two hours of reading, and one hour of conversation or discussion. The textbook of the reading class is mainly made up of collections of classic English literature, which hardly relates to improving students’ ability to express their ideas and feelings in English through speaking and writing. The professors who are in charge of the English programs are mostly English linguists or literature majors. Thus the development of the program often ignores the function of the English language in real-world communication.

Education in Elementary School

Public dissatisfaction about English education has resulted in one change. In March 1997, elementary schools in Korea started compulsory English education for the third grade students, which is the pilot group for the implementation of the new subject. The English class will be extended to upper grades yearly. In the year 2000, elementary students from third to sixth grade will study English. According to the Ministry of Education, elementary English education aims to motivate students to be interested in English as a means for communication, and to encourage students to speak out in a simple words and sentences. Toward these goals, teaching emphasizes listening, speaking, and various kinds of activities using pictures, songs, and games. It will

probably take a fair amount of time to implement this new approach to middle and high schools. However, this is a meaningful change because it indicates that policy makers in education have begun to consider that students should learn English as a language for communication, therefore new methodologies besides grammar translation should be used for this goal.

Target Teaching Level

The vocational junior college is my target level to teach in Korea. The curriculum for junior vocational colleges emphasizes laboratory practice and on-the-job training. Recently, the number of junior vocational colleges has increased sharply. As of 1996, there were 135 junior vocational colleges, with a total enrollment of 506,806 students across Korea (Facts about Korea, 1996). These institutions are gaining public recognition because they supply practically trained workers for a variety of professional fields. The employment percentage of vocational junior college graduates is higher than that of college graduates. Lee (1985) indicates that half of the jobs in Korea require employees with only vocational junior college education. This fact reflects that the education of vocational colleges has significant influence on business and industries in Korea. Particularly, English education plays an important role, because students should prepare themselves to be competent in English in order to find information necessary for their jobs, much of which is transferred via English.

In contrast to the focus on reading for academic purposes in the four year colleges, English education in this level aims “to improve basic skills in four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening” (Cho, 1987). However, compared to this

comprehensive goal, the required English class takes only two to three units, which comprises about 10 percent of total required classes in terms with units and class hours, as opposed to 15 percent at the four-year college level. Cho (1985) reports that due to their job-oriented characteristics, students of vocational college students have a great interest in improving their practical (conversational) skills in English. They consider conversational skill, which includes speaking and listening skills, to be one of the most urgent needs in their English learning. It seems that they recognize the problem of English education in secondary schools, which ignores those skills due to the college entrance exams. In sum, English instruction at this level needs to give students more practical training about conversational English with more variety in content and with more time for conversational practice.

Problems of English Instruction in Korea

Behavioristic assumptions about learning and learners. In the behavioristic view of learning, students are passive recipients of information. To attain knowledge, they have to memorize facts and acquire skills through drill and practice. Students are only allowed to listen carefully and follow the teacher's direction. Teachers are the primary source of knowledge, and transmit their knowledge to students through lectures.

Correcting the students' wrong answers is one of the teachers' most important jobs. They are supervisors and directors in the classrooms (Marshall, 1992). This typical description of behavioristic learning exactly describes the English classrooms in Korea.

Many English teachers in Korea consider English as a collection of grammatical facts. They do not expect students' participation, so students do not have a chance to

produce meaning. Often, students' deficiencies in particular grammatical aspects is highlighted. The way students learn English is through rote memorization. Through trial and error in multiple choice tests, students become more efficient at finding right answers without being tricked by other confusing options. However, although a student gets a high score on the test, their scores does not usually match the ability to use English for communication.

To counteract this drawback, in this project I will present a constructivist view of learning and teaching that will form the basis for my pedagogical philosophy. From this basis, I will focus on learners' active interaction in order to facilitate the learning of English.

Little interaction in the English classroom. In Korea, class sizes at secondary schools usually contain over fifty students. A large classroom size is one of the reasons for the minimal teacher-student interaction in a classroom. Considering that one class hour in secondary school is fifty minutes, if each student is allowed to comment or ask something for only one minute during the class, it requires a whole class hour, and the teacher cannot teach a lesson. Thus, teachers cannot give enough attention to each student, and allow students to have few opportunities to questions or make comments. This lack of time creates an invisible classroom rule: "Speak only when you are asked by the teacher."

Also, many students are hesitant and cautious to say anything during the class because they do not want to lose face in front of a whole class by making a mistake. Often, one right answer is expected even for the topics that have a wide range of possible

answers and different opinions. Making mistakes is considered very shameful and corrected immediately and directly, rather than being regarded as a cue for the teacher to explain it again and let other students help with different approaches to the answer. Therefore, students choose to be safe without taking the risk of being laughed at.

The competitive learning environment is another reason for the lack of interaction between students. Under the pressure of daily exams and entrance exam for higher education, students consider learning to be competitive and an individual process. Pair or group work is uncommon in the English classroom. Thus, they do not have the experience of improving English fluency through working with other students. Also, they are ignorant of how they can learn better by helping each other. This situation deprives Korean students of the opportunity to train themselves for active involvement in discussion, and to express their opinions voluntarily. Little interaction is one of the most serious drawbacks for English classrooms because language is best learned through interaction. To come up with a solution for this second drawback, I will investigate the importance of interaction in language learning, and seek appropriate strategies to provide a setting for active language interaction.

Lack of meaningful context. In Korea, English teachers in secondary schools have no freedom to choose a textbook. The Ministry of Education has the power to appoint five textbooks, from which each school chooses one. Except for these five English textbooks, teachers are very restricted in using other supplementary material. Most teachers use one textbook throughout the year. The organization and content of the five textbooks are very similar. Each unit of the textbooks is mainly composed of one

essay, and grammatical rules necessary for comprehending the essay. Consequently, textbook-centered English teaching is often apt to emphasize only the form of English language. In Korea every exam in schools is heavily based on the content of the textbooks. Therefore, teachers just confine their teaching to traditional grammar translation that focuses on accuracy of language. This unbalanced emphasis on forms of English keeps students from learning English as a communication tool.

Due to the focus on the structural form, the topics of the text books become much less important. The content of essays is far away from students' interests and irrelevant to their real life. For many students, studying each unit just means repeating the same pattern of grammar exercises. They cannot find meaningful context attached to the essay. Over-reliance on textbooks fails in engaging students to learn English because it does not provide them with any opportunity to construct their own meaning of the content. What they need is some impetus to keep them engaged and encourage them to make new meaning of the content for themselves using linguistic knowledge.

Addressing this drawback by introducing project-based learning, this approach invites students to investigate of one content-rich topic. Additionally, as a way of integrating content to language, the concept of communicative tasks and its application to the syllabus design will be examined.

The Purpose of the Project

This curriculum project is designed to address the problems stated above and improve English instruction in Korea by emphasizing interaction in language learning for the use of English as a communication tool. To fulfill this purpose, I will present

new assumptions about learning and teaching that empower students as active meaning constructors. With this pedagogical philosophy, this project highlights interactional competence as a new concept of English language proficiency. To promote language interaction required for interactional competence practice, I adopt and integrate three teaching strategies: Project-based learning using collaborative tasks, which can engage students into their learning process; a collaborative setting in the English classroom, which facilitates students' interactions in English during the working on a project; and finally, task-based learning provides ideas on how to create lessons that optimize language interaction which focuses on meaning.

The Content of the Project

This project has five main sections. Chapter One introduces the English education background and states problems with current English education in Korea. Chapter Two reviews literature which includes constructivism, interaction in language learning, collaborative learning, project-based learning and task-based learning. Chapter Three incorporates principles derived from literature review to present a theoretical framework for English instruction in Korea. Chapter Four introduces the organization and content of lesson plans. Chapter Five proposes the evaluation of instruction, including teacher's observation and students' self evaluation. Appendix A contains lesson plans of a unit based on the theoretical framework, and appendix B holds sample rubrics for assessment.

The Significance of the Project

As English has gained status as an international language, the ability to use

English in real-world interactions has been highly required in Korea, not only for success in business and academic fields, but also for more enriched personal lives in this global age. By creating a setting that promotes language interaction through project-based learning using collaborative tasks, this project can help students to improve their interactional competence in using English as a communication tool.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Constructivist Implications: Learning and Teaching

Constructivist Paradigm of Knowledge

Constructivism is a theory about “coming to know” (Fosnot, 1996). While this theory has roots in philosophy, psychology, and anthropology, its orientation toward knowledge and learning has undergirded a new paradigm for pedagogy in education since the early 1980s. The basic assumption of constructivism is that knowledge is not external to the learner, but instead is an active process of construction by the learner on the basis of interpretation of experience (Kunth and Cunningham, 1993). Learners build knowledge, rather than receive it from any external source, (Jonassen, Mayes, & McAleese, 1993). This view of knowledge does not deny the existence of the real world, but instead holds that meaning is imposed on the world by learners (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992). Therefore, there are many meanings or perspectives for any concept and event, and also learners have their own paths to create knowledge.

Although constructivism shares several features with cognitive information processing theory, namely that both emphasize the active role and prior knowledge of the learner, a fundamental difference exists between these two concepts of knowledge. Cognitive information processing theorists believe that there is an objective reality “out there” (Woolfolk, 1995), which is transferred inside the mind. This objectivist epistemology is the same assumption upon which behaviorism is based. In this view of knowledge, cognitivism stresses the effective application of information processing strategies: how the internal memory synthesizes information during the processes of

attention, encoding, and retrieval to gain more accurate and complete knowledge. However, the construction of knowledge goes beyond this simple “shuffling” of information. Perkins (1992) asserts that a learner forms knowledge by making hypotheses, and testing tentative interpretations. Knowledge is not the same as common reality. It involves some constructive processes of individual understanding.

Based on the different focus on the agent in knowledge construction, there are two major approaches in constructivism: cognitive and social. Cognitive constructivism considers individuals to be constructive agents with an emphasis on their cognitive processes. The effect of one’s social role is important but is not essential. Meanwhile, social constructivism emphasizes the social context in which individual cognitive development occurs. According to social construction theorists, socially constructed knowledge affects cognitive change in individuals through social interaction and negotiation (cf., Vygotsky 1978, 1986). Nowadays, the distinction between individual and social cognitive development is fading out. Cognition is viewed as being shared by, or distributed among individuals, and cognitive processes are perceived as a property of a group in interaction. Spivey (1997) argues that the two approaches cannot be separated and we need only adjust both micro- (cognitive) and macro- (constructive) lenses to bring the two together. Any attempts to prioritize the two approaches relative to one another may restrict the understanding of learning as a whole picture. We cannot understand an individual’s cognitive structure without considering its interaction with in a context and a culture. Also, it is impossible to understand a society as an entity apart from individuals who share the culture within it. An important question to be asked is

not which approach should have priority in an analysis of learning, but what is the interplay between them (Fosnot, 1996). Therefore, the dichotomy between cognitive and social constructivism will not be highlighted in this project. Instead, I will concentrate on targeting those aspects of constructivism most essential for my teaching purposes.

Constructivist View of Learning

Active construction of meaning. Piaget's study of cognitive development in children has contributed to an explanation of the human mind's attempts to make sense of the world. In his claim that humans are knowledge constructors, he postulated a mechanism of learning in biological terms: "The subject exists because, to put it very briefly, the being of structures consists in their coming to be, that is, their being 'under construction' . . . There is no structure apart from construction" (Piaget, 1970, p. 140). He proposed that intelligence is a natural process because cognition, as a part of the whole human organism, has evolved continually in the same way as physical or emotional development. He categorized cognitive development into three processes. First, assimilation is the integration of new data with existing cognitive structures, or schemata. This is the tendency to view the world through one's own constructs in order to preserve one's autonomy as a part within a whole system. Second, accommodation is the adjustment of cognitive structures to new situations. It is an attempt to reconstitute previous behaviors. Third, equilibration is the continuing readjustment between assimilation and accommodation. It is not a static, but rather a dynamic, flexible process of a self-organizing nature (Fosnot, 1996). In other words, when humans face cognitive conflict, they are attempting to accommodate information that has been

assimilated; they attempt to equilibrate. In Piaget's view, the human mind is never a blank slate, a tabula rasa. Humans actively construct knowledge through mental processes and knowledge is the development of reflexive awareness of that process (Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy, & David Perry, 1992). Learners can be described as active thinkers, explainers, interpreters, questioners, researchers, generators and constructors (Woolfolk, 1995). The direct implication of active learning is that learners have ownership of their learning and performance (Honebein, Duffy, Fisherman & Berry, 1993).

Learning through multiple perspectives. In the constructivist view, knowing is a constructive process and learners have their own internal representations of knowledge. Different experiences and interpretations lead to different knowledge; each learner has a different interpretation about exactly the same object or event. Radical constructivists, such as von Glaserfeld (1984) assert that there is no single objective reality. Setting aside the debate whether existence of a "true" world, most constructivists believe that there are multiple perspectives of the world, which are constructed by individuals using different paths. Common understandings, then, regularly result from the social negotiation of meaning. Appreciating multiple perspectives is one of the critical processes of knowledge construction. By recognizing other views, as well as the influences that shape their own thinking, learners can develop and defend their own positions as well as respect those of others (Kunth & Cunningham, 1993). Furthermore, multiple perspectives serve the purpose of enlarging the range of application of the knowledge.

Learning through social interaction. Although Piaget mainly focused on the cognitive development of the individual, he did not overlook the effect of social interaction on learning. He claimed that equilibration must be applied to explain both individual and social systems. According to his theory, a given level of individual development allows participation in certain social interactions, which produce new individual states. These, in turn, make possible more sophisticated social interactions, and so on (Dillenbourg, Baker, Blaye, & O'Malley, 1994). However, it was Lev Vygotsky who explicitly emphasized the effects of the learner's cultural and social group on cognition (Woolfolk, 1995). Vygotsky believed that learning was developmental, but also heavily dependent on interaction with people in the learner's world. In his explanation of what facilitates a learner's development, he argued that the child constructs two kinds of concepts. One is a "spontaneous concept" constructed from a child's natural development (the child's reflections on everyday experience). The other is a "scientific concept," which originates from more structured instruction. As Vygotsky explained, "The development of a spontaneous concept must have reached a certain level for a child to be able to absorb a related scientific concept . . . Scientific concepts, in turn, supply structures for the upward consciousness and deliberate use. Scientific concepts grow downward through spontaneous concepts; spontaneous concepts grow upward through scientific concepts" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 194).

Based on the definitions of these different concepts, he postulated the phase where a child's natural development moved into systematic reasoning. According to Vygotsky, thinking and problem solving can be placed into three categories. At one extreme, some

problems can be solved independently by the child. At the other extreme, some problems are beyond the child's capabilities. Between these two extremes lies the zone of proximal development, where the child cannot solve a problem alone but can perform the task with the right kind of help from adults and peers. In Vygotsky's words, "The most effective learning occurs when the adult draws the child out to the jointly constructed 'potential' level of performance" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 49). Later, Bruner (1986) proposed the term "scaffolding" as the means by which adults, such as teachers or parents, provide learners with hints and props that allow them to begin a new way of thinking, and help them to go forward to their appreciation of significance.

One of the limitations of Vygotsky's theory is that his term "scientific conception" implies truth in the objective sense, and suggests a learner is supposed to absorb the adult's conceptual understanding. Fosnot (1996) argues that these assumptions reflected a residue of old paradigm: objectivism. To overcome this limitation, Cambourne defined scaffolding as the process of providing the child with new possibilities to consider, rather than as the transmission of knowledge. He highlighted the constructive nature of learning, describing scaffolding as 1) focusing on a learner's conceptions; 2) extending or challenging those conceptions; 3) refocusing by encouraging clarification; and 4) redirecting by offering new possibilities for consideration (Cambourne, 1988).

Learning in Context. Vygotsky's emphasis on the social situation in which learning occurs has had a great influence on one of the principles in constructivist pedagogy: learning in context. However, the term "context" is used in various ways, including real-life connections, authentic activities, and meaningful problem solving. In

the broad sense, context refers to the social aspects of learning or the qualities of the application environment. Most constructivist approaches focus on the particular aspect of context, namely, context of use. They believe that knowledge is best understood by looking at the use of the concept. Knowledge and application (context) cannot be separated (Prenzel & Mandle, 1993).

From the view of learning in context, Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989) developed situated learning. They criticized teaching practices that presented conceptual knowledge abstracted from the situation in which it occurred. They argue that “knowledge is situated and is partly a product of the activity, context and culture in which it is used.” (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). One example of this approach is the cognitive apprenticeship learning model. The main point of this model is that learning in the real world is not like studying in school. It is more like an apprenticeship, where novices take on more and more responsibility until they are able to function independently. In such an apprenticeship, modeling is critical. Modeling allows students to see how an expert solves problems. The most common application of the apprenticeship model is the internship experience such as medicine and teaching fields.

Another way of situating learning is anchored instruction. Bransford and his colleagues (1990) assert that knowledge is acquired through use in contextualized problem-solving situations rather than through the presentation of isolated facts. Problem solving contexts can generate interest and enable students to identify and define problems as well as pay attention to their own perception of these problems. This

instruction allows one to replicate some advantages of apprenticeship learning in the classroom. In other words, inert facts become conceptual tools that can be readily transferred to new problem-solving situations. Understanding a situation from new points of view, and noting contextual relevance is the key in anchored instruction. Thus, the emphasis is on the task, which includes research of relevant information and the development of strategies.

Furthermore, the context should be authentic. This authenticity means not only having a real-world of work, but also using authentic tools in a particular domain. The Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt (CTGV) designed anchored situation environments using video technology, providing a context rich in cues. For example, the Jasper Woodbury video program developed by CTGV provides simulations that put students in real problem situations where they must solve realistic problems. Through video clips from a videodisk, readings and teacher-supported discussions, students examine and collaboratively come up with solution to the problem which Jasper Woodbury faces in a specific context. During the process of problem solving, students have to use several types of math, inferencing skills, and other critical thinking skills.

Teachers' Role in Constructivist Learning.

Whereas in the traditional classroom, the teacher is the "sage on the stage" transmitting knowledge through recitation and lecture, the constructivist view holds that the teacher's role is the "guide on the side," facilitating or coaching students' largely autonomous learning processes. It is the job of the constructivist teacher to enable learners to learn how to learn, and hold learners in their zone of proximal development

by providing just enough help and guidance. Willis, Stephens, & Matthew (1996) affirm that the purpose of instruction is providing exploratory and problem-solving situations that allow the student to experiment, to make mistakes, and to work collaboratively with peers to find answers to problems. Brooks and Brooks (1993) provide twelve strategies to suggest ways for teachers to become constructivists in the classroom (see Table 1).

Fosnot (1989) explains what teachers will need to become constructivist teachers when she proposes reform in teacher-education programs. She contends that reform mandates development - empowered-teachers who can “ respond flexibly, critically, and creatively to the needs of the learner in relation to the needs of society” (p. 13). Based on the belief that teachers teach what they have been taught, she maintains that pre-service teachers should be familiar with reflecting on the learning experience, and questioning pedagogies as a learner. This experience as a learner can make them promote and facilitate learner-centered inquiry and investigation as teachers. Another requirement for a constructivist teacher is to be a researcher. Fieldwork in classroom settings as well as with individual students through asking questions of students, listening to their responses, and probing for understanding, can help the teacher learn thinking that is specifically contextual, interactive and speculative; this type of thinking benefits teachers in selecting instructional methods and making decisions.

Table 1. Constructivist Teaching Practices (adapted from Woolfolk, 1993, p. 487).

1. Constructivist teachers encourage and accept student autonomy and initiative.
2. Constructivist teachers use raw data and primary sources, along with manipulative, interactive, and physical material.
3. When framing tasks, constructivist teachers use cognitive terminology such as “classify,” “analyze,” “predict,” and “create.”
4. Constructivist teachers allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content.
5. Constructivist teachers inquire about students’ understandings of concepts before sharing their own understandings of those concepts.
6. Constructivist teachers encourage students to engage in dialogue, both with the teacher and with one another.
7. Constructivist teachers encourage student inquiry by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions and encouraging students to ask questions of one other.
8. Constructivist teachers seek elaboration of students initial responses.
9. Constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses and subsequently encourage discussion.
10. Constructivist teachers allow wait time after posing questions.
11. Constructivist teachers provide time for students to discover relationships and create metaphors.

Interaction in Language Learning

Importance of Interaction in Language Learning

When learners use language as a means of sharing ideas with other learners, they can have more opportunities to internalize second language structures. Rivers (1987) indicates that through real-life interaction, students can have opportunities to use language knowledge acquired from formal learning or absorbed from casual settings. Expressing their real meaning is important to students. Rivers maintains that, "Through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals." To better understand the advantage of interaction for language learning, the teacher needs to know what is valid input, and what output leads to enhanced language acquisition.

Interaction: Valid Input and Output for Language Learning

Input. In a broad sense, input means, "language in both spoken and written form to which the learner is exposed" (Gass & Selinker, 1994, p. 197). In the behaviorist view, input was the major driving force of second language learning, and imitation and memorization were crucially important to learn a language. As interest shifted away from this behaviorist view toward understanding of learners' innate language-learning systems, the notion of input began to be investigated from learners' perspectives. In this vein, Krashen (1985) specified comprehensible input as language that is slightly ahead of a learner's current state of grammatical knowledge. He claimed that language learners move from I, the learner's current level, to I +1, the next level, by understanding

the message containing the I +1 structure. This is done with the help of context or extra linguistic information (p. 21). Following this hypothesis, the language teacher needs to ensure that students receive a sufficient amount of comprehensible input.

One criticism of Krashen's theory is this hypothesis cannot be validated without defining the present stage of knowledge and the sufficient quantity of appropriate input (Gass & Selinker, 1994). The question of how extra-linguistic information facilitates acquisition and internalization of linguistic rules is also not addressed (Gregg, 1984). Another criticism is that if a learner does not have enough opportunity to use the language productively, he/she cannot digest semantic meanings to acquire syntactic structure. Swain (1985) provided empirical evidence that students who were in immersion classrooms for several years still could not produce native-like competence, although according to Krashen's claim, the learning situations are the most beneficial through comprehensible input. This suggested that comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient for learners to become fully proficient in a second language.

Elaborating on Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Swain proposed the Interaction Hypothesis: language use in interactional settings is crucial to make an input "comprehensive." This hypothesis plays a major role in redefining comprehensive input. The three main concepts of the hypothesis are; 1) comprehensible input is necessary for language acquisition; 2) conversational interactions (negotiation) makes the input comprehensible, and 3) comprehensible output aids learners in moving from semantic processing to syntactic processing (Swain, 1985).

Output. In Swain's Interaction Hypothesis, output is not considered a means to

generate more input for the learner. Rather, output allows learners to use what they know in a productive way. Comprehensible output thus refers to a message conveyed by the learner in a precise, coherent, and appropriate way (Swain, 1985) and output may be regarded as the final stage in the process of input (Young, 1988). Output contributes to language learning in several ways: first, output tests the interlanguage hypotheses concerning the structures and meanings of the target language. Second, it provides crucial feedback for the verification of these hypotheses. Third, it develops automatically in interlanguage production, and fourth, it forces a shift from more lexical and semantic processing of the second language to a more syntactic mode. For acquisition of a language, learners need to have not only have comprehensible input but also comprehensive output (Gass & Selinker, 1994. p. 213).

What is Interaction in Language Learning?

Linguistic interaction means conveying and receiving authentic messages in context. It is a collaborative activity involving the sender, the receiver and the context of a situation (Wells, 1981, pp. 46-47). In a narrow sense, interaction means oral exchanges in the target language between a learner and one or more interlocutors, all of whom are focused on some kind of activity in which the meaning of unclear words or structures is clarified (Long, 1983). Long lists seven categories of interaction in conversational frames: confirmation checks, comprehension checks, clarification requests, self-repetitions, other-repetitions, and expansions. Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) give the following definitions of three kinds of interactional modifications:

Confirmation checks: moves by which the listener seeks confirmation of the

speaker's preceding utterance through repetition, with rising intonation, of what was perceived to be all or part of the speaker's utterance.

Clarification requests: moves by which the listener seeks assistance in understanding the speaker's preceding utterance through questions or statements such as "I don't understand," or imperatives such as, "Please repeat."

Comprehension checks: moves by which the speaker attempts to determine whether the other listener has understood a preceding message (p. 740).

Negotiation in Interaction

Language learners' interaction becomes most efficient when they negotiate for mutual comprehension (Swain, 1985). Participants in conversations negotiate what was not understood. When the participants need to interrupt the flow of the conversation in order for one or both to understand what the conversation is about, negotiation provides the means for them to regain the flow (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Long (1983) explains that adjustments (interaction or negotiation) lead comprehension, comprehension causes acquisition, and logical adjustments also contribute to acquisition. Negotiation entails language modification to clarify a lack of understanding during the communication process. Specifically, negotiation is the evidence that a learner recognizes a problem of communication; a learner notices that there is something which needs to be modified to overcome the problem, and he or she is doing something to repair it (Bialystok, 1990).

Negotiation in non native speaker (NNS) discourse has two positive functions. One is that through the negotiation, such as confirmation checks (e.g., You said 'seven dwarfs'?), clarification requests (e.g., What?), and comprehension checks (e.g., Do you

understand?), second language learners have the opportunity to hear language which may be useful for later integration into their language system, and possibly express concepts beyond the learners' linguistic capacity (Plough & Gass, 1993). Second, negotiation focuses a learner's attention on the utterance which requires modification (Stevick, 1981). Schmidt (1990) strongly argued that attention to input is a necessary condition for any learning. In his "consciousness hypothesis," he claimed that focused tasks attract learners' attention and eventually promote language acquisition in the classroom.

Gass and Selinker (1994) state that language learning is not just a means of expressing ideas for communication, but is also an object of inquiry. This meta-linguistic awareness is often associated with an increased ability to learn a language. When a learner receives the feedback of non-understanding, the learner must modify the output. For this modification, a learner must become aware of a problem and seek to resolve it. In particular, non-native speakers who study rules of grammar or memorize vocabulary words often spend more time on meta-linguistic activities rather than on activities of pure use. This increased attention is the first step to grammatical acquisition (Swain, 1985). Gass and Selinker presume that interaction itself may not be sufficient to result in language acquisition, but instead initiates the process of modification of a language learner. To enhance acquisition, the classroom activities must be structured to provide a context wherein learners not only talk to their interlocutors, but negotiate meaning with them as well (Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993).

Interactional Competence

Pattison (1987) argues that language skills taught using correct sounds and

structures do not transfer to genuine communication. For this argument, Pattison highlights features of typical communication outside the classroom. In real-world communication, speakers express their own ideas, wishes, opinions, attitudes, and information. They are fully aware of the meaning they wish to convey because they have a social or personal reason to speak; they fill any information gaps to make clear an area of uncertainty, or to reach a decision. Moreover, real-world communication is interactional and focused on meaning. Two or more people pay attention and respond to what is said, rather than to how correctly it is said. Problems of communication are dealt with by negotiation and exchange of feedback between speakers.

These characteristics of real-world communication suggest that, in order to communicate successfully, learners must develop skills in the management of interaction and also in the negotiation of meaning, in addition to the correct sounds and structures of the language (Bygate, 1987). The management of interaction means knowing when and how to take the floor, when to introduce a topic or change the subject, how to invite someone else to speak, how to keep a conversation going, when and how to terminate the conversation, etc. Negotiation of meaning refers to the skill of making sure both interlocutors correctly understood each other and both are on the same topic. Bygate (1987) maintains that learners need to develop these skills from direct classroom practice in communicative interaction.

Young (1997) emphasizes the interactional aspects of communication by redefining what constitutes proficiency in a second language. Since Lado (1957) defined language proficiency as knowledge of linguistic levels (phonology, morphosyntax and

lexicon) and four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), the definition of language proficiency has been broadened. Hymes (1967) argues that knowing how to control linguistic knowledge is not enough. He adds to linguistic knowledge and skills the dimension of social appropriateness or social context: language in use. Canale and Swain (1980) apply Hymes's theory to second language learning to make a scheme of "communicative competence." They specify three other components of communicative competence besides linguistic competence; first, discourse competence refers to controlling written or conversational texts. Second, pragmatic competence indicates functions of a language like denying, accusing, and apologizing. Third, strategic competence refers to the ability to overcome difficulties when the speaker does not have the specific language for communication. Young (1997) maintains that all of these definitions of proficiency are similar in that they address only the characteristics of the individual learner. However, according to recent research in conversation analysis regarding how people interact in a face-to-face conversation, the degree of success or failure of a speech event depends on every participants' construction of communication. In other words, communicative events are co-constructed by all participants. Therefore, language proficiency should be considered in terms of interaction with other participants in a given interactive situation: Interactional Competence.

Young (1997) characterizes interactional competence in terms of five features: rhetorical script, specific lexis and syntactic structures, strategies for managing turns, topical organization, and means for signaling boundaries. First, rhetorical script refers to what interlocutors build up in a sequence of interaction. For example, when one

checks out in a supermarket, there is a script of procedure: the greeting (“How are you today?”), the response (“Pretty good.”), small talk (“It’s getting hot, isn’t it?”), the money transaction (“Cash or credit?”), and finally the farewell (“Have a nice day.”) (Schank & Abelson, 1977). Newcomers to the U.S. who do not know this script may find this procedure very challenging.

Second, in interaction, participants need to use specific words and grammatical items (specific lexis and syntactic structure). In the same example of the supermarket, if one does not know the meaning of “ATM,” the money transaction process takes more time than usual because it disrupts the process of the rhetorical script. Third, strategies for managing turns indicate how to take turns in a conversation. Different situations require different ways of turn taking. For example, in a classroom, students can take turns by raising their hands, but they need not do this while chatting with friends. Fourth, topical organization means that participants should know how they talk about a particular topic. A content area instruction uses a specific organization of communication; for example, in a math classroom, students learn not only math but also how to communicate mathematically. Fifth, means for signaling boundaries are about recognizing and stating the beginning and ending of a conversation. For example, in a tutoring session, a tutor might begin by asking, “What is your question?” Then, the student whom the tutor is working with recognizes the beginning of the conversation and takes a turn by stating a problem to be solved.

Rost (1998) proposes that second language teachers should teach their students specific strategies to promote interaction in conversation. Based on the analysis of

Table 2. Teachable Strategies to Promote Interaction in Conversation (from Rost, 1998).

Type	Strategy	Example
Clarification	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Check your understanding. 2. Ask about words you do not know. 3. Paraphrase 	<p>“What do you mean . . . ?”</p> <p>“What does _____ mean?”</p> <p>“Do you mean . . . ?”</p>
Coordination	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Start and end the conversation smoothly. 2. Change topics when necessary. 3. Change turn direction when necessary. 	<p>“Let’s go over this . . .”</p> <p>“OK, let’s go on to . . . ”</p> <p>“Now can you tell me . . . ?”</p>
Expansion	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ask for reasons and examples. 2. Ask follow up questions. 3. Initiate new topics. 	<p>“Why do you think so?”</p> <p>“What happened after that?”</p> <p>“Yes, but what do you think about . . . ?”</p>
Social	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Show interest in your partner. 2. Comment on what your partner says. 	<p>“Oh, really . . . “</p> <p>“That’s interesting . . .”</p>

conversational problems in English for second or foreign language learners, he developed four strategies: 1) clarification of problematic utterances to increase cohesion, 2) explicit extension and linking of topics to develop content, 3) coordination of speaking turns to optimize information flow, 4) social coordination to improve attitude. To teach these strategies, the teacher should first make students recognize confusion or needs for compensation during the conversation. Next, the teacher formulates a set of “teachable strategies” for use in the curriculum. Then, the teacher creates lessons, and demonstrates the strategies. In the lesson, students utilize specific conversational formats in context, and the students’ practice of these strategies should follow. Finally,

the teacher and students evaluate if the new use of the strategy affects interaction, understanding, or learning. Rost compiled the rankings of interaction strategies and presented a teaching methodology (see Table 2).

Collaborative Learning

Collaborative learning deals with instructional methods that seek to promote learning through collaborative efforts among students working on a given learning task. Much of the work has reported its positive effect on students' achievements and cognitive development (Johnson & Johnson, 1987; Sharan, 1989). This section deals with the necessary principles and components to successfully implement collaborative learning into instruction and discusses how collaborative learning improves second language learning.

Three Theories of Collaborative Learning

Three theories propose three different techniques: conflict resolution, community collaboration, and tutoring. First, Piagetian theory focuses on students' cognitive development when they confront another student who holds an opposing point of view on a task (Murry, 1994). Basically, two students who disagree about the answer to a problem, called a dyad, work together until they can agree or come to a common answer. The practice of using dyads works best if one of the students understands the task. However, cognitive development occurs when neither child knows the correct answer to the problem and each initially offers an incorrect answer that contradicts the other's answer. Second, Vygotskian theory gives great weight to a group's common perspectives and solutions to problems as they are arrived at through debate, argument,

negotiation, discussion, compromise, and dialectic. This collaboration by a community of learners is considered indispensable for cognitive growth. Third theory is called cognitive science theory. This theory emphasizes on reciprocal teaching as well as modeling, coaching and scaffolding. Reciprocal teaching, developed by Palincsar and Brown (1984), is a method of teaching reading in which the teacher and students take turns as the teacher. When a pupil takes a turn as the teacher, the teacher carefully coaches the pupil in summarizing a passage, formulating a question, and clarifying it.

Basic Elements of Collaborative Learning

In the field of collaborative learning, there are a number of diverse viewpoints, which can result in arguments over which approach is better or more correct (Davidson, 1994). However, there are critical attributes that enhance the effectiveness of cooperative efforts. Johnson & Johnson (1991, 1994) postulated those critical attributes in five frameworks: positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing.

Positive interdependence. Positive interdependence means shared responsibility for learning the assigned material among all members of a group. Positive interdependence exists when students perceive that they cannot achieve their goal unless their groupmates do and vice versa. This awareness, “sink or swim together,” maximizes the learning of all members by pooling their resources to provide mutual support. To supplement goal interdependence, then, each group member should receive the same reward if they succeed (Kagan, 1986). For example, each student receives bonus points if all members of the group achieve the criteria on tests. Finally, each

member takes complementary and interconnected roles that specify responsibilities required for completing group tasks. The roles can be specified as reader, recorder, checker of understanding, encourager of participation and elaborator of knowledge. O'Malley (1987) emphasized the importance of the selection of roles for peers. She reports that constructive collaboration takes place only if peers take appropriate roles.

Face-to-face interaction. Face to face interaction results from positive interdependence. This takes place when students support each other's learning by coaching each other, and sharing and encouraging learning efforts. Face to face interaction includes effective help and assistance such as exchanging needed resources and feedback, and challenging each other's reasoning in order to promote higher quality decision making and greater insight for group tasks.

Individual accountability / personal responsibility. Individual accountability means that each member does a fair share of the work. It is the key to ensuring that all group members get benefits from learning cooperatively. Individual accountability is promoted when the performance of individual students is assessed and the results are given back to both the individual and the group. Therefore, each student in a group should be aware of who needs assistance in order to reach the group's goals. Also, there should not be a "free rider." To assess how much effort each member is contributing to the group's work, a teacher should make the group small and give an individual test to each student. In addition to this, the teacher should randomly ask a student to explain or present the group's work. Observation and recording are other ways to account for individuals' contributions.

Table 3.

Example of Role Definition (adapted from Thousand, Villa, & Nevin, 1994, p. 218).

Role	Definition
Encourager/ Equalizer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Watch to make certain all group members are contributing. • Invite silent members to contribute by asking them for their opinions and help.
Timekeeper	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Notify the group of approaching time limits (e.g., 5 or 10 minutes). • Make sure tasks are completed within the time limit. • Move the group along to the next step in the assignment.
Checker	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Check to make certain each member can state each answer. • Check to make sure members agree on reasons for the answers. Check at any time during the discussion. • Try a “quiz” for each of the group member.
Recorder	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Write down any important problems, decisions, and any other academic work.
Reader	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read aloud to the group as often as possible.

Interpersonal and social skills. In order to complete group goals, students must get to know and trust each other (trust building), communicate accurately (communicating), and resolve conflict constructively (negotiating conflict). These social interaction skills should be taught explicitly to students to ensure high-quality collaboration (Hertz-Lazarowitz & Davidson, 1990). Social skills include ways students interact with each other to achieve activity or task objectives (Kessler, 1992).

Group processing. Group processing refers to reflecting consciously on group sessions to describe helpful and unhelpful actions and decide what actions to continue or

Table 4.

Task-and Group-Related Social Skills (adapted from W-B Olsen & Kagan, 1992, p. 13).

Task-related social skills	Group-related social skills
Asking for clarification	Acknowledging others' contributions
Asking for explanations	Appreciating others' contributions
Checking understanding of others	Asking others to contribute
Elaborating ideas of others	Praising others
Explaining ideas or concepts	Recognizing others
Giving information or explanations	Verifying consensus
Paraphrasing and summarizing	Keeping the group on task
Receiving explanations	Keeping conversation quiet and calm
Requesting clarification	Mediating disagreements about discrepancies

adjust. The purpose of processing is to improve individual members' effectiveness in collaborating so as to ensure achievement of the group's goal. For this cognitive and metacognitive process, students should have some time at the end of each class session to process and reflect on the effectiveness of the group work. Teachers should systematically observe and give feedback to facilitate this processing. A valuable aspect of group processing is celebration, or feeling successful in learning.

Three Models

In the field of collaborative learning, several models have been developed by scholars based on different orientations. The Student Team Learning (STL) model was developed by Slavin (1990) and his associates. This model includes Student Teams Achievement Divisions (STAD), Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT), and Jigsaw. One of the distinctive features of this model is that positive interdependence is structured in a

variety of ways. Johnson & Johnson (1991) designed a conceptual approach known as ‘Learning Together.’ Meanwhile, Kagan (1989) emphasizes a Structural Approach. This approach derives its name from the use of various simple group structures that teachers can easily add to their existing set of structures and use immediately. Sharan & Sharan (1992) developed the Group Investigation model, which divides a complex topic into multiple subtopics. Finally, Cohen (1986) is associated with Complex Instruction. In this model, members of groups work together rather than separating into individual investigations. No one model is superior to others, because most of the models share the five basic elements of collaborative learning, although they reflect diverse viewpoints in different context.

This section describes distinctive features of three models that emphasize social skills and team-building activities. From the Constructivist view, collaborative learning does not simply mean sharing a workload or coming to a consensus (Bednar et al.,1992). Rather, the goal of collaborative learning is to develop, compare, and understand multiple perspectives on an issue within a given task or project. Although respect for others’ views is important, the ultimate goal is to search for the evidence and evaluate it. However, this does not suggest a competitive endeavor. Different views can be supported by different evidence and different arguments. Multiple abilities of students can contribute to better and deeper knowledge construction.

Learning together. The Learning Together model is particularly suitable for conceptual learning requiring more discussion, explanation, and elaboration. Tasks require students to reach a consensus and to be able to explain their group’s reasoning or

strategies. The focus of this model is on basic principles of interdependence. Students perceive that they can reach their learning goals if and only if their groupmates also reach their goals. Individual accountability is attained by checking responses on individual worksheets, and then randomly selecting one group member to explain. Roles are assigned and rotated frequently so each member's role is essential to the group's functioning. The teacher's role is to specify the academic task and the social objectives in advance, and to help the group to build trust. During the task, the teacher fosters group interaction, facilitates group decision making, continues to build trust, and manages conflict (Davidson, 1994).

The Structural Approach. The Structural Approach (Kagan, 1992) is a content-free way of organizing different classroom behaviors. This approach includes structures for practice and mastery, critical thinking, information sharing, etc. Different structures are used for different types of tasks. Also this approach incorporates procedures from other models of collaborative learning. The teacher combines and sequences these procedures and structures appropriately for the task at hand. Along with Johnson's five basic elements, Kagan stresses "simultaneous interaction." The goal of the Structural Approach is to maximize the number of students who can speak at any given time. For example, a structure like 'Numbered Heads Together' (Kagan, 1989) is used as a means of maximizing simultaneous interaction. Numbered Heads Together consists of four steps. First, students within a group number off. Second, the teacher asks a "high-consensus" question. Third, students put their heads together to make sure everyone on the team knows the answer. Fourth, when the teacher calls a number, only students with

that number can raise their hands if they know the answer. In contrast to the whole-class question and answer format, this structure is not competitive and every student can have a chance to speak. Furthermore, because nobody knows which number will be called out, high achievers and low achievers can share and listen to the answers willingly and carefully.

Social skills are explicitly taught through a “structured natural approach.”

Teachers establish and provide important information about each social skill that may be found. After selecting the skill-of-the-week, the teacher develops roles that use the skill. Like the teacher’s role in the “Learning Together Model,” this approach requires the teacher to select academic and social goals. Also, the teacher employs a cooperative classroom management system that includes components such as the quiet signal, the setting of class rules, and the use of a positive public recognition system.

Complex Instruction. In Complex Instruction, the class is divided into groups of four or five. Each group has a different learning station and roles are assigned to group members. Conceptual learning, including the development of thinking skills and problem-solving strategies, is the main objective. This objective should be based on interpersonal interactions of talking and working together. Social skills are taught through social learning theory. New behaviors are labeled and discussed, recognized, practiced and reinforced. Therefore, cooperative behaviors are learned through structured games and exercises during group work.

Multiple-ability tasks requiring cognitive, psychomotor, visual, organizing skills, etc., are designed to incorporate various levels of performance. Thus, each individual is

able to have chance to contribute to accomplish the task with their unique talents and knowledge. The multi-ability orientation can be beneficial, particularly to encourage low-status students' involvement. For this purpose, the teacher first identifies low-status students and their competent areas. By calling it to the attention of other teammates, the students are publicly recognized as competent in one area and expand their competency to other areas.

The teacher's role involves assigning groups and roles, describing specific cooperative behaviors, and giving clear, specific orientation and instruction for the task. During group work the teacher asks questions to stimulate and extend students' thinking, and addresses students' status issues, if necessary.

Impact on Second Language Learning

Some principles from current first and second language learning theory support why language learners gain language proficiency better with a collaborative approach than with teacher-directed instruction (Enright & McCloskey, 1985). The principle holds that a learner acquires language by using language, and the focus in language learning is on meaning and social function rather than form. In collaborative learning, students are able to have more opportunities to use language than in traditional classrooms, where students are called upon one at a time (Long & Porter, 1985). During the class question and answer time in traditional classroom, teachers are supposed to talk twice for each time a student talks, because teachers first ask questions and then must provide feedback in the form of praise, comments, or correction. For example, if each student in a classroom of 30 talks for one minute, it will actually require around 90 minutes

Table 5.

Analysis of Three Collaborative Learning Models (adapted from Davidson, 1994, p. 26).

	Learning Together	Structural Approach	Complex Instruction
Goals	Mutual learning goals: Make sure everyone learns	Sometimes to produce a group product	Conceptual learning goals like problem solving
Tasks	Require ability to explain reasoning or strategies	Designed so students' products cannot be done alone	Require multiple abilities
Teaching of social skills	Highly emphasized	Using structured natural approach	Using Social Learning theory
Climate setting	Trust-building activities	Team-building	Cooperative norms and training
Attention to student status	Not emphasized	Not emphasized	Highly emphasized
Teacher's role	Special academic and social objectives; monitors and intervenes during group work	Chooses appropriate cooperative structure; observes and consults during group work; employs cooperative classroom management system	Setting cooperative rules and specific cooperative behaviors; stimulates and extends students' thinking through questioning.

classroom hour including teachers' questions and feedback. In contrast, to provide each student one minute in a group of five students would only take about five minutes. This advantage of collaborative learning over the traditional teacher-directed classroom fosters students' language fluency by allowing for a greater amount of output (Kagan, 1995).

Accurate input, which is grammatically correct with proper word choice and pronunciation, also aids language acquisition. For this point, traditional language teaching methods may have an advantage over collaborative learning because peer output is less accurate than teacher output. However, the overemphasis on accuracy in the traditional classroom seriously prevents students from producing output (Kagan, 1995). In contrast, collaborative learning provides a setting for frequent communicative output. Also, it yields a far higher proportion of comprehensible input because students working in a group need to make themselves understood and naturally adjust their input to make it comprehensible.

The literature on collaborative learning has striking parallels with that of communicative curriculum design for language teaching and learning (Kessler, 1992). That is mainly because the social skills required for cooperative group work support the linguistic objectives of a communicative curriculum. In Kagan's (1987) list of cooperative skills, including specific communicative acts, many social skills can be regarded as oral communication skills. While students develop specific group skills, they can practice corresponding language functions as well. Coelho (1992) stresses that conversational skills such as effective turn-taking, disagreeing, and paraphrasing need

linguistic strategies to convey the intentions of participants in the group process. The use of the language function ultimately aims at understanding language through the negotiation of meaning. The ability to recognize and use these strategies is indispensable for interacting effectively with peers and adults in a variety of relationships. These skills are usually exercised only by the teacher in a traditional teacher-directed classroom (Pica & Doughty, 1985). Particularly, in terms of second language acquisition, the functional approach that focuses on what the learner can do with language supports collaborative learning methodology. Kagan (1995) asserts that there is “natural marriage” between collaborative learning and the ESL classroom.

Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning originated from John Dewey's progressive educational philosophy in the 1920's, which focused on active engagement in projects, firsthand direct experience with the environment, and learning by doing. Later, it was adopted by the open education movement in the 1960's, and supported by Piaget's work. In the mid-1970's, project-based learning began to fade because of a resurgence of loyalty to formal-traditional methods, pressures from parents to ensure their children's academic success, and lack of sufficient support for the progressive-open methods. However, current research on children's development and learning supports the proposition that the project approach is an appropriate way to stimulate and enhance children's intellectual and social development (Katz & Chard, 1989). Although studies about project-based learning mainly target early childhood education, the application of project-based learning to higher levels of students has become an increasingly effective way to engage

students because it evokes students' intrinsic motivation, based on interest in the work and the appeal of the activities themselves.

Definition

In general, a project means an in-depth investigation of a topic worth learning more about (Katz, 1994). The investigation is usually undertaken by a small group of students within a class, or sometimes by a whole class or an individual student. Projects usually involve students in advanced planning and in various activities that require several days or weeks of sustained effort (Katz & Chard, 1989). The key feature of a project is that it is a research effort deliberately focused on finding answers to questions about a topic posed by students themselves or the teacher. The goal of a project is to learn more about the topic rather than to seek right answers to questions. There are some evident compared to traditional instruction. For example, projects go beyond helping learners with acquiring skills, instead providing students with opportunities to apply skills. The emphasis of project-based learning is not on deficiencies but rather on proficiencies in students' learning. It stresses intrinsic motivation and encourages children to determine what to work on, accepting them as experts about their needs.

For some constructivists, project-based learning is a valid path that invites authenticity into the instruction (Honebein, et. al., 1993). Authentic activity is one of the most important features of the constructivist instructional approach, which emphasizes learning in context. Functioning successfully in the environment requires the ability to notice when particular skills and information are called for, and how to apply those skills and that knowledge to solve a real world problem. Authentic activity involves not so

much mastering the information in a textbook or using test-taking skills, but rather using the information in the textbook to solve real-world problems.

According to Honebein et. al. (1993), a project consists of global and local entities. “Global” refers to the entire task and “local” indicates sub-tasks. For example, a global task can be creating an advertising campaign and its local tasks may be establishing creative strategies or writing copy. The “global” task strongly influences the purpose for learning and thus determines the resources the learner will use for the task, the organization of those resources, and the attitude in the task environment. As Honebein et. al. (1993) point out, the main point of project-based learning is the fact that the learning activity has a purpose that goes beyond simply demonstrating mastery of the local tasks. Instead, the purpose for a learning activity is driven by the global project context. Based on this larger context, the learner will set specific criteria for the understanding and expectations of what is ultimately learned. Constructivists propose that a ‘larger task,’ or context in which the learning is situated, is essential.

A Successful Example: Reggio Emilia

A successful model of project-based learning is in a preschool program in Reggio Emilia, a community in northern Italy. For the past twenty six-years, this city has committed 12 percent of the town budget to high quality child care for children six years and under. Their early childhood system has been internationally recognized and there is much interest in bringing their system to the U.S.A. and other countries. The system’s emphasis on children’s symbolic languages in the context of a project-oriented curriculum has attracted special attention. From the model of Reggio Emilia, the

features of project-based learning can be summarized as follows.

The underpinnings for the philosophy of Reggio Emilian preschools are best described as those of a constructivist learning theory. Children are seen in these preschools as constructive in their development of knowledge and understanding. The image of the child is that the child is capable and competent. Children are expected to have high competency and long attention spans, as long as activities in which they are involved match their lives and interests. Thus, Reggio teachers believe that children have the right to spend extended periods of time exploring and investigating their world without frequent transitions and adults' interruptions (Katz, 1993). Also, they are viewed as embedded within a community where knowledge is socially co-constructed through interactions among peers and between adults and children. Constructivists state that child learning involves not only children's interaction with the physical environment, but also their active interaction with the people around them. Engaging in conversation with people strengthens children's abilities to communicate, express themselves and reason (Katz & Chard, 1989).

The most unique feature of the project approach in Reggio Emilia is the documentation of children's experience as a standard part of classroom practice (Katz & Chard, 1996). Documentation is not brand-new, because it has long been used as a way to observe children and to keep extensive records. However, documentation in Reggio Emilia is unique in that it focuses on the various symbolic representations of the children's investigation processes. It includes samples of a child's work at several different stages of completion, comments, and written reflections on the process.

Photographs and transcriptions of tape recordings can also be included. The works are usually displayed in classrooms or hallways. There is a particular assumption on how children express themselves underlying the use of documentation. Educators in Reggio Emilia believe that children use diverse forms of symbolic languages: drawing, painting, dramatic play, music, etc. These alternate languages help adults to understand what children are thinking and how they are constructing the world around them.

Additionally, the children' diverse symbolic representations also serve to extend and enhance their development of creative expression, social communication and cognitive representation of concepts. Malaguzzi (1993) contends that creativity is a natural consequence of a variety of experiences and freedom of expression.

A high quality of documentation in project-based learning contributes a lot to the early childhood program. Preparing and displaying documentaries provides a debriefing or revisiting of experience so that understandings can be clarified and deepened. In addition, it encourages children to adopt a new representational technique that other children might use. Documentation is a clear way to indicate that children's ideas and efforts are taken seriously. The salient benefit of documentation is that it provides a valuable source for teacher planning and evaluation with children. Through documentation, teachers can become aware of the participation and development of each child. This awareness enables the teacher to optimize the children's chances of representing their ideas in interesting and satisfying ways.

Three Phases of Project-Based Learning

Project-based learning can be divided into three phases (see Table 5). In phase

one, students and the teacher devote several discussion periods to selecting and refining the topic to be investigated. The discussion is based on teachers' observation and questioning of students about topics of interest, where the students recall their past experiences related to the topic. In selecting topics, several criteria can be considered. First, the topic should be closely related to the students' everyday experience. Second, the topic should allow for integrating a range of subjects such as science, social studies, and language arts. Third, the topic should be rich enough so it can be explored for at least a week. The topic to be investigated may derive directly from teacher observations of students' spontaneous play and exploration. Project topics are also selected on the basis of an academic curiosity or social concern on the part of teachers or parents (New, 1993). Once the topic has been selected, teachers usually begin by making a web, or concept map, on the basis of brainstorming with the students. Displaying a web of the topic and associated subtopics can be used for continuous debriefing discussions as the project work proceeds. Often, long-term projects are based on the reciprocal nature of teacher-directed and child-initiated activity.

In phase two, the main emphasis is on introducing new information. Students investigate using books and other research materials, observe closely, record findings, construct models, discuss and dramatize their new understandings (Chard, 1992). During this process, students are encouraged to depict their understanding through one of many symbolic languages, including drawing, sculpture, dramatic play, and writing. They work together toward the resolution of problems that arise. Projects often move in anticipated directions as a result of problems that children identify. Thus, curriculum

planning and implementation are open-ended. An important role of the teacher during this phase is to encourage students's independent use of the skills they already have.

In phase three, students prepare and present reports of results in the form of displays of findings and artifacts, talk, dramatic presentations, or guided tours of their construction. Activities undertaken during the second phase of the project can generate informative products such as individual project folders, class books, and wall displays. Through the presentation, students have opportunity to represent their understanding and knowledge acquired in phase two and share them with other students. The purpose of the presentations is primarily communication rather than performance. Students can learn to explain, describe, report, and record how they worked on their projects and in doing so reflect the process of learning. Katz & Chard (1989) propose that if children are accustomed to this kind of experience from an early age, they will not be overawed by an audience.

Effect on Language Learning

Appropriate communicative skills can be developed as children work cooperatively, questioning, speculating, reasoning, inferring, and explaining their project-related work and actions. Students use language purposefully as they involve themselves in these activities. Project work offers rich content for conversation not only on the topic itself, but also on the shared experience of the processes involved in the work. Communicative competence can be strengthened when students are encouraged to ask for each other's advice, tell each other what they are planning to do, and ask each other questions about their work and progress in the project. In addition, project work

Table 6. Checklist in Three Phases of a Project (based on Chard, 1997).

Phase	Main activities	Teachers' concerns
1	Discussion to determine topic (Brainstorming, Idea mapping)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What prior experiences of the topic have the students had? • What do the students know about the different elements of their experiences? • How well can they explain processes, sequences, causes and effects?
2	Investigation Constructing models Symbolizing understanding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where can the students go to see things happening? • Whom can they talk to about the topic they are studying? • What can they represent in the classroom and how? • What resources can be introduced in the classroom for the students to study? • What kinds of assessment strategies can be used to monitor their learning?
3	Presentation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How can the project be brought to a close? • What kind of culminating activity/event could be organized? • What might be some transitions to another topic? • What are some assessment and summative evaluation strategies to use?

requires students to use their academic language skills -- that is reading and writing as students record observations, describe experiences, and note what they have found in books (Katz & Chard, 1989).

Hilton-Jones (1988) reported the positive effects of project-based learning on teaching English as a foreign language. According to the report, project work made it possible to cater to the varied needs of a mixed-ability group of learners through individual choice of project topics, which led to writing based on the language level previously achieved. However, the project did not only recycle knowledge already learned, but also served to make students aware of their further language learning needs. Lexis and structures were supplied to them that were unknown, but that they wanted to incorporate in their writing. It was also demonstrated that language learning can take place even if traditional linguistic objectives were not always superior to other objectives (e.g., cultural studies, cognitive development through problem-solving, social learning through co-operation in pair and small groups), as seemed to have been the case in students' previous English learning experience. This meant that language was produced as a natural by-product of other types of learning. Project work provided interest and concern so that students could practice language for fluency. The relevant principle of practice is that sustained interaction requires content that is relevant, vivid, engaging, significant, and meaningful to the participants.

Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching

Since the 1980's, the use of tasks has been gaining increased attention as a productive analytical unit for both language teaching and the second language syllabus

design. In spite of this acceptance, however current definitions of tasks in general and communication tasks in particular vary widely according to several scholars working from different perspectives (Gass & Crookes, 1993). In this section, the communicative task is highlighted as a new concept for syllabus design. Furthermore, for effective selection and sequencing of tasks in a syllabus, different task types are examined in terms of interaction between language learners.

Multiplicity in Definition

The most general definition of tasks was proposed by Long (1985) using everyday, nontechnical terms. He defined a task as follows: “a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for other, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of task include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form . . . in other words, by ‘task’ is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between” (Long, 1985, p.89). From a pedagogical perspectives, Crookes suggested that a task is “a piece of work or an activity, usually with a specified objective, undertaken as part of an educational course, at work or used to elicit data for research” (Crookes, 1986, p. 1). For the instructional role of tasks in the second language classroom, however, the definitions of a task become narrow. For Breen, a task is “a range of work plans which have the overall purpose of facilitating language learning from the simple and brief exercise type to more complex and lengthy activities, such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making ” (Breen, 1987, p. 23).

Candlin (1987) presents several variables in constituting an instructional task with this complex definition: “one of a set of differentiated, sequential, problem-posing

activities involving learners' cognitive and communicative procedures applied to existing and new knowledge in the collective exploration and pursuance of foreseen or emergent goals within a social milieu" (p. 7). Swales (1990), meanwhile criticizes Breen's all-encompassing view, suggesting that the "simple and brief exercise type" can be regarded as an end in itself. He expanded Candlin's definition by adding another variable, that is genre. Swales stresses that a task must enable, support and be directed to a long-term goal. As he writes, a task is "one of a set of differentiated, sequential goal-directed activities drawing upon a range of cognitive and communicative procedures relatable to the acquisition of pre-genre and genre skills appropriate to a foreseen or emerging sociotheoretical situation" (p. 76).

Meanwhile, Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) focused on the fact that tasks are concerned with communicative language with their definition:

... an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e., as a response). For example drawing a map while listening to a tap, listening to an instruction and performing a command, may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make teaching more communicative ... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake (p. 289).

Following this definition, Nunan (1993) came up with a specific type of tasks called a

“communicative task,” which is defined as “a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form” (p. 59).

New Concept for Syllabus Design

According to Nunan (1989), communicative language teaching has had a profound effect on the language teaching methodology and syllabus design. Also, it has greatly enhanced the status of the learning task within the curriculum. When communication take the center of the curriculum, the curriculum must take into account of the goal of the curriculum (content), and the means of the curriculum (methodology) at the same time (Breen, 1984). Nunan (1989) contrasts the traditional approach to curriculum design to the task-based curriculum design in this way. In the traditional approach to curriculum design, the curriculum designer first decides on the goals and objectives of instruction. Then, the curriculum content is specified, and based on this, the learning experiences are decided upon. The final step is establishing the means for assessing learners and evaluating the curriculum. However, the task-based approach to curriculum design has more flexibility because, content and tasks are developed together. In other words, specification of content and development of learning tasks occurs simultaneously, so content can suggest tasks and vice versa. Following the goals in a curriculum, the syllabus would evolve in the course of preparing the program, rather than preceding the specification of learning tasks and other exercise types. Therefore, a syllabus writer might first find or create an interesting and relevant text and task at the appropriate level of difficulty, rather than explicitly identifying particular linguistic or

functional items.

Designing language learning tasks requires a vast amount of imagination and creativity on the part of syllabus and materials designers (Kumaravadivelu, 1993). Pre-sequenced syllabus specification has lost its dominance, and instructional materials can only indicate content in the form of tasks, leaving the actual language to be negotiated. Thus, a collection of instructional materials can be source books rather than course books (Prabhu, 1987). The language item that is needed to perform a task emerges from learners' negotiation in the process of carrying out the task. Language learning is not linear and additive, but instead is largely a subconscious and meaning-focused activity (Candlin, 1987). At this point, the teachers' role is highly important because it is the teachers who choose and sequence a set of tasks suitable for the specific learners' needs (Kumaravadivelu, 1993). In practice, sequencing input mainly is driven by teacher's intuitive considerations rather than by objective principles (Long, 1985). Therefore, depending on the interaction between the learner, the task and the task situation, learning outcomes are quite unpredictable (Breen, 1987).

Types of Communicative Tasks

What concerns Nunan (1993) is how to achieve rational articulation in selecting, sequencing and integrating tasks in task-based syllabus design. In terms of the communicative task, he proposes a process of curriculum development. The process starts with a needs analysis to obtain information about proficiency, learner's goals, preferences, etc. The second phase is grouping learners according to proficiency, goals, learning style, etc. The third phase is selecting tasks with reference to the kinds of things

learners will need to do outside the classroom and with reference to a theory of learning and learner preference, while the final phase is to select linguistic elements with reference to tasks.

Selecting and sequencing are carried out based on prioritization of learner need, but they also depends on notions of difficulty. Determining difficulty is complicated because of the number of factors involved, such as goals, input data, activities/procedures, teacher roles, learner roles, settings, and the interaction among them. Still, the illustration of different task types resulting from various relevant factors can serve to link the different tasks to learners' production and also aid in selecting and sequencing tasks as a guideline for syllabus design.

Open and closed tasks. In terms of the information that learners exchange, tasks can be distinguished as open and closed tasks (Long, 1989; Loschky, 1988). In an open task, learners exchange information in relatively unrestricted way, while in a closed task, the information should be exchanged determinately to complete the task. Closed tasks require more negotiation of meaning to facilitate comprehension and more focus on the language form (Pica et. al., 1993). Long (1989) describes closed tasks as the learner's attempt to reach a single correct solution determined by task designer in advance. Reaching the single correct solution will require structural accuracy, so a closed tasks are more suitable for teaching grammar.

One-way and two-way tasks. Another category for communication task types is made by the difference between one-way and two-way tasks. The distinction is based on the interactional relationship during the flow of information. In a one-way task, either

one of the interlocutors holds and supplies all the information related to task completion, while the other takes the role of requester. In a two-way task, neither interlocutor is given all of the information, so to accomplish the task, interaction is absolutely required of them in a mutual relationship. Long (1981) claims that more negotiation occurs in two-way tasks, but Gass & Varonis (1985) report the opposite may be true when participants in the task share background knowledge during the two-way task. Other criteria, such as learner goals, the complexity of input, the type of activity and participant orientation and classroom setting all contribute to the complexity of a task (Nunan, 1993).

Interlocutor familiarity. The familiarity between interlocutors affects the occurrence of interactional features of non-native speakers to non-native speakers (NNS-NNS). Gass & Varonis (1985) showed that less negotiation exists between unfamiliar NNS-NNS than it does between familiar NNS-NNS. In another study concerning interlocutor familiarity, Plough & Gass (1993) noted that at the beginning unfamiliar pairs showed fewer instances of clarification and confirmation checks and used more conversational constituents to ensure a smooth flow of conversation. Familiar pairs used the non-understanding signs more often because their relationship needed less face-saving. Based on the assumption that indicators of non-understanding facilitate language acquisition, familiarity between non-native speakers is a positive variable. Still, the existence of negotiation does not fully dependent on external variables. Individuals' own personal style also affects the response made during a speaker's utterance such as "Uh huh", "Umm", or "Yeah."

Task familiarity and complexity. The familiarity and complexity of the tasks can be other factors to consider in selecting and sequencing tasks. Wong-Fillmore found that children's comprehension increased with regular and consistent lessons. However, another study (Plough & Gass, 1993) with adult subjects reached the conclusion that a task-unfamiliar group becomes more actively involved with the task than a task-familiar group. In the study, the task-familiar groups displayed disinterest with the task and exited from the task early. Task complexity also affects the identification of the type of task. Shortreed (1993) supported the hypothesis that native speakers (NS) would simplify their speech and use a higher frequency of interactional modification in accordance with the task's complexity. With the two tasks differing in the amount of shared reference and required production levels, his study supported the hypothesis that in the NS-NNS dyad, NSs use a higher frequency of interactional modifications with relatively more complex tasks.

Interactional Activity and Communication Goals in a Task

Pica, et. al. (1993) proposed comprehensive task types based on two main features of communication tasks, each feature differentiated from other classroom activities or other tasks in general: interactional activity and communication goals. In reference to these two features, they investigated opportunities for learners to gain assistance with comprehension of second language input, to receive feedback on the comprehensibility of their interlanguage output, and to respond to feedback through modification of their interlanguage. The investigation shows four conditions that optimize those three opportunities. First, each interlocutor holds a different portion of information that must

be exchanged and manipulated in order to reach the task outcome. Second, both interlocutors are required to request and supply this information to each other. Third, their interaction must have similar or convergent goals. Fourth, only one acceptable outcome is possible from their attempts to meet this goal.

Based on the four conditions, five different tasks, specifically jigsaw, information-gap, problem-solving, decision-making and opinion exchange, were examined to find out which tasks contribute most to provide the greatest opportunity for students to interact in seeking comprehensible input and modify their output for communication. Their analysis shows that participants (indicated as “X” and “Y” in Table 7.) in jigsaw tasks hold multiple roles as information holders, suppliers, and requesters, and information is exchanged in two ways to complete the task. The participants are expected to achieve a convergent, single outcome. This means the jigsaw task satisfies above the four conditions and thus can be considered the type of task that most likely to generate comprehensible input and modification.

The information gap task is different from the jigsaw task in that only one interlocutor has access to the information and the information flows only in one way. In this task, the information holder may get feedback on production, but has fewer opportunities to seek help with unclear input. On the contrary, the information-requester would have more opportunities to seek modification of unclear input, but less chance to modify production. Each of the other three tasks, problem-solving, decision-making, and opinion exchange, are characterized by the interlocutors sharing access to the information needed for task completion, and necessarily interacting to carry out the task.

Table 7.

Types for Second Language Research and Pedagogy Analysis (adapted from Pica et. al., 1993, p. 19).

Task type	Information holder/ requester/ supplier	Interaction Relationship	Interaction Requirement	Goal Orientation	Out-come
Jigsaw	X&Y	Two way	Required	Convergent	1
Information gap	X or Y	One way	Required	Convergent	1
Problem-solving	X = Y	Two way	Not required	Convergent	1
Decision-making	X = Y	Two way	Not required	Convergent	1+
Opinion exchange	X = Y	Two way	Not required	Divergent	1+/-

One participant can work individually, using the information to solve the problem, make the decision, or express an opinion. In contrast, problem-solving tasks have a single goal, which generates opportunities for interaction amount participants to work toward making themselves mutually understood. Opinion exchange tasks, meanwhile can be seen as the most unlikely to generate comprehension, feedback and modified production.

Components of a Task

Nunan (1989) considers the components of a task to be goals, input, activities, and finally the roles implied for the teacher and learners. The first three components are particularly important in selecting, adapting, modifying and creating tasks for language learning. The definition or description of the components can reveal the characteristics

that differentiate tasks from other exercise and activity.

Goals are the general intentions behind any given learning task. They may relate to a range of general outcomes or describe teacher or learner behavior. The goal types ranges from communicative, socio-cultural, or cognitive, to language /cultural awareness (Clark, 1987). In some cases, a task involves several goals and activities.

Input refers to the verbal or non-verbal data from which an activity is derived. Authentic materials which have not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching, such as social security forms, or hotel brochures, provide useful input for tasks.

Meanwhile, activities specify what learners will actually do with the input. Activities are classified into two categories: skill getting and skill using. Skill getting activities refer to the controlled practice activities through manipulating phonological and grammatical forms, while skill using activities require learners to apply their newly-acquired mastery of linguistic forms to the production of communicative language. In a task, these three components are integrated and determine the task type.

In Chapter Two, for the purpose of exploring the appropriate teaching principle for my target level, I reviewed constructivist view of learning, the importance of interaction in language learning, and three other approaches: collaborative learning, project-based learning, and finally task-based learning. In the next chapter, I will present how these components will be integrated in a theoretical framework.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

After reviewing the literature, I propose a theoretical framework that consists of three successive nested dimensions: a pedagogical philosophy, which leads to a set of language teaching principles, which determine teaching strategies. This framework is posited on constructivist philosophy because, if teachers have no pedagogical philosophy undergirding their teaching principles and strategies, they may lack clear objectives and a strong rationale why they should need them. Thus, their teaching will be inconsistent and apt to lose direction and impact. Also, without a change of pedagogical philosophy, any changes in teaching principles and strategies may be superficial and fail to accomplish their purpose.

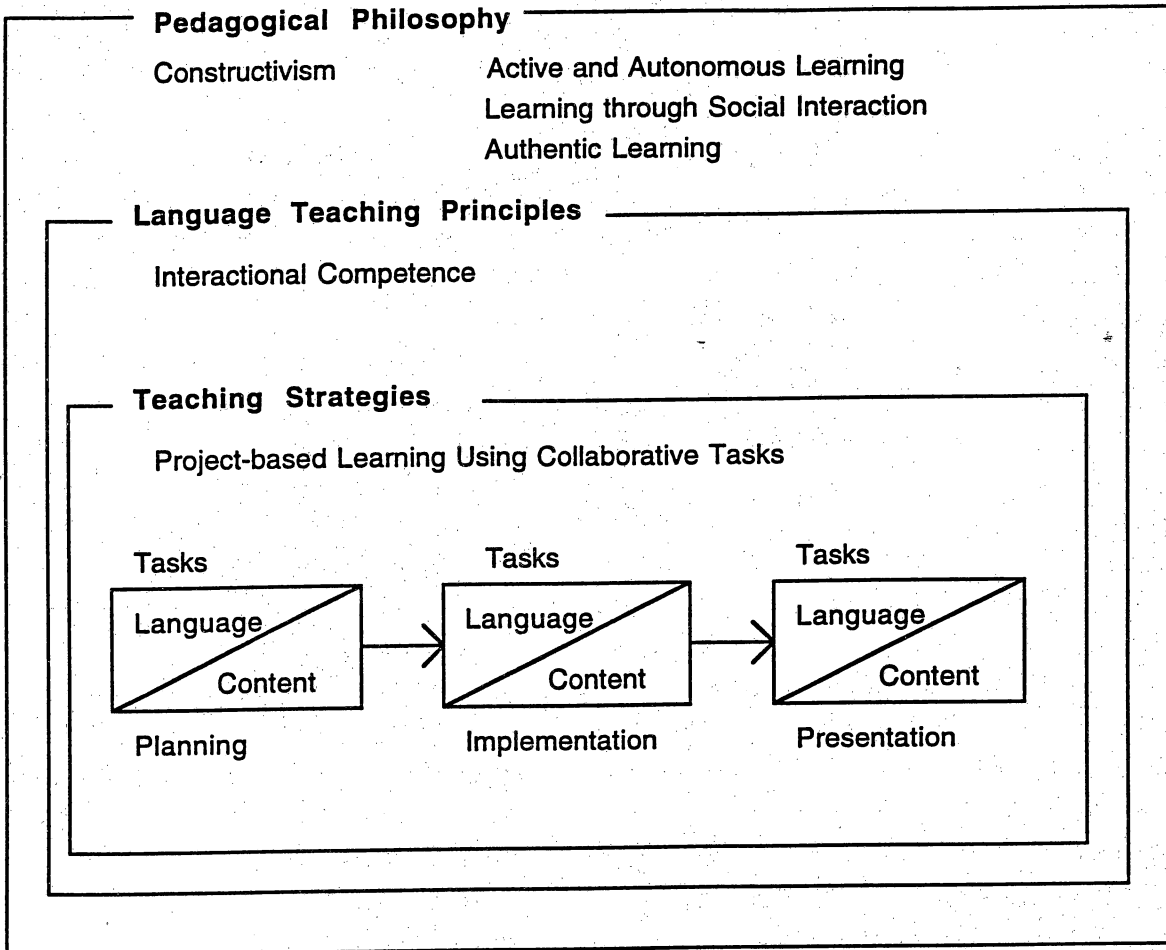
Therefore, based on constructivist assumptions of learning and teaching, I derive language teaching principles from interactional competence theory. In the same vein, my teaching strategies are selected to implement these teaching principles by creating an environment to optimize the principles' effects. This correlatedness among pedagogical philosophy, language teaching principles and teaching strategies can provide solid ground for improving teaching English at my target level, vocational junior college. In the following section, I will discuss each of these three dimensions in detail.

Pedagogical Philosophy: Constructivism

Empowering Students for Active and Autonomous Learning

The dominance of behavioristic assumptions in learning and teaching in Korea has made students passive learners. To counter this drawback, students should be

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of the Curriculum Design



empowered as active and autonomous learners. In the constructivist view, knowing is a constructive process, and students build on their own internal representations of knowledge. Through generating hypotheses from prior knowledge, and testing them, they actively construct knowledge, searching for meaning. They are able to take responsibility for establishing and monitoring their goals and strategies. The teacher loses the spotlight in the classroom and steps down from the “stage” to construct meaning with students and facilitate their learning process. Consequently, students take a central position in learning (Brooks & Brooks, 1993).

Promoting Learning through Social Interaction

A pedagogical philosophy based on constructivism emphasizes social interaction with teachers and peers. Because of large classroom sizes and teacher-dominated instruction, a lack of social interaction in learning and teaching in Korea is prevalent. However, by promoting learning through social interaction with appropriate principles and strategies, the teachers can provide more successful and effective learning. As active learners, students can enhance their learning through social interaction. With the right kind of help from teachers and peers, students can expand their capabilities in problem solving and raise their potential level of performance. Vygotsky’s theory of the zone of proximal development provides a strong rationale for learning through social interaction. By working with more knowledgeable others, students are able to have learning experiences which would be impossible for them otherwise. Vygotsky asserted, “What the child is able to do in collaboration today, he will be able to do independently

tomorrow” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 211).

Supporting Authentic Learning

Authentic learning comprises the third component of my pedagogical philosophy. The term “authentic” is used in various ways: “context of use,” or “real-life connections.” Most constructivist approaches emphasize that knowledge and application cannot be separated. In this view, teachers should provide meaningful and interesting learning tasks for students. If students have to memorize definitions because they will be on the test, the memorization is meaningless and hardly motivates students. Students should learn through contextualized problem solving situations because they can generate interest and enable students to transfer knowledge into practice. Authentic learning involves not so much mastering the information in a textbook or using test-taking skills, but rather using the information in the textbook to solve real-world problems. For example, in the case of second language learning, rote memorization of grammatical facts is not authentic learning, because students with only grammatical knowledge will have difficulty communicating in the target language outside the classroom. If language learning is to be regarded as authentic, students should be able to use what they learn in the classroom for real-world communication.

Language Teaching Principles Based upon Interactional Competence

The language teaching principle comes directly from the pedagogical philosophy of pursuing authentic learning. As discussed above, authenticity in language learning concerns real-world communication, which features interaction, and is focused on meaning. Real-world communication requires interactional competence more than

Table 8. Language Teaching Principles for Classroom Instruction

Five Principles of Interactional Competence	Application into Instruction
1) Rhetorical Scripts	Help students to recognize that there is a pattern of sequenced interaction what interlocutors build up during the conversation
2) Specific Lexis and Syntactic Structure	Students need to use specific words and grammatical items to interact successfully in a specific context.
3) Strategies for Managing Turns	To participate in an interaction actively, how to take turns in different situations should be practiced.
4) Measures of Signaling Boundaries	Let students recognize the beginning and ending of conversation, and state it appropriately.
5) Topical Organization	To improve the ability to talk about a particular topic

linguistic competence. Interactional competence goes beyond communicative competence; communicative competence addresses only individual learner's language proficiency, separated from the interaction in a given context. However, interactional competence considers language proficiency as the ability to interact successfully with other participant(s) in a conversation. By teaching this interactional competence, I can help my students use English more proficiently in real-world communication.

In defining interactional competence, I adopt five features characterized by Young

(1997). They are rhetorical scripts, specific lexis and syntactic structures, strategies for managing turns, measures of signaling boundaries, and topical organization. These five components comprise the language aspect of each lesson, including the teaching of vocabulary and grammar for specific contexts, turn-taking, opening and closing conversations, patterns in a sequence of interaction, and the means to talk about a particular topic. Different contexts require a different set of these five components. Chapter Four presents the method of integration of these components into a specific context: project-based-learning using collaborative tasks.

Teaching Strategies: Project-Based Learning Using Collaborative Tasks

To teach interactional competence, I first need to promote and optimize interaction. Without interaction, students cannot practice interactional competence. To achieve this goal, I integrate three different strategies: project-based learning, collaborative learning and task-based learning.

Collaborative Learning: Creating a Setting for Interaction

In a teacher-directed classroom, teacher-student and student-student interaction does not occur often enough to allow students to practice interactional competence. Interaction in the classroom requires students to take a full role in the learning activities. Through adopting collaborative learning as a key teaching strategy, I can give students more opportunities to interact with each other in small group work. Also, in collaborative learning, students make their input more comprehensible because their group work requires them to make themselves understood; they naturally adjust their input to make it comprehensible. In other words, to accomplish the group goal, they

actively negotiate meaning to interact successfully. Last, the social skills of collaborative learning are directly related to some components of interactional competence, such as turn-taking and means for signaling boundaries (beginning and ending cues) in conversation. As students develop specific social skills, they practice interactional competence such as interaction management and negotiation of meaning.

Project-Based Learning: Engaging Student through the Content

To participate in an interaction using a second language, students need a purpose to communicate with each other. In addition, students need to have rich content to maintain interest and a desire to communicate. Rivers (1987) asserts that sustained interaction requires the participants to find the context relevant, vivid, engaging, significant, and meaningful. By using project-based learning, I will provide students with a purpose and content to interact in English. With a carefully chosen topic, project-based learning can evoke students' intrinsic motivation, because they can satisfy their curiosity and show their creativity during the process of working on a project. Whether the topic of a project is created by the teacher or raised from a survey of students' interests, a topic which is rich enough in content and worthy of long-term investigation can encourage students to work with sustained effort toward the accomplishment of the project.

In addition to the characteristics of enhancing motivation, project-based learning presents a flow for students' group work. During three phases of a project (planning, investigation and presentation), students engage in various types of task and patterns of interaction. In phase one, students brainstorm and discuss the topic and ways to

investigate it. In phase two, students research, report, share the information and symbolize their understanding in creative ways. In phase three, students present the outcome of their investigation. Throughout the three phases, students have a lot of freedom about how to construct and represent their knowledge.

Task-Based Learning: Integrating Language and Content to Focus on Meaning

The concepts of task-based learning and syllabus design permit flexibility in selecting and sequencing linguistic items. In contrast to the traditional syllabi which present pre-selected and pre-sequenced language items, in task-based syllabus design the tasks and linguistic items evolve together. In other words, linguistic items and tasks are developed simultaneously so that the linguistic items suggest tasks and vice versa (Nunan, 1989). Thus, instead of identifying particular linguistic items explicitly, I present general learning objectives and problem-solving tasks which implicate linguistic items. By applying this flexibility to my syllabus design, I intend to allow students more time in interacting with each other using the linguistic knowledge they already have gained, while focusing meaning for successful interaction. Still, I include a minimal numbers of linguistic items necessary to facilitate the process of interactional competence.

Specifically, a communicative task in a lesson can be regarded as a combination of language (linguistic items) and content. According to Nunan (1989), a communicative task consists of a goal, an input, and an activity. Some examples of goals are general intentions behind any given learning task, problem solving regarding a topic, or can be learning specific linguistic items. An input refers to the linguistic data

that forms the point of departure for the task. It might be a linguistic item (e. g. reading passage) or a non-linguistic item (e. g. pictures). An activity specifies what learners will actually do with the input. An activity has two aspects: language and content. The proportion of the two factors differs by activity type. For example, activities featuring problem solving, discussion topics, or searching for specific information are more content-oriented, while reading a news item and writing a diary or listening to radio news are more language-oriented activities. This definition of three components of a task suggests that, in a communicative task, there is a strong integration of content and language aspects. Language rises from content (topic), and working on the content (topic) requires linguistic items. Thus, in designing lessons, I have used communicative task as building blocks to compose a successive chain of tasks.

CHAPTER FOUR: INTRODUCTION OF LESSON PLANS

Based on the theoretical framework in Chapter Three, I have designed a teaching unit consisting of six lesson plans targeting students at a vocational junior college (see Appendix A). This unit aims to improve the students' interactional competence, which means how to successfully interact with other participants in a given context. I have two assumptions about my teaching target. First, I assume students are active knowledge constructors who can (or have the potential) to learn how to take responsibility for their learning, and to monitor their learning process while helping peers. My second assumption is that the students have already gained a fair amount of linguistic competence. I say this because they have studied English for six years at secondary schools and have passed college entrance exams of which the English score is a major part of the total score. Under these considerations, I will introduce the unit in four aspects: setting, tasks, content, language input.

Setting

For this unit, establishing a setting for collaborative group work is required. A class should be divided into small groups, which consist of four or five students. Members of a group work together throughout the unit. It is desirable that each group have access to at least one computer with a word processing program, Internet capability, and an electronic encyclopedia.

Tasks

Each lesson is made up of sequences of tasks. In general, one task consists of a goal, an input and an activity; An activity is designed to meet a goal, and an input is

provided for the activity as a type of Focus Sheet. For example, if a goal in a task is “To recognize the classroom rule for collaborative learning,” an input can be classroom rules written on a Focus Sheet, and an activity is reading the classroom rules. With these three components of a task, aspects of content and language can be integrated into a lesson.

Table. 9 Example of a Task Block

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
To develop interactional competence: Rhetorical script for discussion II	Reading the gambits and practicing it through role playing	Students practice asking for information, clarification, social affirmation, and changing topics.	Focus Sheet 3.1

Content

There are two major topics in this part of the unit. One is a research project to decide the best place to live in the U.S. Each group develops criteria for this decision. Through the first topic, students read a lot of information in English during the research process, speak for group discussions and presentations, and write a magazine journal article. Linguistic input appears from the content while students work on the project. The other topic is social skills, which are required to facilitate collaborative group work. As students practice social skills using gambits (e.g. paraphrasing, changing topic, asking follow up questions), they can improve their interactional competence in English. Along with this content, I have pre-selected language input as types of gambits in the Focus Sheet.

Language Input

I have selected language input based on the five principles of interactional competence developed by Young (1997): rhetorical scripts, specific lexis and syntactic structure, strategies for managing turns, measures of signaling boundaries and topical organization. When I apply these principles into designing the lessons, they are transformed as below:

Table 10. Language Input in Lessons

Five Principles of Interactional Competence	Application into Lesson
1) Rhetorical script	Rhetorical patterns and presentation
2) Specific Lexis and Syntactic Structure	Vocabulary (No explicit grammatical structures are taught.)
3) Strategies for Managing Turns	Teaching turn-taking through the gambits for clarification, expansion, agreement, disagreement, and social affirmation
4) Measures of Signaling Boundaries	Gambits for opening and ending in discussion Gambits for signposting in presentation
5) Topical Organization	Talking about the quality of life in a magazine article

CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT

Because this curriculum design is posited on a constructivist pedagogical perspective, evaluation of the effectiveness of the design also needs a constructive approach, which is an alternative to the traditional multiple-choice standardized test. This approach is characterized as an ongoing process, during which teachers and students comment on each other's efforts in a class. The teacher and students share the authority to evaluate work. Thus, students have a responsibility to assess their own and each others' performance. In addition, this approach assesses performance on "real-life" tasks: performance in context. According to these characteristics, this curriculum design features three aspects of assessment: formative, self-reflective, and performance-oriented.

In contrast to summative assessment, which describes learning achieved at a certain time, formative assessment is essentially feedback from the teacher to the students about students' present understanding and skill development. Furthermore, it indicates that what should be the next step in students' learning. Formative assessment is informal so that it can be easily incorporated into classroom routines and learning activities such as teacher's observation and instructional conversation with students. Both unstructured (e.g., writing samples, homework, journals, games, debates) and structured (e.g., checklists, close tests, rating scales, questionnaires, structured interviews) components of learning activities can be used for formative assessment. During each lesson of this curriculum design, the teacher observes and monitors students' group work, and facilitates their learning by providing feedback in oral and

written form. The purpose of the teacher's observation is to make adjustments in the lesson if necessary and to help student make the best of the lesson before completion. Additionally, students' writings and use of resources can be objects of formative assessment.

Next, students evaluate their social skills during group work. Through this evaluation, students can reflect how they are working with peers and recognize what is required to accomplish the group objective. Thus, students can improve for themselves the collaborative climate during the process of the project; this eventually promotes interaction among them.

Finally, to assess the students' interactional competence in English, the teacher evaluates their oral communication during group work and final presentations in class. Active involvement and successful interaction using various and timely strategies are the main factors for a successful performance.

In addition, the assessment attempts to make a balance between evaluating the collaborative group work and individual accountability. Therefore, assessment consists of both the individual and the group. Individual assessment will cover oral communication (30%) and the final production of journal writing (20%). Even for their individual work, students are welcome to help each other through the process of research collaboration and peer editing. The average points of individual assessment will be added to group points. Therefore, the quality of individual work influences other group members' grades (10%). The group assessment will cover the social skills (30%) and group presentations (10%). Rubrics for each assessment are in Appendix B.

Table 11. Individual Assessment

Category	Key Points	Measurement
Oral Communication (30%)	How actively were students involved in the group discussion and group presentation?	Teachers Observation Oral Report Rubric
Research for the project (10%)	How effectively did a students use various resource of the research?	Writing Rubrics
Writing for the project (10%)	How effectively did a student convey the research results? (organization & grammatical accuracy)	Writing Rubrics

Table 12. Group Assessment

Category	Key Points	Measurement
Social Skills (30%)	How did each group work collaboratively using social skills?	Teacher's Observation Self-Evaluation
Group Presentation (10%)	How did each group effectively present their process and outcome of the project to other groups?	Peer-Evaluation
Transfer from Average of Individual Grade (10%)	Average grades of individual members will be added to group points.	

APPENDIX A: UNIT PLAN

Lesson One: Team Building

1. Warming-up:

Have you ever worked in a group?

What are the differences between working alone and working together?

2. Vocabulary

genre, detective, disaster, team spirit, diversity, assessment, criteria, gambit, spokesperson, inference, breaking the ice

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To get to know each other	Breaking the ice	Each group finds group members' names and likes and dislikes in movie genres.	Worksheet 1. 1
2. To preview project with goals	Previewing the unit	Read unit overview, recognize the content of lesson, and preview assessment measurement.	Focus Sheet 1. 2
3. To recognize the classroom rules for collaborative learning	Reading classroom rules	Each group read classroom rules prepared by the teacher.	Focus Sheet 1. 3 ("Sink or Swim Together")
4. To practice speaking	Reading and practicing role assignment	Read role assignments and be prepared to answer the teacher's question about the roles.	Focus Sheet 1. 4 ("Collaborative Roles")
5. To identify characteristics of a positive environment for collaboration	Developing your group rules	Each group decides five specific group rules or gambits based on classroom rules.	Worksheet 1. 5 ("How to Swim Together?")

4. Assessment

Teacher's Observation & Students' Self-Evaluation

Lesson Two: Build Your Criteria

1. Warming-up

Have you ever reached a totally different decision from others on the same issue?
 Were you able to be sure that you were right and others were wrong or, vice versa?
 What were the criteria that you used when you made the decision?

2. Vocabulary

consensus, brainstorm, preference inventory, constraint, obligation, congestion, reference

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To improve interactional competence: Rhetoric script for discussion (I)	Reading the rhetoric script and practicing it through role plays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The teacher explains the rhetoric script of discussion and provides context for role plays. 	Focus Sheet 2. 1
2. To recognize that knowledge is based on available information and the way to look at it	Guessing about the owners of lost suitcases	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Two pairs within each group guess about the possible owners of lost suitcases. When students have reached a consensus in their pair, The teacher informs the class that both suitcases belong to the same person. Discuss what made the two pairs reach a different consensus? 	Focus sheet 2. 2
3. To develop criteria for making decision	Developing five criteria individually to choose the best place to live	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Brainstorm what is the most important criteria for deciding the best place to live in. To facilitate the brainstorming, use the Preference Inventory. 	Worksheet 2. 3-a,b (Preference Inventory)
4. To negotiate disagreements with peers for group decision	Deciding group criteria	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exchange criteria with group members and evaluate them. Find a way how to choose five among them for the whole group. (Criteria for the criteria) Decide group criteria. 	Worksheet 2. 4

4. Assessment: Teacher's Observation & Students' Self-Evaluation

Lesson Three: Heading for the Best Place

1. Warming-up

Have you ever visited any cities or towns in the U.S.?

What will be the differences between the best place to live and the best place to visit while traveling?

2. Vocabulary

Jigsaw, scavenger hunt, rationalization, almanac, retirement

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To develop interactional competence: Rhetoric script for discussion II	Reading the gambits and practicing it through role playing	Students practice asking for information, clarification, social affirmation, and changing topics.	Focus Sheet 3. 1
2. To practice information providing and requesting	Jigsaw	Fill the name of 9 states through taking turns asking and answering each other.	Worksheet 3. 2
3. To recognize the variety of research resource	Mapping 10 cities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using the Electronic Reference Database of "Where is in the U.S.A. Carmen San Diego?", each member locates 10 cities on the map with brief information and shares it with peers. • Exploring the software with a partner. (A computer with the software "Where is in the U.S.A. Carmen San Diego?" for two students) 	Worksheet 3. 3
4. To pool information for problem solving	Completing U.S. geography scavenger hunt	Each group completes the U.S. geography scavenger hunt.	Worksheet 3. 4 (U.S. Geography Scavenger Hunt)
5. To recognize possible research resource	Listing research resource	Each group brainstorms possible research resource to find the best place to live in the U.S.A.	Focus Sheet 3. 5

4. Assessment: Teacher's Observation & Students' Self-Evaluation

5. Homework: Expand research resources and bring available ones to the next class.

Lesson Four: Research

1. Warming-up

What do we need to know to make a good decision?

What will be the specific benefits and challenges of collaborative research?

2. Vocabulary

Each group post new vocabulary that they learned through research

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To develop interactional competence	Watching a video	While watching the video, students identify the rhetorical script that they learned.	Worksheet 4. 1.
2. To discover effective ways for successful group research	Planning a group research project	Each group member takes a specific mission for the research.	
3. To identify relevant information for the goal	Exploring the information	According to the research plan, start collecting information. (A computer with Internet access and word processing program for every two students)	Reference books Information on Internet Others
3. To evaluate the information for decision making	Evaluating information from research	Group members discuss about the value of the information they found.	
4. To decide critical information for journal of "The Best Place to Live in the U.S."	Deciding main features of the journal.	Each student takes responsibility for writing one feature of the journal.	

4. Assessment: Teacher's Observation and Students' Self-Evaluation

5. Homework: Further research (if necessary)

Lesson 5: Journal Writing: “The Best Place to Live in the U.S.”

1. Warming-up

Why would some magazines and books feature information about the best place to live?

2. Vocabulary

scatter, bid, embrace, lure, prospects, paramedics, pediatrics, fabulous, replica

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To develop interactional competence in an authentic context.	Group Presentation	The group presentation should include the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the group criteria in choosing the best place to live in the U.S.A. and the decision making process • supporting evidence about the choice of the place 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentation hand out prepared by each group (Copies of completed group journals) • Peer Assessment Sheet
2. To identify the interactional competence and the critical factors for successful group work	Class Symposium: Reflecting the learning process of this unit.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students answer to questions prepared by the teacher . • Students share their experience during the project in terms of working with peers. 	Focus Sheet 7.2
3. Increase self-esteem as autonomous learners	Praising & Celebrating	Students praise one another for their effort during group work, and shakes hands with group members, other students, and the teacher.	

4. Assessment: Teacher’s Observation and Students’ Self-Evaluation

5. Homework: Complete the journal writing if it was not done during the class

Lesson Six: Rehearsal

1. Warming-up

Have you ever been an audience or a presenter in any kind of presentation?

What do you think made the presentation successful or unsuccessful?

Do you think there is a certain flow that most presentations have in common?

2. Vocabulary

purpose, statement, signposting, involving, engaging, context

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1.To develop interactional competence: Rhetoric script of presentation	Classroom discussion about rhetoric script of presentation	The teacher explain the rhetoric script of presentation, and students examine each step of the flow.	Focus Sheet 6. 1-a,b
2.To apply the rhetoric script into the group presentation of the unit	Organizing presentation	Each group prepares for the presentation by organizing the content and assigning each group member's role for the presentation.	

4. Assessment: Teacher's Observation and Students' Self-Evaluation

Lesson Seven: Presentation & Reflection

1. Warming-up

What do you think is the purpose of the presentation in the class?

Does the preparation for the presentation give your team an opportunity to apply what you learned from this unit?

2. Vocabulary

reflection, tolerance, negotiation, perspective, rationalization

3. Task Chains

Objective	Activity	Activity Description	Language Input
1. To develop interactional competence in an authentic context.	Group Presentation	The group presentation should include the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • the group criteria in choosing the best place to live in the U.S.A. and the decision making process • supporting evidence about the choice of the place 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Presentation hand out prepared by each group (Copies of completed group journals) • Peer Assessment Sheet
2. To identify the interactional competence and the critical factors for successful group work	Class Symposium: Reflecting the learning process of this unit.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students answer to questions prepared by the teacher . • Students share their experience during the project in terms of working with peers. 	Focus Sheet 7.2
3. Increase self-esteem as autonomous learners	Praising & Celebrating	Students praise one another for their effort during group work, and shakes hands with group members, other students, and the teacher.	

4. Assessment: Oral Language Scoring Rubric

Worksheet 1. 1
Breaking The Ice!

1. Please find your group members' likes and dislikes in movie genres.

Movie Genres

action movie, kung-fu movie, romantic movie, animated cartoon, comedy detective movie, science fiction, war movie, drama, western, disaster movie.

Name	Likes	Dislikes
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		

Common likes:

Common dislikes:

2. What are your group's favorite movie titles based on the genre you prefer?
Please create a name for your group using anything regarding the movie, such as movie title, main character, famous lines, setting, etc.

Focus Sheet 1.2

Unit Plan Overview

Project: "The Best Place to Live in the U.S."

1. Lesson plan overview

Lesson	Title	Topic
1.	Team building	Get to know each other and establish team spirit.
2.	Build your criteria	When you choose the best place to live, what are the most important criteria?
3.	Mapping out states and cities	Become acquainted with the geographical and cultural diversity of the U.S.
4.	Research	Applying the group criteria, research the best place to live in the U.S.
5.	Writing on "The Best Place to Live in the U.S."	Based on the research, write a short journal article about the place you found. Please be aware of the way to talk about the topic.
6.	Rehearsal	Organize your group presentation using the rhetorical script. What can make your presentation a successful interaction with the audience?
7.	Presentation & Reflection	Share you group's decision-making process, research process, and journal article with the class. Reflect on what have we learned through the project.

2. Assessment overview

Assessment consists of both individual and group evaluation. Individual assessment will cover oral communication and the final production of journal writing. Even for the individual work, you are welcome to help each other through the process of research collaboration and peer editing. The average points for individual assessment will be added to group points. Therefore, the quality of individual work influences your peers' grades. Group assessment will cover the social skills of your group. The more you respect and help your peers, the more successful your group project will be.

1) Individual Assessment (50%)

Category	Key Point	Measurement
Oral Communication (30%)	How actively were you involved with the group work and group presentation?	Teachers' Observation / Oral Report Rubric
Research for the project (10%)	How effectively did you use various resources for the research (content)?	Writing Rubric
Writing for the project (10%)	How effectively did you convey your research results? (organization & grammatical accuracy)	Writing Rubric

2) Group Assessment (50%)

A. Teacher's Observation (20%): How does each group work collaboratively using social skills?

B. Self-Evaluation (20%): After each class, students will have to turn in self-evaluations on how they worked in their groups.

C. Transfer from Average of Individual Grade (10%): Average grades of individual members will be added to group points.

Focus Sheet 1. 3.
Classroom Rules for Collaboration: "Sink or Swim Together"

When we work in groups,

WE WILL:

Help each other so everyone
understands what to do.

Make sure everyone
shares an idea.

Speak politely
to one another.

Be good listeners.

Ask each other questions
before we ask the teacher.

Compliment one another
for making a good effort.

Focus Sheet 1. 4 Collaborative Rules

Role	Function	Gambits
Monitor	Makes sure each person participates and that no one dominates the group process	"What do you think, Mi Sun?" "Jung Won, Do you agree?" "I would like to hear from Ki Tae"
Encourager	Makes sure that the contributions of each member and the team as a whole are appreciated	"That's a good idea!" "Let's all give Hyun Woo a pat on the back!" "We are on the right track!" "We get to the point!"
Task Master	Keeps the group on a task and concerns for a time limit	"Have we found information for that?" "I think the task is . . ." "There are only 5 minutes left." "Please stop talking and get to the task."
Recorder/ Reporter	Records team answers and supporting materials: also can be the team spokesperson in reporting to the whole class	"Do you want me to write that answer down?" "This is what I have written down so far" "Please help me spell this word." "Would it be okay if I said . . ."
Checker	Checks that everyone understands the assignment; checks that everyone agrees before a group decision is made	"Does everyone understand this assignment?" "Do you want me to ask the teacher this question?" "Do we all agree on that?" "Everyone together on this?"

- Please practice the roles as you come up with five group rules. Each member should take a role and use appropriate gambits at the right time. For this unit, each student will have to play one of the roles and take turns as the class proceeds.

Worksheet 1.5

Establishing Group Rules

Based on classroom rules, please develop five rules for successful group collaboration. Please remember that with the rules, your group will have to swim together. What will make your swimming easier and more enjoyable? What do you expect from your peers? Are you ready to do exactly the same things for your peers?

We will

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

I agree with the rules and promise to follow them with respect.

Name

Signature

Focus Sheet 2. 1

Interactional Competence: Gambits for Discussion

Function	Gambits
Opinion Openers	I think . . . I'm positive . . . I'm certain that . . . I'm sure . . . It's possible that . . . I guess . . . In my opinion . . . It's clear to me that . . . It's possible that . . .
Expansion	Why do you think so? What happened after that? Would you expand on that Tell me more about . . . Build up the idea more . . . Why don't you . . . ? Have you thought about . . . ?
Disagreement	I don't agree with this, because . . . That doesn't sound right to me, because of . . . That doesn't make sense to me although . . . That doesn't make sense to me in spite of . . . Let's read the rest part of . . . Have you thought about the other side? What do you think about this point? Please explain again why you think so.
Agreement	I agree with you because . . . I couldn't agree more! That's exactly what I believe! That's 'my opinion, too Absolutely!

Focus Sheet 2.2

Whose Suitcase?

At the end of a long day at Toronto International Airport, there are some suitcases left behind. This is a list of the contents of one of them. Use the contents to help you make some inferences about the owner of the suitcase:

- What sex do you think this person is?
- How old do you think this person is?
- What is this person's occupation and income level?
- What is the traveler's destination?
- What is the purpose of the trip?
- What is this person's first language?

Suitcase A:

Navy blue suitcase, real leather, excellent condition. No nametags.

The Contents:

- 1 Pierre Cardin beach towel, navy and beige
- 1 pair of Vuarnet sunglasses
- 1 Walkman cassette player with several cassettes: American rock music
- 1 hair dryer with adapter
- 3 paperback books in Spanish
- 2 computer magazines
- 1 pad of artist's paper: unused
- 1 box of water color paints and brushes: new
- 1 pair of black pants, waist size 30
- 1 pair of white shorts, waist size 30
- 2 T-shirts, size L; 1 red, 1 white
- 1 pair of jogging shoes, size 9
leather case containing a razor and shaving cream
- 2 bottle of "Chanel for Men" cologne, still in its box
- 1 bathing suit
- 5 pairs of underwear by Calvin Klein
- 5 pairs of socks

Suitcase B:

Black suitcase, real leather, seriously scratched, No nametags

The Contents:

- 1 White jacket, 100 percent silk
- White silk pants, size 30
- 1 dictionary: Russian/ English
- 1 guidebook: Moscow
- 1 Nikon camera, with two interchangeable lenses, light meter, and tripod
- 20 boxes of film
- soft bag containing heavy silver jewelry
- cosmetics: several brands, including Charles of the Ritz, Helena Rubenstein
- a bottle of "Chines No. A" perfume, half-full
- Two fashion magazines: Vogue
- 1 hair brush, real bristle
- Two pairs of leather sandals
- Ten Bruce Springsteen cassette tapes
- Five pairs of Levi's blue jeans, different sizes

Worksheet 2. 3-a

Establishing Criteria for Decision Making

I. If you could snap your fingers and suddenly find yourself living in another place, where would you want to be ? Forget for a moment the usual constraints: family obligations, friendship, job and sentimental attachment to familiar turf. Just imagine: living in the right place could increase your enthusiasm and satisfaction in your life and even change your personality.

Please come up with five criteria in choosing the best place in which to live. There are no “right” and “wrong”/ “good” and “bad” answers. Your own personal interests and needs are different from those of other people. If you are a zealous supporter of feminism, your first criteria might be, “Where is the best place for a feminist ?” Just be honest, serious, and unique. Be yourself.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

II. If you have any difficulty in coming up with the criteria, or if you are not sure about your decision, please use the Preference Inventory (Worksheet I.2.2-b). Compare the results with your original decision. Is there any difference? Which one is more appealing to your personal disposition? Do you want to revise the criteria or not?

Worksheet 2. 3-b
Preference Inventory

Directions: For each numbered item, decide which of two statements is more important to you when choosing a place to live in. Mark the box next to that statement.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. I. The number of days over 90 degrees.
A. Average property taxes | 10. G. Museums and repertory theaters
C. The number of auto thefts in a year |
| 2. C. The number of murder.
F. The size of public school districts | 11. H. The number of public golf courses
E. Freeway traffic congestion |
| 3. D. The supply of medical specialists
E. Supply of local public transit | 12. D. Local specialized medical care
G. Fine-arts broadcasting |
| 4. G. New books added in local libraries
I. Local elevation, wind speed, and humidity | 13. G. Libraries and museums
A. The cost of living |
| 5. A. The cost of food and clothing
E. How long it takes to commute to work | 14. A. The cost of food and clothing
B. The outlook for employment growth |
| 6. G. Libraries and museums
H. Local college sports | 15. D. Air pollution levels
F. The size of public school districts |
| 7. D. Air pollution throughout the year
I. Annual amount of rain and snow | 16. G. Fine-arts radio and TV broadcasting
B. Job opportunities in the service sector |
| 8. A. The price of houses
C. Local property crime rates | 17. B. Local threat of unemployment
I. Annual number of clear and cloudy days |
| 9. B. Forecasted job growth
F. The pupil/teacher ratio in public schools | 18. H. The movie theaters and good restaurants
F. Variety of public and private colleges |

19. E. The supply of public transit
A. Median prices of homes
20. A. State income tax and sales tax bite
D. Medical schools and teaching hospitals
21. A. The cost of health care
H. The supply of public golf courses
22. G. Fine-arts radio and TV broadcastings
E. Airlines and interstate highways
23. D. Supply of family medical practitioners
H. Good restaurants and movie theaters
24. C. The violent crime rates
I. Annual amounts of rain and snow
25. F. Pupil/ teacher ratio in public schools
I. Annual number of clear and cloudy days
26. H. Local professional sports teams
C. Number of robberies and assaults
27. D. Air pollution
C. Number of burglaries during the year
28. F. Local support of public schools
G. Dance companies and repertory theater
29. H. Nearby water recreation
B. Number of new manufacturing jobs by 1995
30. H. Nearby national parks and forests
B. Number of stormy days during the year
31. B. The mix of white- and blue-collar jobs
C. Number of robberies in a year
32. E. Airlines serving the local airport
C. Number of auto thefts in a year
33. E. Buses, subways, and commuter railroads
F. Local colleges and universities
34. A. State income and sales tax bite
D. General hospitals and family doctors
35. F. Dollars/student in the public schools
A. Costs for utilities and property taxes
36. E. Interstate highways and airline service
I. How cold the winters are
37. D. Supply of specialized doctors
I. Number of annual rainy and snowy days
38. C. Local auto thefts and burglaries
A. Local household income and taxes

39. G. Fine-arts, radio and TV broadcasting
H. Zoos and family amusement parks
40. C. Annual muggings per capita
F. Pupil/teacher ratio in public schools
41. B. Outlook for job growth
E. Average daily commuting time
42. I. Seasonal temperature variation
A. Typical property taxes
43. D. Medical schools and teaching hospitals
G. Operas and symphony orchestras
44. H. Opportunities for pari-mutuel wagering
E. Freeway traffic congestion
45. B. Mix of white- and blue-collar jobs
F. Alternatives to public schools
46. I. Seasonal temperature variation
B. Forecasted growth of employment
47. C. Auto thefts, muggings and Shootings
I. Annual number of freezing days
48. A. Cost of heating a home
F. Variety of private K-12 schools
49. B. Expected white-collar job growth
C. Annual property crime rate
50. B. The number of new jobs created by 1995
A. Annual property crime rate
51. G. Classical music broadcasting
E. Freeway traffic congestion
52. D. Specialized medical care
H. Nearby state parks and forests
53. F. Variety of private K-12 schools
I. Local wind speed and humidity
54. A. The cost of food and clothing
B. Employment in the service industries
55. I. Number of days over 90 degrees
E. Supply of public transit
56. H. Golf, bowling, movies, and eating out
F. Variety of public and private college
57. G. The number of books in public libraries
B. The treat of unemployment
58. H. Professional sports home teams
I. Annual amounts of rain and snow
59. G. Operas and symphonies
I. How cold the winters are
60. A. Median price of homes
G. Local performing arts bookings
61. C. The violent crime rate
G. Variety of performing arts

62. C. Burglaries and auto thefts
D. Specialized medical care
63. B. Job outlook from now to the year 1995
E. Freeway traffic congestion
64. C. The property crime rate
H. Nearby national parks and forests
65. D. Supply of medical
B. Forecast for white-collar job growth.
71. D. Supply of doctors and hospitals
E. Supply of public transit
72. D. Variety of specialized medical care
B. Prospects for white-collar job growth.
66. F. Higher education opportunities
G. Number of public libraries
67. E. Access to interstate highways
F. Private alternatives to public schools
68. H. Movie theaters and good restaurants
A. The cost of food and clothing
69. D. Local air pollution levels
F. Variety of public school districts
70. E. Airlines serving the area
C. Burglaries and auto thefts there

II. After you complete checking, count all the marks you've made on letter "A" In the same way, count the number of statements of each of the other letters. Enter the totals in their respective places at the top of your preference profile.

The purpose of the Preference Inventory is to help you decide the relative importance of several categories. Please use the result just for reference. You do not need to stick to the result of the inventory. However, using the Inventory can be a good starting point to trace self- needs.

Your Preference Profile

A Costs of Living _____ **D** Health Care _____ **G** The Arts _____
B Jobs _____ **E** Transportation _____ **H** Recreation _____
C Crime _____ **F** Education _____ **I** Climate _____

12									
11									
10									
9									
8									
7									
6									
5									
4									
3									
2									
1									
0									
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
	Costs of Living	Jobs	Crime	Health Care & Environment	Trans- portation	Education	The Arts	Recreation	Climate

Worksheet 2. 4

Group Criteria for Choosing The Best Place to Live

I. Compare your final decision with your peers. Yes, they are definitely different. Still you need to develop group criteria. How will you negotiate your criteria with peers? Here's are four rules for your negotiation. Please make sure that you follow the rules.

1. Listen to the information that others have.
2. Disagree politely, giving reason for your opinion.
3. Reach a compromise.
4. Agree to disagree. If it is impossible for you to reach a compromise, may be you can agree that it is necessary for everyone to agree this time.

II. Please decide five criteria for your group.

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

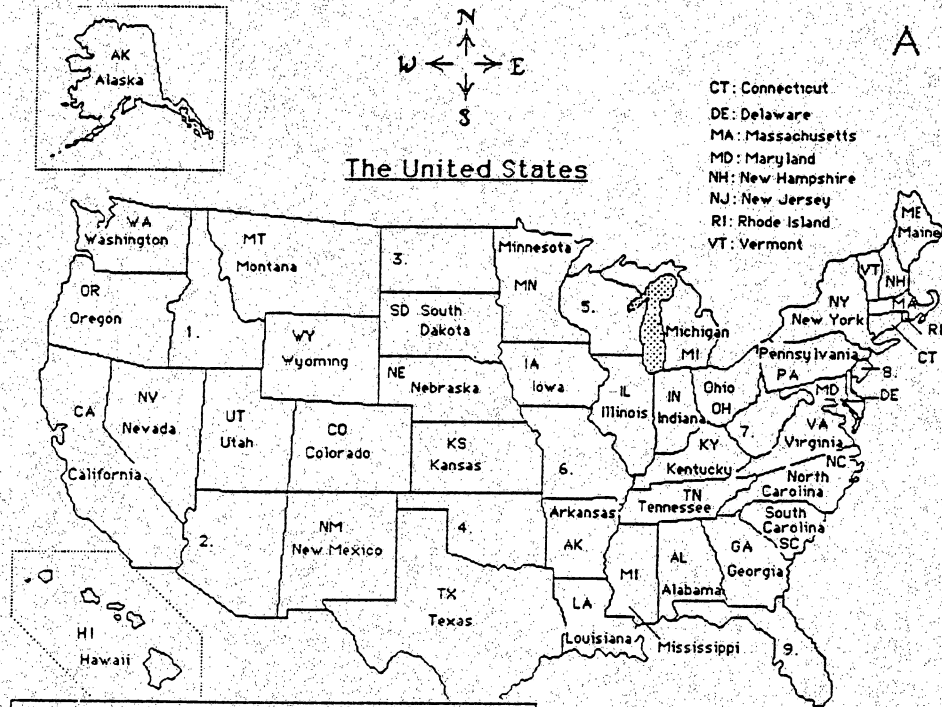
Focus Sheet 3.1

Gambits for Discussion II

Function	Gambits
Asking for Information	I'd like to know . . . I'm interested in . . . Would you tell me . . . ? Do you know . . . ? Could you find out . . . ? What is . . . ? Could I ask . . . ?
Clarification	Could you tell me what you mean by . . . ? Please say that again. Please restate that again. Come again? What did you say? Would you mind repeating that? Would you spell that, please? What did you say?
Social Affirmation	Oh, really? That's interesting Right.. Okay./ Yes. That's great. / Good thinking Exactly!
Changing Topics	OK, let's move on to . . . Yes, but what do you think about . . . ? Now, can you tell me about . . . ?

Worksheet 3. 2-a

Jigsaw A

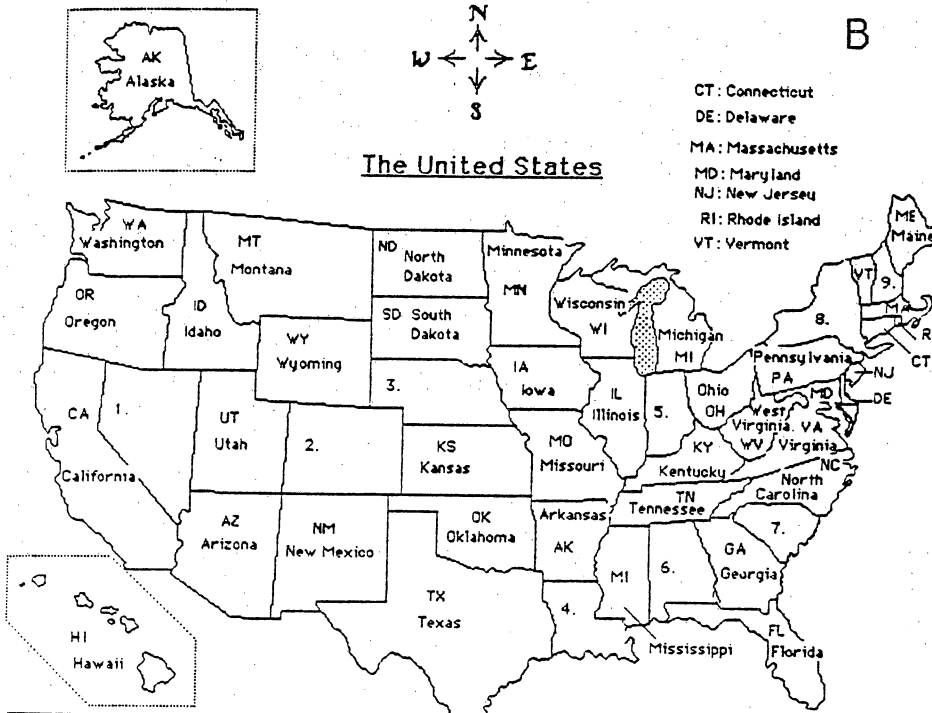


- A**
- You and your partner have the same map, but different place names are missing on each.
 - DONT look at your partner's map.
 - On your map, nine states have a number and no name.
 - Ask your partner the names of these states. Ask questions like, "What is west of Utah?" or "What's between Wyoming and New Mexico?"
 - Use words like "north of", "south of", "east of", "west of", and "between" in your questions.
 - When your partner tells you the name of a state, ask "How do you spell it?" Then write the name of the state for each number.
 - Your partner will ask you about the names of other states that are missing from his/her map. Tell your partner the names that s/he needs.
 - Take turns asking and answering each other.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____

Worksheet 3. 2-b

Jigsaw B

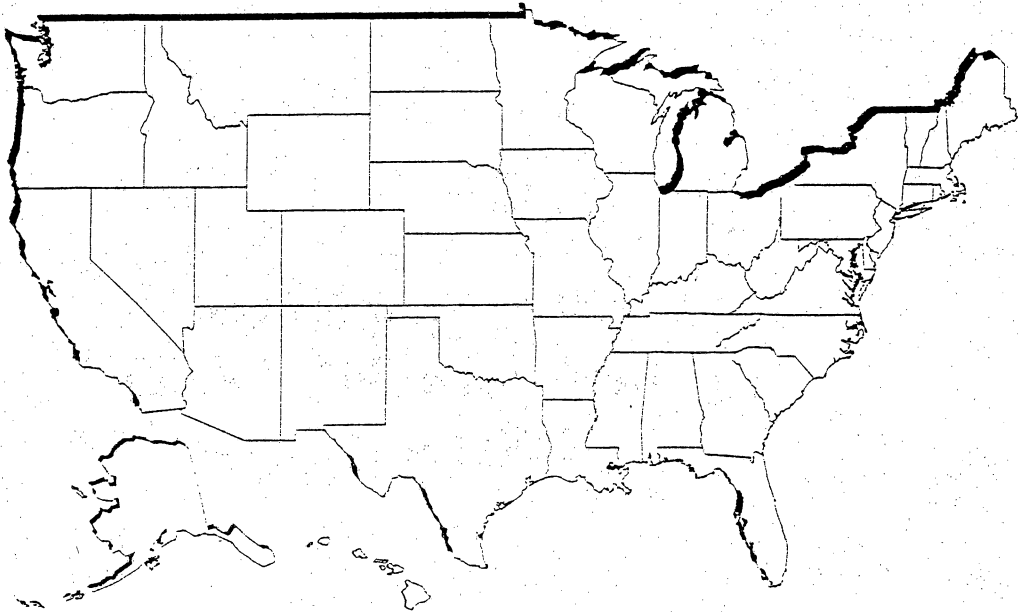


- B**
- You and your partner have the same map, but different place names are missing on each.
 - DON'T** look at your partner's map.
 - On your map, nine states have a number and no name.
 - Ask your partner the names of these states. Ask questions like, "What is west of Utah?" or "What's between Wyoming and New Mexico?"
 - Use words like "north of", "south of", "east of", "west of", and "between" in your questions.
 - When your partner tells you the name of a state, ask "How do you spell it?" Then write the name of the state for each number.
 - Your partner will ask you about the names of other states that are missing from his/her map. Tell your partner the names that s/he needs.

- 1 _____
- 2 _____
- 3 _____
- 4 _____
- 5 _____
- 6 _____
- 7 _____
- 8 _____
- 9 _____

Worksheet 3.3

Mapping Out 10 Cities



City	States	Remark

Worksheet 3. 5

U.S. Geography Scavenger Hunt

1. Name the state that is the farthest north and east.

2. Name the lake in the closest western neighbor of #1.
(Spelling counts!)

3. What state is in the very center of the U.S.?

4. What's most eastern city in #3?

5. What's the most western city in #3's neighbor to the east?

6-9. Name four states that border Mexico.

10. Which of the four states named above produces uranium?

11. Which state in the South produces citrus crops?

12-13. Name two states that are not physically connected to the other 48 states.

14. Which of these two states is known for tourism?

15. Which Midwestern state looks like a lopsided, upside-down Christmas tree?

16. Which is our most northwestern state (excluding Alaska)?

17. Which state is divided into two sections by the Great Lakes?

18. What lake divides the state in # 17?

19. Which west coast state has the longest coastline?

20. Which east state is divided almost in half by the Chesapeake Bay?

Focus Sheet 3. 5

Resources for the “The Best Place to Live in the U.S.” Project

After your team brainstorms feasible research resources, please share them with other group. Do you find any commons and new resources your team did not come up with? Here are more resources for the project. However, don't limit your research into the resources that you have found so far. In finding the best place to live in U.S.A., the more you have research resources, the better will be your decision and your rationalization for it.

The World Almanac of the U.S.A.

Electronic Reference Database of “Where is in the U.S.A. Carmen San Diego”

Places Rated Almanac: Your Guide to Finding the Best Places to Live in America
(Richard Boyer & David Savagear, Rand Macnally & Company)

The Livable Cities Almanac
(John Tepper Marlin, Harper Perennial)

The 100 Best Small Towns in America: A nationwide guide to the best in small town living (Norman Crampton, Macmillan General Reference)

The Good News is the Bad News is Wrong
(Ben J. Watteenberg, A Touchstone Book)

Retirement Places Rated
(Publisher: Frommer's)

Worksheet 4. 1

Interactional Competence

While you watched the video film, please note that following points.

1. How did the conversation begin?
2. What was the first response to the opening statement?
3. How did the participants expand the discussion?
4. How was the disagreement stated?
5. What kind of language was used to clarify the lack of understanding?
6. How did the participants use language for social affirmation?
7. How did the participants take their turn during the discussion?
8. How was the topics changed?

Focus Sheet 5.1
Reading Model for Topical Organization
The 5 Best Big Places to Live
(Excerpted from the "Money" magazine of Aug. 1994)

4. SALT LAKE CITY/OGDEN

If you need a million or more neighbors to feel at home but don't want big-city crime rates, traffic congestion or pollution, Salt Lake City may be the place for you. Although there are more than a million people scattered through this metropolitan area, which we rank as America's Best Big Place, booming Salt Lake City itself remains uncrowded, with only 160,000 residents. Ogden, a fairly sleepy business center 35 miles due north, adds another 64,000 to the metro area.

In its bid to host the 2002 Winter Olympics, the home of the Utah Jazz chose the motto, "The world is welcome here." For sure! Peter Metcalf, 39, president of Black Diamond, a maker of rock- and ice-climbing gear, moved his company, wife Kathleen, two daughters and a son in 1991 from high-priced Ventura, Calif. With starter homes going for a modest \$60,000, several of his workers who transferred became first-time homeowners. "A number are Hispanic and ardent Roman Catholics," says Metcalf. "They were surprised that the community embraced them so warmly." Such success stories are luring others. For example, a 400-person AT&T Universal Card Customer Service Center opened here a year ago.

The relatively low cost of housing and prospects for home appreciation are two of Salt Lake's best draws today. Accountants Ernst & Young just ranked the city as the seventh most affordable housing market in the country, though increasing demand is forcing prices higher. "Listings these days go for close to full price," says Century 21 McAfee Realtors agent David Sampson.

The area's health care also ranks with America's best. For instance, paramedics respond to 911 emergency calls within four minutes in downtown Salt Lake. In addition, University Hospital is the major medical and research center for five surrounding states, with a strong reputation in pediatrics—appropriate for this family-oriented area.

Although the 535 inches of powder snow that fall annually in the valley's seven canyons throw off \$1.5 billion in annual tourism revenues, the snow offers residents fabulous leisure activities as well. There are nine major resorts within an hour's drive of downtown. And when the skis get mothballed in May, Utahns roll out their mountain bikes. What's more, there's the famous lake, larger than the state of Delaware, for water-skiing, sailing and windsurfing. Ecotourism also boosts the economy. A surprise new megahit: Ogden's Dinosaur Park. This year, more than 100,000 visitors will come to gawk at concrete replicas of bronto-, tyranno- and related sauruses.

Worksheet 5.2

Peer Help for Journal Writing

1. What did you like about the ideas presented in this writing?

2. Content

If you have any suggestions for improving the content of this writing, write them here.

3. Organization

a. Write one sentence conveying the most important idea of the writing.

b. How many examples are there that support the main idea?

c. Does the writer have the competence of the topical organization in his or her writing? If yes, please indicate specific example.

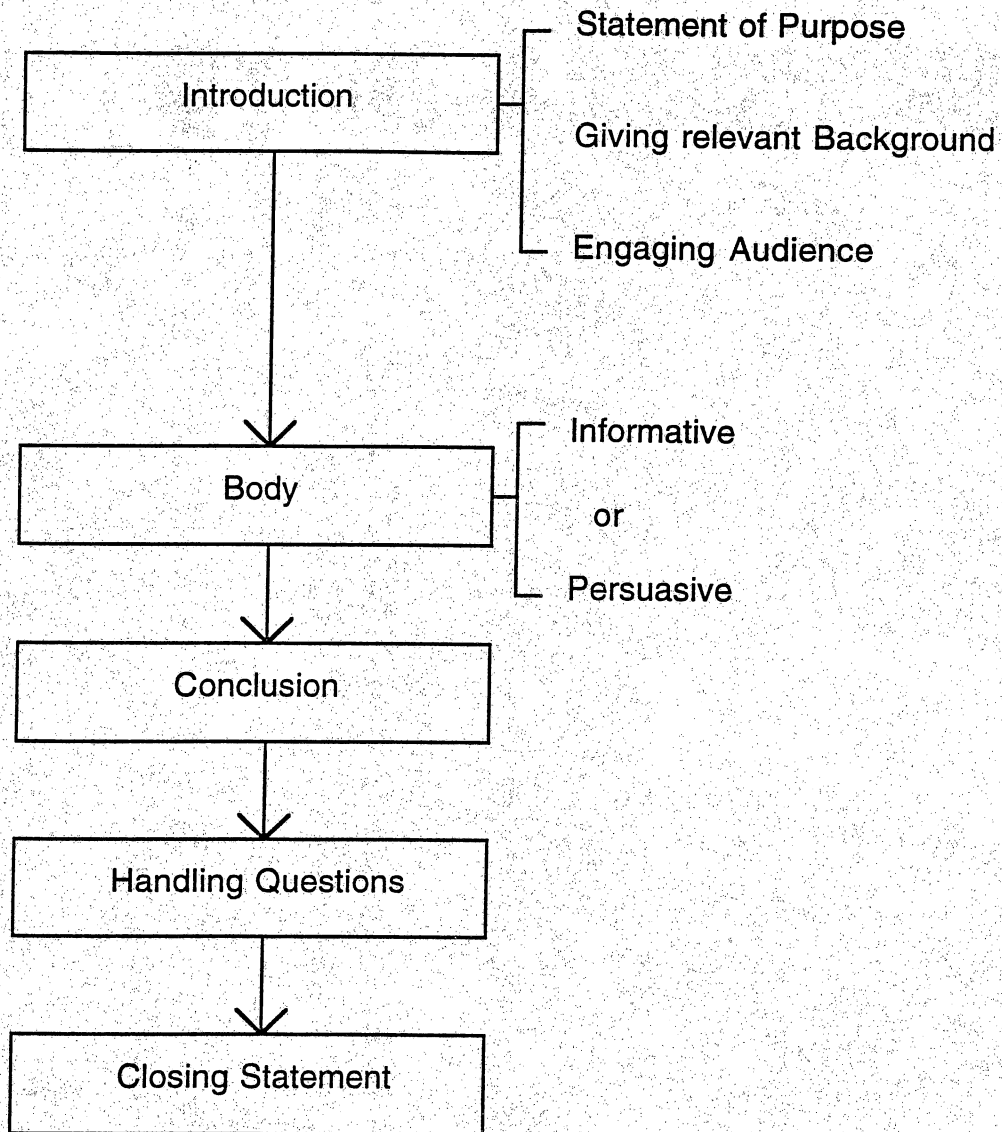
4. Editing

a. Circle anything that you think is incorrect.

b. Check the writing for spelling. Underline all words you think are misspelled.

Focus Sheet 6. 1-a

Improving Interactional Competence: Rhetorical Script for Presentation



Focus Sheet 6. 1-b

Guideline for the Presentation Script

1. Stating the Purpose

- In your introduction state the purpose of your presentation
 - why are you there?
 - what are you going to talk about?
- Here are some useful expressions for stating the purpose of the presentation.
 - “ In my presentation I’ll be **proposing** two new techniques which we need to incorporate in our CBT packages to improve our operator training.”
 - “ **In my presentation today I’m going to explain** the technical problems involved in lighting tunnels.”
 - “ **The topic of this presentation is** CBT for operator training.”

If you want to create more impact , you can change the normal word order and begin your statement of purpose with the word ‘What’ e.g.

- “ **What I’d like to do** this morning is present the results of our study.”
- “ **What I’ll be proposing** in my presentation are two new techniques which we need to incorporate in our CBT packages to improve our operator training.”

2. Signposting a presentation

- Signposting your presentation will help you to define the limits of the presentation, and to focus the audience on the aspects for the topic you want to talk about.
 - tell the audience what you will be talking about
 - tell the audience in which order you will develop your points
- Here are some useful expressions for signposting a presentation
 - “I’ll be **developing three main points. First, I’ll give you . . . Second, . . . Lastly, . . .**”
 - “My presentation will be in two main part. In the first part I’ll . . . And ten I’ll . . . Firstly, I’d like to . . . Secondly, we can . . . And I’ll finish with . . .”
 - “I’ll **begin by . . .**,” “**Let’s start with . . .**,” “**Let me now move on to . . .**,” “**My next point is.**,” “**Now, turning to . . .**,” “**Now, what about . . . ?**”

3. Involving the audience using rhetorical questions

- Use rhetorical questions
 - to build links between the various points in your presentation
 - to help keep the audience interested
 - to make the audience feel involved in your presentation.

- Here are some examples of rhetorical questions;

“Sales are down on last year. What’s the explanation for this”

How can we explain this?

What can we do about it?

How will this affect us?

What are the implications for the company?

4. Building up a conclusion

- A summary

Often a summary is needed before you give your final conclusion. Review or restate your key points from the introduction and main body of the presentation. This helps to reinforce them for your audience.

“So, to summarize/ to sum up . . . “

“At this stage, I’d like to go over/ run through . . . ”

“As I’ve explained, . . . ”

- Conclusions

This will often take the form of: a recommendation or call for action, a challenge, or a dynamic concluding statement to reinforce your message.

5. Handling questions

- After concluding your presentation, invite questions.

“I’ll be pleased to answer any questions”

“I would welcome your questions or any comments.”

“If there are any question, I’d be happy to answer them.”

- Before you answer any question, make sure you really understand it. Here are some useful tactics you can use.

- Rephrasing the original question

“So, what you’re asking is . . . ”

“If I understand the question correctly, you would like to know . . . ”

- Asking further questions to clarify the question

“Are you looking at the January/February figures?”

“When you say. . . Do you mean . . .?”

- Asking for repetition

“I’m sorry, I didn’t hear, which slide was it?”

“Sorry, could you repeat that?”

6. Closing

- Thank the audience

“ Thank you for your attention.”

“ Thank you for your joining my presentation.”

Focus Sheet 7. 2
Reflection on This Project

Has completing the project given you . . .

- 1) awareness of different perspectives and expansion of your perspectives?
- 2) a skill to rationalize your perspectives?
- 3) a new attitude and skills to accept or negotiate with different perspectives
- 4) a self-awareness for quality of life?

Did the participation in the project provide you with . . .

- 1) the opportunities to speak English to solve problems?
- 2) the opportunities to consider English as a communication tool?
- 3) the opportunities to develop interactional competence in English?


Through this project, have you improved . . .

- 1) the responsibility of playing a role to contribute group work?
- 2) the willingness to help peers in your group?
- 3) your respect and tolerance with others?

APPENDIX B: RUBRICS FOR ASSESSMENT


Students' Self-Evaluation

How did we work together?

	Myself			Group # _____		
Assist one another	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Contribute ideas	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Speak in friendly manner	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Listen politely	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Ask questions of one another	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Encourage, compliment, praise	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high
Stay on task	1 low	2	3 high	1 low	2	3 high

Teacher Observation of Group Behavior

Group: _____ Team: _____

	GROUP MEMBERS			
Willingly assists other group members				
Contributes ideas to the group				
Speaks in a friendly manner				
Listens politely				
Asks for help from other group members				
Encourages, compliments, praises				
Stays on task				

Rubric for Writing Assessment

Holistic Scoring Rubric for Writing Assessment

Level 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveys meaning clearly and effectively • Presents multi-paragraph organization, with clear introductions, development of ideas, and conclusion • Shows evidence of smooth transitions • Uses varied, vivid, precise vocabulary consistently • Writes with few grammatical/mechanical errors
Level 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conveys meaning clearly • Presents multi-paragraph organization logically, though some parts may not be fully developed • Shows some evidence of effective transitions • Uses varied and vivid vocabulary appropriate for audience and purpose • Writes with some grammatical/mechanical errors without affecting meaning
Level 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expresses ideas coherently most of the time • Develops a logical paragraph • Writes with a variety of sentence structures with a limited use of transitions • Chooses vocabulary that is (often) adequate to purpose • Writes with grammatical/mechanical errors that seldom diminish communication
Level 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attempts to express ideas coherently • Begins to write a paragraph by organizing ideas • Writes primarily simple sentences • Uses high frequency vocabulary • Writes with grammatical/mechanical errors that sometimes diminish communication
Level 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Begins to convey meaning • Writes simple sentences/phrases • Uses limited or repetitious vocabulary • Spells inventively • Uses little or no mechanics, which often diminishes meaning
Level 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draws pictures to convey meaning • Uses single words, phrases • Copies from a model

Rubric for Oral Language

Rating	Description
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Communicates competently in social and classroom settings * Speaks fluently * Masters a variety of grammatical structures * Uses extensive vocabulary but may lag behind native-speaking peers * Understands classroom discussion without difficulty
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Speaks in social and classroom setting with sustained and connected discourse; any errors do not interfere with meaning * Speaks with near-native fluency; any hesitations do not interfere with communication * Uses a variety of structures with occasional grammatical errors * Uses varied vocabulary * Understands simple sentences in sustained conversation; requires repetition
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Initiates and sustains a conversation with descriptors and details; exhibits self-confidence in social situations; begins to communicate in classroom settings * Speaks with occasional hesitation * Uses some complex sentences; applies rules of grammar but lack control of irregular forms * Uses adequate vocabulary; some word usage irregularities * Understands classroom discussions with repetition, rephrasing, and clarification
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Begins to initiate conversation; retells a story or experience; asks and responds to simple questions * Speaks hesitantly because of rephrasing and searching for words * Uses predominantly present tense verbs; demonstrates errors of omission * Uses limited vocabulary * Understands simple sentences in sustained conversation; requires repetition
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Begins to communicate personal and survival needs * Speaks in single-word utterances and short patterns * Uses functional vocabulary * Understands words and phrases; requires repetitions
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Begins to name concrete objects * Repeats words and phrases * Understands little or no English

O'Malley & Pierce, 1996, p. 67

Peer Evaluation on Group Presentation

- | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------|
| 1. Did they introduce themselves? | Yes | No |
| 2. Did they include a statement of purpose? | Yes | No |
| 3. Did they make it clear where the main points in the presentation start and end? | Yes | No |
| 4. How did they involve the audience ? | Very good | Good Poor |
| 5. Did they emphasize and highlight their main ideas? | Yes | No |
| 6. Did they manage to create an impact with ending? | Yes | No |
| 7. Did they smoothly handle the questions from the audience? | Yes | No |
| 8. Did every member take at least one role for the presentation? | Yes | No |
| 9. How can they improve their presentation? | Yes | No |
| 10. What did you learn from the presentation? | | |

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