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CULTURE TEACHING IN EFL THROUGH
COMPUTER/CRITICAL THINKING

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
Jung-Im Woo
December 2000

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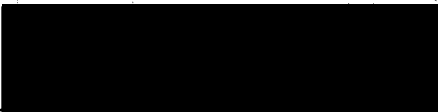
A Project
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by


Jung-Im Woo

December 2000

Approved by:


Lynne Diaz-Rico, First Reader

Oct. 25, 2000
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this project is to suggest one of the best solutions for current EFL pedagogical drawbacks in South Korea and develop a feasible curriculum that can enlarge students' crosscultural understanding. Based on computer-assisted language learning, this project is concerned with culture teaching in EFL class at the senior high school level.

Five key concepts are incorporated into the project to develop the curriculum design: culture teaching as the content objective; cooperative learning and critical thinking as process objectives; and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and the Internet as technology objectives.

The content of teaching and learning English is focused on cultural information in order to motivate students for crosscultural understanding in EFL class. Through the process of cooperative learning, more interaction among students and positive interdependent learning attitude may be produced. The process of critical thinking is also emphasized to improve students' problem solving, organized thinking, and writing strategies.

The use of computer and web-based learning, which

serve as technology objectives, will be proposed as effective teaching tools throughout the instructional activities. Based on the five key concepts mentioned above, one unit containing three lesson plans has been designed: "Let's Learn About the 60s in America."

In light of the fact that crosscultural understanding in EFL education is essential to prepare students for being global citizens in a rapidly changing world situation, this curriculum project will be helpful for senior high school students to develop cultural awareness through critical thinking.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background of the Project

In South Korea, English plays a crucial role in academic performance as well as in obtaining prestigious occupations. Without good command of English, it is hard to be admitted to competitive universities and later attain career advancement at work. Though students occupy themselves in studying English, which is one of the most important subjects to master for a successful admission to colleges or universities, most of them do not seem to be interested in English. The major reasons are huge class size, teacher-centered traditional teaching methods, insufficient teaching materials and tools, and little chance to have contact with native speakers who represent the culture of the target language.

Since 1994, the communicative teaching method, which focuses on speaking and listening skills, has pervaded secondary schools, especially junior high schools. This has had some role in improving the motivational climate. Elementary school students have been studying English since it was instituted in 1997 as a required subject. Communicative methods are especially necessary at this level. Most of all, in accordance with the spread of

computers at schools as important teaching tools, students can participate in computer lab classes, which increase interest in learning English. However, much time will elapse before educators can stabilize this innovative trend and do further research on computer-assisted language learning.

Typical English Education in South Korea

Large classes, grammar-based examinations, little motivation for communicative competence, and resistance to class participation are difficulties faced when teaching English within the Korean educational system. In South Korea, a senior high school class usually contains 50~60 students. The purpose of studying English is to achieve a good score on the national college/university entrance examinations. The English examinations consist of grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension. Teachers cling to texts and devote most of class time to teaching the skills which appear on examinations. Students also practice how to choose the correct answer on multiple-choice questions. The enthusiastic English teachers who try other methods are not liked, especially in academic senior high schools. Students have become accustomed to the traditional teaching

method in which they sit back motionless, take notes while teachers give lectures, and speak only if they are spoken to. Nearly eighty percent of an English class is spent in a one-way communication pattern. They rely on teachers to offer information directly. Oral communication in English class is almost never implemented. Most Korean students proceed through the educational system immersed in the inadequate learning environment of grammar translation methodology.

The Main Problems of English Education in South Korea

English education in South Korea has many problems that need to be changed because students can not apply what they learn to real life. Though students' reading comprehension ability may be high, their general English proficiency needs to be improved. Five challenges are suggested within current English education: problems in textbooks, lack of culture teaching as a motivational approach, lack of cooperative learning, lack of critical thinking, and lack of technological support.

Problems in textbooks. One of the difficulties in English teaching in South Korea is a narrow range in textbook choice for communicative and individualized instruction, which results from lack of funding from the

government. Although English teachers have been given autonomy since 1994 to select English textbooks among about ten different kinds of textbooks that are appropriate for their students. Most of the teachers' guidebooks for these texts do not describe specific directions about how to improve students' communicative competence. Compared with the earlier English texts that were published in accordance with the Fifth National Curriculum in 1989, these post-1994 textbooks are based more on communicative competence and contain more colorful pictures and cultural topics of the target language as the main content. However, they still lack instruction on developing speaking skills as well as specific teaching methods on how to teach the target culture.

Lack of culture teaching. Many of Korean English teachers seem to believe that it is their job to teach students English, not to motivate them to "get interested in learning" English. Students' success in learning English lies in acquiring positive attitudes toward the target language people. To achieve this goal, the most important thing is to introduce Western culture. Most textbooks contain various cultural topics, but only as a means to learn the linguistic aspects of English, not to

learn about the world in which English is spoken. In other words, English textbooks should expose students to specific situations that students might confront and that reflect some aspects of the target culture that is different from what students would expect, with the goal of reducing cultural shock when students travel to the country of the target language. When an American birthday party is introduced as a cultural topic in texts, the specific teaching directions should be given such as the following: have students talk about what gestures and speech acts are appropriate, or what to say when students are invited to a birthday party and they bring a present. Language and culture are inseparably connected (Buttjes, 1990). The best results of language learning cannot be attained if learners are not exposed to various types of cultural understanding. If learners have limited cultural understanding during their language learning, they will be embarrassed in the social contexts of the target language. In light of the fact that the most important goal English teachers should strive for is the desire on the part of students to continue studying English, cultural education cannot be overemphasized.

Lack of cooperative learning. The large class sizes and the dominant grammar translation teaching methods in South Korea have created teacher-centered classroom environments in which there is little interaction between teacher and student or between student and student. This results in limited learning from other classmates and a monotonous classroom environment. Teambuilding is essential for communicative activities and for sharing critical thinking. In fact, Asian students appear to learn best in small groups (Bodycott & Walker, 2000). This indicates that the form of the learning is more influential to the Asian students in eliciting openness than the content involved. However, the role of English teachers in South Korea is still primarily as a director rather than as a facilitator.

Lack of critical thinking. Most English teachers in academic senior high schools focus on grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension, using only a few textbooks. Students memorize words or vocabulary and guess the correct answers to the questions competitively in class. The problems here are manifold. First of all, the use of multiple-choice questions based on limited reading materials results in the lack of critical thinking.

Students' mechanical and passive learning decreases their critical thinking ability. Another main reason for the lack of critical thinking is the pre-dominantly individualistic learning. Students usually work by themselves at their own level and rate. Active exchange of ideas within small groups to promote critical thinking is not achieved in an English class. Although teachers know the advantages of cooperative learning such as more opportunity to engage in discussion and critical thinking, it is difficult to engage in group activities because one English teacher is not responsible for the performance of one class. The content of English textbooks is divided into two or three parts and each part is taught by different English teachers. Lastly, most of the writing instruction that takes place is in a form of separate sentence making rather than in essay form. There is not a separate writing class. The role of the teacher is to correct students' grammatical errors in each separate sentence. Considering the fact that critical thinking plays a vital role in achieving the resultant writing goals, a more comprehensive form of writing class should be deployed. If writing was included in the national entrance exams, teaching essay writing could be more often pursued

in class.

As mentioned above, the educational system, including the national entrance examinations, offers serious structural reasons why students cannot think critically.

Lack of technological support. Textbooks and tape recorders are the main teaching tools; multimedia is seldom used in EFL teaching in South Korea. With this limited use of technology, students soon lose interest in learning English. Most English teachers accept the fact that a variety of teaching materials would motivate students more, compared with just a few textbooks. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) lessons should be utilized in English education. In fact, the application of CALL requires well-trained teachers, but many experienced teachers consider this too complicated to learn. Considering the effects of new technology (increased motivation; individualized learning; more autonomy; prompt feedback; and a rich linguistic environment), the traditional Korean classroom settings should be enhanced with technology-enriched settings. It is urgent to change English teaching from the traditional teacher-centered model to a more motivational student-centered approach.

CAI and CALL Application in South Korea

Fortunately, in the early nineties, the Korean government announced "globalization." The idea of globalization is to help Korean companies compete abroad and help citizens meet the challenges posed by a more open domestic market. One of the keystones of this policy is innovation in English education. This is considered crucial in helping Korea cope with the pressures of a global economy. To keep pace with this mandate, the Korean government has devoted efforts to computer assisted instruction (CAI) as one of major innovation in English education. In 1994, the South Korean Ministry of Education published the progressive Sixth National Curriculum for junior high schools (grades 7-9) and senior high schools (grades 10-12). According to these curriculum standards, communicative teaching methods should replace the dominant grammar translation methods (South Korean Ministry of Education, 1992). The goal of English teaching is "to develop the learners' communicative competence in English through learner-centered activities with the aid of audio-visual equipment" (Development Committee, 1992, pp. 180-181). Recently, many secondary schools in Korea's main cities have been equipped with at least one computer in a

class and one lab class at a school. The Administration of Education has also supplied computer-training courses for English teachers. Computer-training courses are now compulsory for English teachers regardless of age or teaching experience. In light of this trend in South Korea and the potential possibility of new technology to increase student motivation, develop self-learning ability, and consequently promote higher achievement, English teachers recognize the importance of CAI and CALL and show increased interest in the effectiveness of computers in language learning.

At the end of the twentieth century, computer technology became highly developed. There are many advantages of computer use in gathering information, organizing files, and communicating via e-mail and the Internet. Those advantages are being utilized in pedagogy. In fact, computer use in the second language curriculum burgeoned in the 1990s as teachers developed computer skills. Many educators also insist that an interactive multimedia system is needed to improve the quality of English teaching, including a videodisc player, a CD-ROM player, a scanner, a music synthesizer, and a high-resolution monitor, all connected to a computer. Many

highly qualified Korean English teachers are devoting themselves to training in CAI and CALL in order to meet the needs of students.

Furthermore with the growth of computer use, English teachers have become concerned with the Internet. Teachers have been using online communication in the language classroom for more than ten years now all around the world (Warschauer, 1997). In spite of the limited contexts of computer-based teaching, English teachers in secondary schools in South Korea have also been interested in getting diverse information about teaching materials through many web sites related to English education. For many English teachers, using the Internet is still a relatively new experience, but they realize that students must know how to use computers and the Internet in their future careers. As mentioned above, the secondary schools in main cities in South Korea are usually equipped with at least one lab, which is already linked to the Internet and set up with software for e-mail and browsing the Internet. Students can use the equipment during their free time when they get permission from the lab teacher. In contrast, students cannot access the lab where teachers install their own CALL software. More than anything else, so much of the material

on the web sites is in English, and even non-directed activity such as individual's surfing the World Wide Web can involve a great deal of reading in English. Therefore making use of a variety of CALL lessons in English classes will heighten the quality of English teaching/learning and become stabilized as a way of motivating students in the near future.

Target Teaching Level

This project is designed to be used by teachers in academic senior high schools. Many Internet sites contain too high a level of vocabulary for students who learn English as a foreign language. Considering the fact that English is begun at the junior high school level in South Korea, many students at this level may have difficulty in achieving successful Internet use, largely through lack of sufficient English skills. On the other hand, most students in the academic senior high schools plan to continue their education, with the goal of entering one of the best universities if possible. English is one of the most important subjects that influence their prospects to enter colleges or stable career life. In other words, the academic senior high school students' level of English and their desire to learn English are much higher when compared

with students at the junior high school level. However, it is impossible for the teachers of the twelfth grade in the academic senior high schools to apply CALL because they need to prepare the students for the national entrance exams. Therefore, the target level of this project is focused on the tenth and eleventh grade students in academic senior high schools.

The Purpose of the Project

Assisting students with well-organized CALL lessons that involve Internet access is one way to alter the still-existing grammar-oriented class situation and to motivate the learners to concentrate more on their English class. Teaching should not simply supply partial knowledge, but rather increase both the opportunity to be an active learner and the desire to continue to study English. In view of the advantages of instructional technology, the application of CALL lessons based on the Internet to the typical English class is essential in order to cope with the demand for changes in teaching methodology.

The purpose of this project is to develop CALL lesson plans using the Internet and to offer an example for academic senior high school teachers in South Korea of exemplary treatment of cultural topics that promote

critical thinking and incorporate crosscultural understanding based on cooperative learning. In addition, by supplying CALL lesson plans using the Internet, this project will empower English teachers to search for alternative web sites and utilize them during CALL class. This project offers some web sites that are interesting and instructive for tenth or eleventh grade students and offers the opportunity to improve critical thinking and crosscultural understanding as well as advance linguistic knowledge.

The Content of the Project

This project provides sample CALL lesson plans that incorporate Internet use. The teaching goals are focused on critical thinking and crosscultural understanding based on cooperative learning. There are six main parts in this project. Chapter One profiles typical English education in South Korea and states problems with current pedagogy. Chapter Two reviews literature that includes several key theories: CALL theory; using the Internet for language learning; the educational value of cooperative learning and critical thinking; and the importance of cultural teaching in English as a foreign language (EFL). Chapter Three describes a theoretical framework that can be applied to

the teaching/learning of ESL/EFL. Chapter Four introduces the construction and content of the sample lesson plans. Chapter Five lays out an assessment design. Appendix contains one unit of three lesson plans.

The Significance of the Project

The objective of this project is that it addresses key problems in current EFL English education in South Korea. Though the Korean government has emphasized the importance of computer-assisted instruction, CALL is still seen as extra work and is not being activated in the typical English class. In addition, crosscultural understanding through critical thinking is one of the most urgent requirements in English education of Asian countries. In view of the current situation of the world as well as that of South Korea, I hope that this project will be helpful for English teachers who want their students to be critical thinkers and increase crosscultural understanding via Internet use.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

CALL is an innovative concept in English teaching and learning that impacts current models of teaching and learning. It shifts the role of the teacher from a deliverer of information to a facilitator of more active student learning. However, before curriculum design is developed using the Internet, it may be helpful to investigate five key concepts that will support this innovation. These concepts include computer-assisted language learning, using the Internet for language learning, cooperative learning, critical thinking, and culture teaching in language education. The following is an investigation of research in each of these concepts.

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Definitions of CALL

Many terms have been used for the use of computers in English language teaching. Computer-managed instruction, computer-directed instruction, computer-based instruction, computer-assisted instruction, and computer-assisted language learning are various terms that are used in the education field. Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI) are more specific terms which concern the use of computers to assist

in second or foreign language instructional activities. CAI is the usual overall acronym in the United States, while CALL is more commonly used in the United States in ESL circles (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, & Sussex, 1985). One way of distinguishing between CALL and CAI is to use CALL to refer to student-accessed, lab-based work, where computers and students interact with no instructor intervention; and to use CAI to refer to the use of computers in a classroom environment to assist instruction by the teacher (Lynch & Coughlan, 1993).

However, this distinction is not clear when the computer lab is considered as a classroom, or when the goal of computer-assisted teaching is language learning. Dunkel (1991) defines CALL as CAI applied to language learning. CALL is the most general and newest term used, especially when the focus is on technology and multimedia. The main purposes of CALL are to provide English teachers with a framework to explore the inter-relationship between language teaching and computing with effective technology (Levy, 1990); and to create an individualized interactive environment in which students can self-access a variety of learning conditions relevant to their needs and interests (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999, pp. 1-13).

Therefore, in view of these purposes, CALL is defined as computer-assisted language learning that provides an individualized classroom environment and incorporates technological advances into instruction.

Strengths of CALL

Studies on CALL have consistently shown that students have positive attitudes about computer technology being used in the classroom and that such technology does have a positive impact (Chen, 1988; Brady, 1990; Lynch & Coughlan, 1993; Warden, 1995).

Simonson and Thompson (1990) describe the strengths of CALL as follows: it provides immediate feedback; it focuses on individualization; it can keep records effectively; it is motivating to students; and it emphasizes social interaction and problem solving with a real world (pp. 102-103). Means and Olsen (1994) also state that CALL can connect student learning in the classroom to real-life authentic learning situations. DeVillar and Faltis (1991) mention that CALL facilitates social integration, communication, and cooperation for English language learners. According to Lewis and Doorlag (1991), CALL is used to focus on meaning and comprehension, foster active involvement, stimulate thinking, and

reinforce/extend students' knowledge of text. They also note four effective classroom uses of CALL: it allows individualization of instruction, motivates students, supplies new types of learning and new ways of accomplishing old tasks, and helps special students bypass or compensate for disabilities.

Liou (1992) suggests two significant attributes of CALL, which make it particularly attractive for educational purpose: interactivity and learner control. The interactive capacity allows the learner and the system to conduct a two-way learning session during which students can review what they have learned. Learner control allows the learner to control options, pace, sequence, amount of content, and direction of learning.

CALL also provides students the opportunity for working cooperatively in pairs or small groups. Several studies (Dixon, 1995; Merino, Legarreta, Coughran, & Hoskins, 1990) illustrate the value of English language learners at risk working collaboratively with English proficient students. Such pairings have been found to improve students' cognitive outcomes and benefit the psychosocial development of English language learners.

In addition, CALL can handle an impressive range of

activities. Students can read, discuss, and analyze topics interesting to them. The assignments are discipline specific, focused on content areas of real interest to the students. Besides, CALL can facilitate auditory skill development by integrating visual presentations with sound and animation (Bermudez & Palumbo, 1994). As a result, students can develop a high level of self-confidence. Software and technology in general can adjust to the levels of students' proficiency, allowing them to work side by side at different competency levels. When students accomplish individual goals as they work together or separately, these accomplishments can be translated into a feeling of confidence on the part of the learner during and after completion of a task.

One of the most important outcomes of CALL is that it can diminish the authoritarian role of the teacher (Cummins & Sayers, 1990; DeVillar & Faltis, 1991). The research of Swan and Mitrani (1993) shows those student-teacher interactions are more student-centered and individualized during CALL than traditional teaching and learning. Other research indicates that students in CALL settings are more actively engaged in learning tasks than students in the non-CALL classrooms (Sandholtz, Ringstaff, & Dwyer, 1992;

Worthen, Van Dusen, & Sailor, 1994). These studies support another strength of CALL, that it may change teaching from the traditional and teacher-centered model to a more student-centered instructional approach.

In short, CALL enables students to have immediate and meaningful feedback; allows students to become active risktakers; offers comfortable pacing by apportioning lessons into segments arranged from simplest to most complex; and makes the classroom environment interactive and learner-centered. Considering the fact that interest and discovery are important aspects of language learning, CALL is able to supply the learner with a variety of learning materials and opportunities to experience the real world in an unlimited learning environment.

Educational Value of CALL

Though CALL has some limitations, there is no question that the computer is a useful tool for teaching languages. Blaming computers for inadequate communicativeness in a language classroom is as senseless as blaming the chalkboard or the textbook of its inability to teach fluency (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999). The problem is that teachers are not using computers to the extent of its capabilities. The methods for teaching

language, at present for English but in the near future for all languages, are changing noticeably. Teachers who encourage students to use their language skills to exchange ideas, learn about other cultures, get expert advice from people living in totally different environments, and make personal contacts are those who are most effectively preparing their students with the technical and social skills necessary for surviving today's rapidly evolving world. As more resources become available on-line, particularly through the Internet, autonomous learning will become more widespread.

In light of this rapid change in methodology for language teaching, it is hard to expect educational excellence without using CALL in the classroom. Before long, Internet technology, three-dimensional multimedia, and television will be combined and readily available in many homes around the world. The teacher's role in this situation should be that of a facilitator. Linguistic accuracy alone is not enough. Students need to be encouraged to search for knowledge critically, develop intercultural awareness, and use their language skills for meaningful communication with their global peers. In all, considering the fact that the classroom environment plays

an important role in language learning as a mediator between learners, CALL can play a crucial role in terms of interaction and negotiation with an authentic audience in a learner-centered classroom.

Examples of CALL Instruction

According to Simonson and Thompson (1990), there are at least four different types of CAI instruction programs, which can be categorized as drill and practice, tutorial, simulation, and exploration and game programs. Considering the fact that CALL is CAI applied to language learning, these CAI types can also be the typical applications of CALL. They are as follows.

Drill and practice. Prior to 1984 the most commonly used CALL program type was drill and practice based on Skinner's behaviorism (Merrill, Tolman, Christensen, Vincent, & Reynold, 1992). This type of program is designed for extra practice of previously learned skills by means of repetition (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1987). Computers provide instant feedback to learners and repeat questions endlessly and in exactly the same manner. The strengths of this type are immediate feedback and useful remediation.

Tutorials. Tutorials provide short lessons in a form of a textbook and then test the students' progress with structured tests. Students can choose the pace at which they move through the material. The procedure of the tutorial is the presentation of new material, then questions and answers, followed by judgement of the learner's answer, and finally feedback and correction. Matthew and Williams (1994) have created a type of hypertext tutorial whose content uses semantic maps to focus on three overall topics: early writing, invented spelling, and composition. These are further divided into sub-topics. Learners can move through the topics using buttons that will take them to any topic. In this manner students can move through the tutorial in both linear and non-linear ways.

Simulation. The most powerful form of simulation is one in which students are placed in an applied environment where they can learn and practice decision-making and observe the results of those decisions in an iterative fashion. Upon completion of the simulation, students can be given feedback on performance and the opportunity to try the simulation again (Szebo & Fuchs, 1998). According to Higgins and Johns (1984), the computer can abstract from

real-life activities enough to permit some suspension of disbelief, and can calculate the effects of chance and of material factors so quickly and efficiently that it presents outcomes that one can accept as likely.

Simulations are programmed to produce every conceivable type of situation an individual may face. They allow learners to practice skills which may be rarely used and hard to practice, but critical if not performed properly. Examples from CAI in general include simulation of landing a commercial airliner in wind-shear conditions or gaining control over a runaway nuclear reactor. In a simulation program there must be a motivational aspect; the program must have color graphics, sound, or other stimuli. More importantly, the simulation needs to seem real so that students can see the consequences of their decisions. CALL simulations are those that put the English learner into simulated cultural settings. The following CAI programs may be used in EFL settings, although they were developed for native speakers of English.

Carrier (1991) suggests the following software used in EFL: GB Limited, Fast Food, Decisiontaker, Hotcakes, Yellow River Kingdom, and Business Advantage. In GB Limited (Carrier, 1991), students are asked to make simple

decisions about the government of the country: Should they spend more money on welfare services or invest in a new school? Should they raise income taxes or not? The political and economic consequences are calculated and discussed. No detailed background knowledge is necessary beyond that of the ordinary voter. Fast Food (Carrier, 1991) is a variation on the idea of running a lemonade stand. Students are asked to run a fast-food concession stand in an exhibition hall, deciding on what to sell, what stock to order, and what prices to charge. The simulation shows in accelerated real time what the pattern of sales and consumption does to their financial situation. No detailed background knowledge is required other than an interest in making a profit. In Decisiontaker (Carrier, 1991), students are asked to maximize the effectiveness of a factory producing steel products by deciding how to allocate numbers of workers to different tasks. Production rates are then shown in accelerated real time, and students can readjust the number of workers in each production process. No detailed background knowledge is required. In Hotcakes (Carrier, 1991), students are asked to run a company making bakery products. They have to decide how much to invest in production, advertising, or marketing.

The program takes students through several sales cycles, allowing them to fine-tune their business strategy. No background knowledge is required other than an interest in making a profit. In *Yellow River Kingdom* (Carrier, 1991), students are asked, as the residents and leaders of a rural and agricultural village, to decide how best to allocate resources in order to both feed the village and protect it from natural and human dangers. No background knowledge is required. *Business Advantage* (Carrier, 1991) is produced in conjunction with Business Week and provides very detailed real-world case studies with a rich and complex group of activities and models for experienced students to follow. As several hours of interaction are involved, it is not really suitable for the same type of approach as the simpler simulations described above.

Explorations and games. Playful explorations and games are major methods by which children learn. Computer games are no longer seen as a form of classroom entertainment. They are now viewed as motivating devices, the means for providing comprehensible input for ESL/EFL students, and a catalyst for communicative practice and the negotiation of meaning. Baltra (1984) states that the purpose of computer games is the development of

communicative fluency in ESL students. He concentrates on student-centered activities in cooperative learning situations. When games are used in the language learning, problem-solving activities have proved to be effective ways of developing communicative competence (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). Baltra (1984) states that the fun experienced in computer games contributes to motivation of the students, enhancement of curiosity, and a source of fantasy and information. There are six reasons for using computer games in ESL (Malone, 1981): clear goals; constant feedback; uncertain goal attainment; hidden information; unpredictability; and randomness. Therefore carefully designed computer games can be central part of the learning content, instead of simply a reward for the students.

In addition, a more interactive and broader use of the computer in the classroom is available now with CD-ROMs (compact disc read-only memories), which have been installed into personal computers. CD-ROMs are relatively difficult to network, hard to copy, fragile, and easy to mislay, but they are mostly used because of their huge storage capability. They offer significant advantages (Eastment, 1998): they are standardized, have useable quality, and have a wide range of available software. Any

CD-ROM will run on any PC, as long as it is powerful enough. CD-ROMs are produced by programmers, graphic designers, and content creators to store and integrate video, audio, graphics, and text. As a result, CD-ROMs provide a rich and fully contextualized learning environment for English language teaching.

One of the most exciting options for foreign language educators is interfacing Interactive VideoDisc (IVD) with a personal computer to create instructional materials. An attractive feature of IVD is its capacity to present realistic scenarios that provide verbal and nonverbal input in the target language. The Montevideo program (Gale, 1989), which is used for students learning Spanish, simulates a visit to a Mexican village. Students using the program respond to native speakers whose questions appear on the computer screen and the direction in which the program branches is determined by students' responses. There are more than 1,100 branching opportunities, so conceivably an individual can make many visits to the village, encountering new experiences and gathering different languages, grammar, and cultural clues on each visit. Liou (1992) suggests that the objectives of IVD are as follows: to develop reading comprehension and speaking

skills; to bring the learner as close as possible to a real conversational situation; to expose the learner to the culture of the language; and to encourage students to become active listeners, guessers, predictors, and risktakers.

Another interesting exercise is Bubble Dialogue developed by Harry McMahon (Goodwin, Hamrick, & Stewart, 1995). Each cooperative learning group is assigned a character from whose perspective they are to tell the story. This is a two-dimensional process in which each character has two balloons used in cartoon strips. Several members of the cooperative learning group assume the role of the character and tell the story in one bubble. Another bubble is used for remaining members of the cooperative active learning group to voice their feelings about the character, the character's motives, how they feel about the story, and so forth. After the groups have elaborated upon the characters in the story, using the computer to record their comments, the accumulated information becomes the basis for further class discussion. Disagreement among students about the character's motives for his/her actions can generate enthusiastic debate.

Lastly, the most general tool of CALL is word

processing, which allows students to type the text directly into the computer via the typewriter-style keyboard. A good example is story completion. This might consist of having students read the first half of an unfamiliar O. Henry story and then make up the second half. The computer is simply a tool to facilitate the task as Goodwin et al. Note, " The design assumption is that such endeavors foster a nonthreatening atmosphere in which conversation and ideas flow freely and is recorded with a minimum of effort. One of the most redeeming features of the computer is that students can readily amend their commentary" (p. 26).

Another example of word processing is making a newsletter. A student-produced newsletter is an excellent extracurricular activity that fosters a lot of interaction and discussion as well as install a sense of accomplishment among students (Goodwin, et al., 1993). A computer, a simple word processing program, a printer, and a photocopy machine may be the only inducement that an ESL/EFL program director needs for students to join their peers in this activity. There is no need for overconcern with design as long as the students are enthusiastic and produce the newsletters themselves.

Limitations of CALL

There are inappropriate reasons for using CALL in English teaching. Kennedy (1989) describes the computer as no more than a sophisticated piece of technological hardware that can be used well or badly. Computers may be used to replace teachers and focus on rote memory exercises (Apple, 1989; Lewis & Doorlag, 1991). Vacca, Vacca, and Gove (1987) pinpoint the weaknesses in four different types of CALL programs: drill and practice, tutorial, simulation, and exploration and game programs. The weaknesses of drill and practice programs may be as follows: a focus on lower-level skills only; a narrow range of teaching strategies; boring content if poorly constructed; and limited access for students if there is only one computer available. The weaknesses of tutorial programs are as follows: limited teaching strategies; limited computer response to students because of no insight into individual students' need; and a restricted multiple-choice format. The weaknesses of simulation programs according to Vacca et al. (1987) are difficulty of use and lack of specific targeting of English skills. Finally, unclear objectives and ineffective use are the weaknesses of exploration and game programs.

Chapelle and Jamieson (1986) caution that it is hard

to support the effectiveness of CALL without looking at the other student variables that are important in second language acquisition. Certain types of learners may be better suited for CALL than others. Their research shows learners are more successful when the method of CALL which is employed in a particular learning activity matches students' cognitive style (Chapelle & Jamieson, 1986). Besides, CALL does not explain the details of student-computer interaction and there is no convincing evidence that the achievement score of students improves significantly as a result of CALL (Lynch & Coughlan, 1993).

The design of software as a key feature of CALL programs is another limitation. Careful attention should be paid in designing the CALL computer screens to motivate students. No matter how sound the instruction is pedagogically, it is worthless if students are not motivated to operate the program or become frustrated in the process. The program should be easy to start and menu-driven in order for students to get interested in and familiar with CALL class (Hagg, 1985).

In addition, both students and teachers need to learn how to use computers (Lynch & Coughlan, 1993; Eastment, 1998). Some students are uncomfortable with computers.

Teachers' attitudes toward computers may be negative to the extent that CALL is seen as extra work (Chisholm, 1993). To gain knowledge and skills that they need to become more familiar with CALL, teachers need to understand CALL theory as well as the use of computers. Teachers should also be enthusiastic and motivated to search for the best methods for teaching English with computers. In order to cope with teachers' computer anxiety or technophobia (Rosen & Well, 1995), teacher-training courses for CALL are needed. Four core skills should be included in the courses for teachers to be qualified for CALL (Eastment, 1998). /The main core skills are as follows: searching for specific information; evaluating accuracy with so much material available; creating new information; and integrating the new technology with the rest of teaching program (Eastment, 1998). /It has been suggested that teacher preparation programs need to include several aspects if CALL is to be incorporated successfully from elementary to high school classrooms. These aspects are as follows: addressing classroom management issues; exposing prospective teachers to classrooms where a variety of technologies are being used; demonstrating various types of software and instructional methods that can be utilized with a diverse

student population; modeling of teaching and learning strategies by university faculty using computer-related technologies; and training teachers in the evaluation of software (Chisholm, 1993).

CALL can deprive teachers and students of the pleasure which comes from direct contact during class (Cuban, 1986). It might result in an impersonal classroom environment if teachers do not play a skillful role. Most of all, CALL requires a special classroom equipped with expensive computer systems, along with technicians to keep the computers working properly.

In view of the potential possibility of CALL to increase motivation, develop self-learning ability, emphasize social interaction and critical thinking, and consequently yield increased learning, ESL/EFL teachers should recognize its importance. A well-designed CALL class should be integrated into the curriculum as a whole and serve as an effective instructional tool, a facilitator of communication, a supplier of a variety of resources, and a medium of expression for listening, speaking, writing, and reading in English as a second or foreign language.

Using the Internet in Language Learning

Although computers have been used in language

teaching since the mid-sixties, their development was for several decades hindered by the fact that they could only display text or simple graphics. Since the early nineties, however, low-cost personal computers have been able to handle sound, high-quality graphics, and video. However, the term CALL connotes to many people the idea of special software programs and expensive, state-of-art computer systems, which many educators on limited budgets may simply not be able to afford. The good news is that there are many resources available on the Internet, which can aid teachers and English learners. This carries great potential for educational use, especially for second and foreign language education, because it has pervaded every sector of the world. The Internet is being used by more and more schools and teachers in one way or another as one of the technologies that have the most impact on the language classroom (Toffler, 1990; Warschauer, 1995). Learning a language cannot be limited to the memorization of facts. The ability to apply information and skills within a variety of settings is essential for students to become active members in society. Because technology has become an integral part of that society, it must become an integral part of the curriculum of language programs.

If language is communication, any technology that links computers so that learners can talk to each other supplies opportunities for genuine communication. The Internet offers situations that are true to life. The best facet of the Internet is that not only does it foster communication, but it also provides diverse sources for teachers to search for authentic and up-to-date materials within the context of real life situations. Students can engage in classroom work more cooperatively with one another in a time-and-space-independent fashion (Ortega, 1997).

History of the Internet

Over the past few years, the Internet has emerged as a prominent new technology whose use is widespread in many fields. The field of education has also been influenced by this innovation. To preview the history of the Internet will be helpful to perceive both the process of development and the meaning of the Internet.

ARPANET. In the late 1960s, Advanced Research Projects Agency (ARPA) in America started a project of connecting different computers in various locations. The goal of this project was to economize the use of broadband telephone network and to help researchers in various

locations to communicate with each other through computers. The result of this project was the Advance Research Project Agency Network (ARPANET) conceived on January 2, 1969. The early ARPANET was a network of four connected computers located at the University of California in Los Angeles, Stanford Research Institute, the University of California in Santa Barbara, and the University of Utah.

In 1983 the ARPANET was split into two separate networks, one for research and the other for military communication. Since then other networks have been formed such as Computer Science Network (CSNET), or Because It's Time Network (BITNET). All of these networks were connected to the ARPANET (Miller, 1992). One outcome from the ARPANET is the concept of interconnection of networks.

NSFNET. Unlike the ARPANET, the National Science Foundation Network (NSFNET) was designed so that a site could indirectly connected to the NSFNET backbone through a regional network. A variety of profit and non-profit organizations called network providers were formed to manage these regional networks. IBM, MCI, and Merit formed a company called Advanced Network and Services (ANS) whose purpose was to connect the NSFNET to the networks that the ANS owned. Today the ARPANET has been replaced by the

NSFNET (Comer, 1991).

The Internet today. The Internet is a worldwide interconnection of networks, connecting several backbones outside the U. S., such as EBONE in Europe and WIDE in Japan (Cerf, 1990). It is a confederation of thousands of computers from various sectors of society connected with numerous computer networks (Lewis, 1994). It serves as a network that connects many companies offering various services. Today, the popularity of the Internet is growing rapidly. It was not long ago that the Internet was perceived as a network that served the academic and research communities. Since the 1990s the public has increasingly viewed the Internet as another means by which to communicate (Leiner, 1994). The Internet has become a worldwide network that interacts on standardized set of protocols, or connection program, which act independently of particular computer operating systems, allowing a variety of access methods.

The Internet as a Teaching and Learning Tool

Teachers in the traditional language laboratory in the sixties and seventies monitored their students' interaction by using a central control panel. The language lab activities based on a central control panel or teaching

machines resulted in a stimulus-response behavior pattern (Singhal, 1997). Furthermore, the amount of student-teacher interaction was minimal, and individualized instruction was irrelevant.

With the new trend that the computer is now used in most language classrooms, the Internet is gradually being introduced in the second language classroom. Each individual Internet site brings something different to the whole such as a database, library services, graphs, maps, electronic journals, etc. The end result is a vast accumulation of information. The Internet is essential in the education field in terms of information exchange. Through electronic mail, newsgroups, listservs, professional on-line discussion groups, and so forth, information on a variety of topics can be retrieved through the World Wide Web (WWW), the interconnected set of Internet sites.

Advantages of the Internet

Many teachers have used the Internet to change the traditional teacher-centered class environment into a communicative student-centered one. This shift is due to the numerous benefits of the Internet to the language learners.

First, learning how to use the Internet provides a strong intrinsic motivation for learning English (Warschauer, 1997). One potentially motivating and supportive outcome of Internet use is that students begin to realize that the world is connected together through the use of this technology. Students appreciate in more concrete terms the usefulness of acquiring ESL skills because the majority of information on the Internet is in English. Thus, English is now taken as a vital and important skill that will be useful later in life (Muehleisen, 1997).

Second, the Internet enables people in a wide variety of locations to interact with one another and exchange cultural content. With synchronous computer, two or more people can send messages via the Internet which can be responded simultaneously (Negroponte, 1991). As a result, the Internet places English in a cultural context (Muehleisen, 1997). Language and culture are inextricably linked and interdependent. Understanding the culture of the target language enhances understanding of the language. To this end, the Internet is a valuable resource for learning about other cultures and ways of thinking.

Third, the interaction that results from the above

situations can lead to interactive and cooperative/ collaborative learning and increase communication among students from all over the world (Fox, 1998). The Internet provides an authentic communication tool. Through e-mail and online bulletin boards, students can correspond with keypals. In this way they may participate in sharing ideas, keeping in touch, passing along information, and expressing feelings with native speakers without traveling to the target language country.

Fourth, effective use of the Internet results in the increased reading and writing skills (Trokeloshvilli & Jost, 1997; Singhal, 1997; Fox, 1998). Students who are taking the time to respond to e-mail and who offer opinions on discussion group pages are intimately involved in the creative process and result in their own progress. Singhal (1997) states that although it is electronic, the Internet is entirely related to literacy and people interact with it through reading and writing.

Fifth, the Internet promotes higher order thinking skills (Mike, 1996). Searching the WWW requires logic skills. Once information has been obtained, it must be reviewed which requires scanning, discarding, and evaluative judgment on part of the learner. One must

synthesize the information obtained to make it coherent through these processes, requiring critical thinking.

Sixth, there are many resources available on the Internet, which can help teachers of English as a second/foreign language and learners. The resources are based on hypertext pages which offer hyperlinks (direct "jumps") to connect to other pages. Certain words or images contain links to other multimedia effects and information, which in turn often contain links to still more. The Internet also provides supplemental language, which can provide students with additional practice in specific areas of language learning (Singhal, 1997). These include reading comprehension questions, grammar exercises, pronunciation exercises, cloze tests, vocabulary exercises, and so forth.

Lastly, the Internet is easy to use and costs are low. A person surfing the web only needs to be able to point at a highlighted word or picture and click on a mouse key to link to the relevant information, without knowing what kind of computer it is stored on, or in what part of the world that computer might be located. The only services schools need are a modem, a telephone line to connect to a host computer, and a service provider who will supply Internet

access.

As mentioned above, the Internet has the potential to make an enormous influence on language teaching. The ability of the Internet to integrate high-quality video and audio with texts and language exercises can provide an ideal learning environment that is controllable by the learners in the near future.

Disadvantages of the Internet

While the Internet offers a great deal to the language learner, it has some disadvantages. First of all, the rich resources on the Internet can lead tempt users into hours of surfing with the result of little concrete information. Singhal (1997) states that the nature of the Internet itself can be a disadvantage at times. When lines are busy due to many users, it may take time to access information or browse the net. Technical glitches themselves can lead to frustration.

Students' lack of Internet knowledge can be serious impediment to the activity. Brown (1999) indicates that if a class is made up of a majority of novices, it will be difficult to carry out the activity, as time will be spent on learning to navigate and use the web browser rather than on the learning goals. Using the Internet with a group of

over 15 students in this situation is a challenge in classroom management.

Lastly, not all information on the Internet is relevant to the class content. There is enough variety of information available, but they may not be substantial information in depth. Chat rooms, which offer real-time discussion opportunity can be dangerous if not supervised. Also through e-mail, which is not face to face conversation, students can misunderstand the messages (Grabe, 1998). The use of the Internet in class requires teachers' ability to choose the content that is proper to the students' level and to supervise students' use of the tools.

Comparison of Traditional Language Learning and Web-based Language Learning

Pollard and Pollard (1993) compare multimedia environment with traditional environment. Considering the fact that the Internet is one of multimedia, the following differences demonstrate the effects of the Internet on current educational situation (see Table 1).

Table 1. Comparison between a Traditional Environment and Multimedia Environment (adapted from Pollard & Pollard, 1993, p. 11)

Traditional Environment	Multimedia Environment
Onus for learning placed on teachers	Onus for learning placed on learners
Teachers viewed as content specialists	Teachers viewed as learning specialists
Teaching as an instructive process	Teaching as a constructive process
Passive learners	Active learners
Teachers as presenters and knowledge providers	Teachers as facilitators and organizers of knowledge
Learners' access limited to textbooks and other printed, dated materials	Learners' access unlimited, with amounts of knowledge available through technology
Isolation of the classroom	Learning environment extending beyond the classroom walls
Learner as a receptacle of information	Learner as a creative problem solver and information user
Emphasis on individual projects and achievement	Emphasis on collaboration and group project-oriented activities
Teachers attending to administrative tasks for a great deal of the day	Computer technology expediting teacher administrative tasks

The homepage of Linda Mak at <http://www/hku.hk/sscr/new Learn.html> lists some ways in which language learning on the Web-based language learning is different from traditional classroom learning (see Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison between Traditional Language Learning and Web-Based Language Learning (Adapted from Mak at <http://www.hku.hk/ssrc/newLearn.html>).

Traditional Language Learning	Web-based Language Learning
Linear presentation	Hypertext, multimedia
Not motivating	High motivation
Receptive learning	Self-paced, self-access learning
High teacher control	High learner control
One-to-many (teacher to students)	Individual + many-to-many
Limited sources	Unlimited, update information
Interaction with fellow classmates	Contact with native speakers, professionals

As two comparisons indicate, the Internet provides more choices and resources for language learners than the traditional classroom. On the Internet, there are various routes for learners to contact vast amounts of knowledge and learning materials presented in hypertext. Students may stop at any point to click on a highlighted phrase and go on to other support information. The Internet is much more motivating and learner-centered than the traditional learning environment. More than anything else, the strongest benefit of the Internet is that it supplies learners with an international audience and professionals of various fields to interact with and stimulates the

desire of learners to learn the English language, entering into the real world.

Typical Activities Using the Internet

The Internet systems allow learners to communicate with others and encourage their inquiry. The typical Internet communication tools are electronic (e)-mail, chat, bulletin boards/ mailing lists, and videoconferencing systems, while surfing the WWW is the most efficient use of the Internet tools that promote students' inquiry.

Using e-mail. The most commonly used communication tool on the network is e-mail. This is the oldest form of computerized communication, and is used both by the Internet and by many other wide-area networks. E-mail is an Internet access system for sending, receiving, and storing messages (Grabe & Grabe, 1998). The popularity of e-mail stems from its familiar, efficient, and versatile applications. Students can initiate discussions with their teachers or with other students any time of day, and from a number of places, rather than only during class or office hours, resulting in greatly increased student-teacher and student-student interaction (Harasim, 1986; Phillips, Santoro, & Kuehn, 1988). A student does not need to wait for an instructor's permission to talk. They can

communicate their thoughts at their own pace, leading to further opportunities for self-expression (Hartman, Neuwirth, Kiesler, Sproull, Cochran, Palmquist, & Zubrow, 1991). According to Kroonenberg (1994), writing e-mail can be used to generate ideas about a topic, or enable learners to free-write without any impositions. Because the processes of questioning and communicating are essential to learning, e-mail has much to offer teachers and learners (Grabe & Grabe, 1998). It is also possible for the Internet users to send e-mail to AppleLink, Bitnet, Compuserv, Fidonet, UUCP, Pegasus, and other networks, which have gateways between each other.

E-mail can also be used to communicate long-distance with language learners in other schools or countries. Students are provided with a real context to improve their writing which helps them expand their ideas and content areas. In addition, the content areas of reading and functional writing across cultural boundaries familiarize them with international telecommunications (David & Chang, 1994). Therefore the recipient does not have to be on-line at the time the message is sent. The message is composed on-line or in a word-processor and then uploaded and is sent from one person to many people via bulletin boards and

discussion lists.

There are many ways to use e-mail in the classroom (Muehleisen, 1997). Making a class e-mail directory encourages students to practice English by sending e-mail to each other. Finding keypals is also an ideal situation which each student is matched with two or three students in other countries. When teachers want to closely supervise the e-mail exchanges, matching the class with another class is recommended so that teachers can easily monitor what students are doing and make sure that each student is getting a response from a keypal. There are many Internet sites which deal with keypals. Intercultural Classroom Connections (<http://www.stolaf.edu/network/iecc/index.html>) is the best site for teachers who want to match up classes for keypal exchanges or other Internet projects. Dave's ESL Café (<http://www.pacificnet.net/~sperling/student.html>) and the Exchange List of PenPals (<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/exchange/contributions/penpals/penpals.html>) are very good sites for individual students looking for keypals. All listings are current as of June 2000 and contain information about the keypals' hobbies and interests. The Pen Pal Exchange (<http://www.iwaynet.net/~jwolve/pal.html>) has listings for individuals looking penpals as well as for

teachers who want to match up classes. Most of the class listings are for elementary through high school classes.

Chat. Chat is one of the easier synchronous formats to use because it requires only a Web browser and a URL to use it. When chat participants type in comments, these comments are sent to the chat server and then relayed immediately to all that are connected to the chat session. The cyber rooms available that are virtual environments for real-time communication are Web Chat, Multi-Object Oriented (MOO), Web-enhanced MOO (WOO), and Internet Relay Chat (IRC) (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999), and these are used as discussion and simulation areas (Ozeki, 1995).

Web Chat, which requires the users to register, has some disadvantages for the language learner (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999): None of the sites are designed specifically for the learners; other users' language or graphics may be unpleasant, vulgar, or rude; and screen refreshes, slow graphics downloads, or other delays may make the reading of the conversation difficult and disjointed.

MOOs are multi-user domains that are object oriented, a concept that also contains Multi-user Domain/Dungeon (MUD). MUDs began as dungeons-and-dragons-type games on

the Internet, and some MOO terminology reflects those beginnings. MOOs are social environments. Many of them are close in concept to local bars, pubs, cafes, or corner coffee shops where people gather to chat, exchange news, and meet new people. Each MOO has its own theme, ranging from wild role-playing games to serious academic topics. Through the MOO, the users socialize and interact as well as collaborate to build and create things using a really simple yet powerful object oriented programming language (Epstein, 1994). An example is Café MOOlano (<http://moolano.berkeley.edu/>). A WOO is accessed through the Web and uses the Web's graphical interface to make the experience more pleasant. A good example of this is The Sprawl (<http://sensemedia.net/sprawl/>). Internet relay chat (IRC), which permits synchronous conversation, creates channels that users can log on to and chat away. Users join a channel that others are already talking in. Through IRC, the teacher may coordinate with a teacher from another country so that students may participate in person to person, or person to group conversations. These experiences stimulate authentic communication and assist students in developing specific communication skills such as arguing, persuading, or defending a particular point.

Using bulletin boards/ mailing lists. Bulletin board is a variation on the theme of e-mail. On the Internet, bulletin boards often take the form of Listservs, which are essentially automatic mailing and routing programs. They are systems for relaying an e-mail message to all of the e-mail addresses on a membership list. The site from which the list originates is called the list server or listservs (Grabe & Grabe, 1998). Bulletin boards or mailing lists provide the opportunity to participate in or simply observe an ongoing group discussion. For teachers or learners interested in specific topics, they provide a way to communicate with others who share similar interests.

There is a general protocol for subscribing to one of these groups. When message is sent to the appropriate address in the form listserv@maching.domain.country, the subscriber will then receive all messages sent to that particular group. This is a good facility for people within a discipline or profession who may want to share information with colleague who are remote (Ozeki, 1995). Listservs from around the world can offer news and discussion groups in the target language, providing another source of authentic input and interaction.

Videoconferencing. Videoconferencing allows participants to communicate using both video and audio. The speed of the connection to the Internet has a major influence on the quality of the visual signal that learner's experience. Such synchronous visual conferencing allows people to communicate "in person" instantly on-line. This can take place on a university network or in language laboratory. CU-SeeMe, free software originally developed by Cornell University, allows anyone to participate in videoconferencing with minimal equipment: an Internet connection, a computer equipped with video and audio digitizing hardware, a video camera, and a microphone (Grabe & Grabe, 1998).

Using the Usenet. A more general way of receiving and disseminating information is through the use of the Usenet, a collection of over 2,000 newsgroups which all share the same protocol. These groups function like bulletin boards. Users can access Usenet and use several different news reading programs. It is possible to select only pertinent news groups from the full panoply. There are various groups relating to education, distance education, language education, linguistics, languages and cultures, and so on (Digital & McLellan, 1997).

Surfing the WWW. The WWW is so successful because it integrates multimedia, such as text, images, video, and sound. In addition, the WWW offers hypermedia that allow multimedia to be experienced in a nonlinear fashion. Because of this flexibility, students may explore and modify their research as it unfolds. They will be forced to adapt, to select paths, and to adjust their strategies in order to meet the criteria of the given work. These are all important elements to the cognitive learning theories (Grabe & Grabe, 1998). Most of all, much of the material on the Internet is in English and surfing the WWW can involve a great deal of reading in English. Therefore surfing the WWW is a good way of introducing students to the basic functions of the browser such as the forward and back buttons, the jump function, and bookmarks. By using a variety of search engines, students can gather much more information. Once at a search engine site, students can browse through many categories or menus to narrow the search. They type in key words and press "enter" key to find any page containing these key words.

Scaffolding is another method to guide students to use the Internet for their research. In this case the teacher provides specific web sites students must use or

select from, and a specific outline detailing what information the student must find (Grabe & Grabe, 1998). This is a positive way to allow students to get used to the Internet before starting to surf the web through search engines.

However, for students with limited English skills, it may be frustrating to surf the site teachers require. One of the best ways to reduce the beginners' frustration and increase their interests in using the WWW is a WWW treasure hunt contest. Through this activity, students practice their search skills as they race to answer questions.

Teachers write questions based on interesting pages they find while they are browsing, and also ask students to write questions. One example used in Treasure Hunt (Muehleisen, 1997) is the following: How many hairstyles has Hillary Clinton had since her husband became president? Can you find a page, which shows you some of them? The answer can be found at <http://hillaryhair.com/index.shtml>.

Surfing the Web is a direct way to increase interaction between students and information on the Web. There are many search engines such as Yahoo, Alta Vista, Infoseek, Hotbody, Magellan, Lycos, Excite, Look smart, Netfind, and so on (Maddux, 1997). Rather than allowing the students

to randomly surf the net, teachers find particular sites, use the information to enhance the lesson plan for the day, and direct the students to that particular site. After finding the information, students can complete the lesson using the material on that site and by using the links provided, print the answer sheet, and deliver it to teachers in person or via e-mail.

The Internet via computer-mediated communication induces more equal and democratic participation because it decentralizes teacher authority and increases student participation in networked classrooms, especially the involvement of students who are least likely to participate in traditional classrooms. Using the Internet for language learning increases on student-student communication and social construction of knowledge. It can be inferred that students can be more motivated and share their insights and assist one another in learning English on a wide selection of topics that interest them, and finally participate in communicative learning through cooperative learning environment.

Cooperative Learning

The emphasis on language teaching has recently shifted from structural competence to communicative

competence. It means that the ability to manipulate the linguistic structures correctly is less focused on than the use of appropriate language in real communication. Thus it can be predicted that language instruction which emphasizes interpersonal communication will be more effective than instructional methods that focus on having students learn rules of grammar (Breen & Candlin, 1980; Brumfit, 1980; Krashen, 1985; Littlewood, 1981). The best classroom lessons in English are therefore those in which students understand the content and in which they are directly and actively involved in a natural process of communication with others.

One of the most prominent classroom management techniques for improving social relations among classmates is cooperative learning (Sharan, 1980). The research on cooperative learning has promoted it as an effective way to develop students' academic English achievement. According to a survey conducted by Puma, Jones, Rock, and Fernandez (1993), 79 percent of elementary school teachers and 62 middle school teachers in America use some techniques of cooperative learning. Besides, cooperative learning is recommended for second language learners to lower language anxiety in order to facilitate target language learning

(Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995) and improve self-esteem and attitude toward schools (Roswal, Mims, Croce, Evans, Smith, Young, Burch, Horvat, & Block, 1995). Bejarano (1987) indicates small group teaching is more efficient for practicing language skills than other techniques. In addition, cooperative learning methods provide teachers with effective ways to respond to diverse students for promoting academic achievement and cross-cultural understanding.

In light of these positive effects, cooperative learning is regarded as a powerful educational approach for helping all students attain content standards and develop the interpersonal skills needed for succeeding in a multicultural world.

Definitions of Cooperative Learning

Research on cooperative learning has generated many definitions for cooperative learning. Olsen and Kagan (1992) define cooperative learning as group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held responsible for one's own learning and is motivated to enhance the learning of others. Kessler (1992) defines

cooperative learning in language learning context as a within-class grouping of students of different levels on specific tasks in such a way that all students in the group benefit from the interactive experience. Johnson, Johnson, and Halubec (1994) give a definition of cooperative learning as the instructional use of small group through which all students participate to get the best result in their own and each others' learning. According to Slavin (1989), cooperative learning is a process by which students work together in-groups to master material initially introduced by the teacher.

In short, cooperative learning is a teaching strategy in which small groups use and exchange a variety of learning activities to get the best result. Consequently, students can master material easier and create an atmosphere of achievement.

Key Elements of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning takes many forms and definitions, but most cooperative approaches have several essential features, which are different from other teaching methods. According to Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1993), the key elements are as follows.

Positive interdependence. A positive feeling among a

group of students should be engendered while the group members are working together. This is critical to the success of the cooperative group, because it creates a dynamic interconnectedness among students. In order to achieve positive interdependence, teachers should create the requirement that students are responsible for both themselves and their team members.

Individual and group accountability. Two levels of accountability must be structured into cooperative lessons to achieve the lesson objectives. The group must be accountable for achieving its goals and each member must also be accountable for contributing his or her share of the work. Students are most motivated when they are assured that their grades will remain a true reflection of their individual effort. Therefore individual evaluation is recommended to maximize the effects of cooperative learning (Slavin, 1990).

Collaborative skills (teambuilding). Certain social skills that are needed to develop social interaction for effective teamwork. Academic skills are required when students achieve task objectives, and social skills are needed when they interact as a member of team.

Cooperative learning is inherently more complex than

competitive or individualistic learning because students have to engage simultaneously in taskwork and teamwork. Social skills must be taught to students like academic skills. Leadership, decision-making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management skills help students manage both taskwork and teamwork successfully (Johnson, Johnson, & Qin, 1995). Olsen and Kagan (1992) categorize social skills as follows (see Table 3).

Table 3. Skills Required During Cooperative Learning (adapted from Olsen & Kagan, 1992, P. 13).

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

Processing group interaction. Time should be spent for groups to discuss how well they have cooperated and how they have to enhance their future cooperation for the most

effectiveness of groupworking. Thus clear and explicit instruction in structuring group interaction is very essential to achieve successful outcomes.

Heterogeneous grouping. Students should work with groupmates who are different from them on such variables as sex, past achievement, ethnicity, and diligence. This offers opportunities for relationships between language-minority and language-majority students and native and non-native English speakers.

Effects of Cooperative Learning

Research on cooperative learning suggests that the use of cooperative learning may be associated with gains in the following areas.

Positive relationships among team members. When students work in cooperative groups, group members receive the emotional and academic support that helps them overcome the obstacles they may face in schools. In such a supportive atmosphere, English learners can establish more equal relationships with their peers (Johnson & Johnson, 1995).

High-level thinking skills. In natural and interactive contexts of cooperative learning, students listen to one another, ask questions, clarify issues, and

restate points of view. Through these processes, students increase opportunities to initiate critical thinking and problem solving, and finally obtain feedback from their peers and comprehend language (Webb, 1989). In other words, they can engage more in analyzing, explaining, synthesizing, and elaborating through cooperative learning. Interactive tasks also stimulate and develop the students' cognitive abilities. Such interactive experiences are valuable for English learners. By stimulating language input and output, cooperative strategies provide English learners with natural settings in which they can infer, derive, and express meaning from academic content (McGroarty, 1993).

High academic standards. There is a strong agreement among researchers that cooperative learning has positive effects on student academic achievement (Cohen, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Generally higher language achievement in the class was reported when small-group techniques were used (Bejarano, 1987). However, the effects depend on the implementation of cooperative learning methods that include its essential elements.

High self-esteem and liking of school. Cooperative learning makes the classroom more realistic in terms of the real world of work and gives students a motive toward

success and happiness. When students of different backgrounds work together toward a common goal, they respect for one another, increase self-esteem, and increase liking for school (Slavin, 1990).

Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative learning is believed as beneficial to second language learners because it offers opportunities for premodified input that focuses on meaning in low-anxiety contexts, interactionally modified input, and comprehensible output (Rivers, 1994). Early studies of cooperative learning in L2 classrooms compared teacher-centered classes to small group or pair work. L2 learners were found to have more language practice opportunities and displayed a wider range of language functions in group or pair work than in teacher-centered classes (Long & Porter, 1985).

Cooperative learning results in better performance on an overall measure of English proficiency and facilitates language learning because it promotes active and complex communication and increases comprehension and social language function (Olsen & Kagan, 1992). McDonnell (1992) offers a set of academic and cognitive skills that can be promoted in cooperative language learning. A subset of

this list may be grouped into academic/cognitive and social/affective skills (see Table 4).

Table 4. Academic/Cognitive and Social/Affective Skills Promoted in Cooperative Learning (adapted from McDonell, 1992, p. 59)

<p>Academic/ Cognitive Skills</p>	<p>Benefits from cooperative learning, students can:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Generate more ideas and be expected to different points of view 2. Ask their own questions so that they own their learning and have better retention 3. Make use of exploratory talk and offer possible suggestions and tentative ideas 4. Realize the fact that their talk helps them to understand better 5. Acquire higher-level thinking skills 6. Develop short-term and long-term recall of information 7. Experience genuine intellectual inquiry that cultivates moral and intellectual autonomy 8. See how others learn and how they learn 9. Present what they know and reflect on how they learn it 10. Develop problem-solving strategies
<p>Social/ Affective Skills</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Develop a tolerant point of view 2. Gain confidence while learning as result of peer support and encouragement 3. Value their thinking and experiences during the learning process 4. Become more responsible for their own learning and the learning of others 5. Having shared experiences that become the basis for learning 6. Build on what they know already with increased motivation 7. Develop empathetic perspectives as result of working together 8. Learn how to work together 9. Develop a liking for self and others

The Use of Technology in Cooperative Learning

The use of groups is advocated by many educators for technology-based learning (Johnson & Johnson, 1985) or CALL (Chang & Smith, 1991; Warschauer, 1997; Beauvois, 1998). Similarly, the development and enhancement of critical thinking skills in the field of technology education may be furthered by cooperative learning. Tan (1999) states some advantages of student cooperation during CALL lessons. The stereotype of the computer class can isolate students and lock them in a room all day staring at a computer screen, whereas cooperative learning brings a social element to CALL. Because the computer offers a variety of means for obtaining large amounts of information, students are less dependent on teachers and work together more actively to find and share knowledge. Cooperative learning also helps students learn with computers, and, at the same time, computers furnish students with new ways to cooperate with others, such as e-mail, networked computers, and sharing of diskettes. In these ways, all the same benefits of cooperative learning presented above in the normal classroom apply equally in CALL lessons.

Tan (1999) presents four ways of student-student cooperation learning during CALL. First, prior to working

with computers, students can discuss concepts in the lesson and plan what they will do. Second, while using computers, students can discuss what they are working on either orally or via computer, and can take different roles if they are at the same computer. Also, while one or more group members are at a computer, others can be engaged in aspects of their group's work that does not involve it. Third, during a pause in computer use, students can analyze what they have learned and done sharing information with others and planning their next steps. Fourth, after using computers, students can again analyze and share what they have learned and done, as well as what they need to do next.

Computer Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) Theories

CSCL has grown out of wider research into computer-supported collaborative work and cooperative learning. CSCL is used in educational settings with the purpose of scaffolding or supporting students in learning together effectively. This method supports communicating ideas and information, accessing information and documents, and providing feedback on problem-solving activities in group striving for a common goal. This theory does not stand alone. It is based on other theories that support cooperative learning, building on prior knowledge, and

taking ownership of one's learning environment. Here is a list of these theories along with a short summary (Lin, 1999). These theories are also based on the same underlying assumption, that individuals are active agents who are purposefully seeking and constructing knowledge within a meaningful context.

First of all, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of learning emphasizes that human intelligence originates in our society or culture, and individual cognitive gain occurs first through interpersonal than intrapersonal means (Lin, 1999). His theory is the idea that the potential for cognitive development is limited to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). He defined the ZPD as a region of activities that individuals can navigate with the help of more capable peers, adults, or artifacts. In Vygotsky's view, peer interaction, scaffolding, and modeling are important ways to facilitate individual cognitive growth and knowledge acquisition. Vygotsky suggests two phases of problem solving. In the initial phase, students encourage, support, and guide each other. In the second phase, students come to their own conclusions based on experimental evidence, and resolve their conflicts by articulating their argumentation. Through these phases,

students can gain new strategies through peer collaboration by means of interpersonal discourse.

Constructivist theory is another theory that supports CSCL. The general principle of constructivism theory is that what a person knows is not passively received, but actively assembled by the learner (Jonassen, 1991). In other words, constructivism is a theory that states that learning takes place best when students actively construct their knowledge, rather than simply absorbing ideas spoken to them by teachers. The role of learning is to help the individual operate within his or her personal world. This theory encourages cooperative learning and allows students to bring their own frameworks and perspectives to the activity. Students can see a problem from different perspectives, are able to negotiate and generate meanings by integrating new information into their schema, and finally arrive at best solution through shared understanding. A crucial element of active participation is dialog in shared experiences, through which situated collaborative activities are possible. Such processes as modeling, discourse and decision making are necessary to support the negotiation and creation of meaning and understanding.

Anchored instruction, which is a major paradigm for technology-based learning that has been developed by Bransford (1990), is also a student-centered approach to learning, which centers on problem solving in a less teacher-dependent environment. The initial focus of the work was on the development of interactive videodisc tools that encouraged students and teachers to pose and solve complex and realistic problems. The video materials serve as anchors for all subsequent learning and instruction. The goal is to create interesting, realistic contexts that encourage the active construction of knowledge by learners (CTGV, 1993). The concept of anchored instruction was stimulated by the "inert knowledge problem" which states that the knowledge can be recallable only when individual is questioned explicitly in the context in which it was learned (CTGV, 1993). The issue of learning transfer and collaborative learning are primary concerns in anchored instruction (CTGV, 1990).

As one of theories that emphasize the interaction among individual, environment, and cultural artifacts, distributed cognition theory claims that development and growth of cognition of individuals should not be isolated events, rather the changes should be a reciprocal process

(Salomon, Perkins, & Globerson; 1992). Three principles underlie the theory of distributed cognition: First, the fact that technology plays an increasingly important role in the management of intellectual tasks to ease the individual's cognitive load; second, the importance of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, which describes how the character of social interactions and externally mediated action makes explicit certain processes that come to be internalized in the private thought of the individual; third, a dissatisfaction with cognition is considered to be only in the mind, with a shift of attention to cognition that is situationally dependent and distributed in nature.

Cognitive apprenticeship theory permits students to learn through their interactions with experts to understand the origin and development of their experiences. It is based on the notion that all significant human activity is highly situated in real-world contexts and that complex cognitive skills are therefore ultimately learned in high-context, inherently motivating situations in which the skills themselves are organically bound up with the activity (Atkinson, 1994). Collins, Hawkins, and Carvers (1991) describe the three major instructional methods of cognitive apprenticeship theory: modeling, coaching, and

fading. Modeling is the early and repetitive demonstration of complex, holistic, and goal-centered activities in actual contexts of use rather than decontextualized and broken down for ease of teaching and learning. Coaching involves the active mentoring by teachers, more experienced peers, or small groups of students in their own repetitive attempts to perform these activities in real contexts.

Fading, the final step, concerns the gradual discontinuation of expert guidance as the student-apprentice internalizes the skills and norms of knowledgeable performance. The core characteristics of the cognitive apprenticeship model are as follows: heuristic content, situated learning, modeling, coaching, articulation, reflection, exploration, and order in increasing complexity.

Situated cognition, a new paradigm of learning, emphasizes apprenticeship, coaching, collaboration, multiple practice, articulation of learning skills, stories, and technology (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989).

Constructivists view cognition as situation-bound and distributed rather than decontextualized tools and product of minds (Lave, 1988). In other words, thinking is both physically and socially situated so that problem tasks can

be significantly shaped and changed by the tools available and the social interactions that take place during problem solving. Lave and Wenger (1991) state that education can apply the two basic principles of situated cognition into classroom practice: to present in an authentic context and to encourage social interaction and collaboration. Rich contexts can reflect students' interpretation of the real world and improve their knowledge being transferred in different situations.

Lastly, self-regulated learning theory has played a part in behavioral theory, cognitive theory, social cognitive theory, and constructivism theory (Davidson, 1995). In behavioral theory, regulation is accomplished through external reinforcement. In cognitive psychology, this is equivalent to metacognition, knowing about and regulating cognition. Social cognition theory views self-regulation as combining self-observation, self-judgement, and self-reaction. Self-regulation plays a crucial role in all phases of learning. Schoenfeld (1987) states that self-regulation has the potential to increase the meaningfulness of students' classroom learning, and showed that many problem-solving errors are due to metacognitive failure rather than lack of basic knowledge. He suggests

that all metacognitive strategies be illustrated in action and should be developed by students, not imposed by teachers. The major responsibility of teachers is to equip students with self-regulation strategies that will provide them with necessary techniques for becoming independent thinkers and lifelong learners.

In conclusion, computer-supported collaborative learning theories support the idea that students in groups produce much better outcomes than those working individually, indicating that students gain deeper understanding and collaboratively construct knowledge while working in CSCL environments. The role of the teacher also should be shifted from a primary source of knowledge to that of an expert learner who can facilitate students' learning and information seeking.

Using Cooperative Learning Techniques with the Internet

There is no doubt that students' participation and interaction can be augmented by use of technology such as the WWW. CALL theory in general underscores a view of learning as a cooperative act that happens in a social context, with learners and teachers working together (Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999). Teaching with the WWW involves employing ideas for using WWW resources as a

language teaching tool (Rosen, 1999). The WWW offers various teaching materials for cooperative learning, as follows.

City net. City guides are readily available through the WWW. These assist the traveler to preview or plan a city visit. Traveling the world via the Internet is a quick and informative way for getting students in touch with the world outside of their hometown. It may provide them with a broader perspective of the world and interest them in traveling to know how others live. Students can select a list of countries to view by clicking on the hypertext or type in the name of the place they would like to visit. Through these adventures, students are able to familiarize themselves with a variety of aspects of the countries chosen. City net is a great motivator which encourages cooperative efforts.

Metro link. The Metro Link website allows students to explore the major cities of the world via metro rails and learn where to go and how to get there from their favorite part of the city. It also familiarizes students with metro travel throughout the world. They may become acquainted with many of the important locations within various cities they travel and their accessibility via

metro. They can use the Metro Link combined with City Net for their activities that incorporate language and culture. Although it only takes a few minutes to find metro routing information, this can lead to a project taking up to a month depending on the degree of incorporation of the imaginary trip into the curriculum.

World news tonight. The World News Tonight website presents a variety of events and articles that permit students to become more familiar with present-day life abroad. Students may be encouraged to build their public speaking skills in the target language through an oral report based on this site, which helps them to become accustomed to current events. There is no more efficient method to access world news and various cultures than this site. Students can extend their cultural awareness by their exposure to different viewpoints from many countries. In addition, because news is frequently biased, students can discuss the difference between their countries' bias and that of the target culture. The best part of this website is that students use current events, not those of weeks ago.

Many real world sites support cooperative learning. The following two sites represent some of the material

available.

Compare net. Information about products are compared on Compare Net. Clicking on the category for the product students want to buy allows them to access product information and search for several brands of product to compare. Through this site, students can cooperate, compare the models of the product they have chosen, and analyze their shopping lists. Students are rewarded for the choices they bring to the group as well as their presentations. They can also be exposed to informal and active English through new shopping experiences.

Movie database. Movies provide a point of common interest for students of various nationalities. There is a tremendous amount of information on movies on the Movie Database site including pictures, information about particular actors or actresses, and numerous reviews from a variety of sources. In addition, songs from movies can be listened to with Real Audio, and full scripts of movie can be downloaded. The genre of movie reviews can be analyzed and compared in several reviews of the movie which can be used by the students to write their own review. Movie reviews provide a focal point for discussion and comparison in group activity. Through this site, students improve

their reading skills, listening skills, vocabulary, critical thinking, and confidence to express their own opinions.

Summarizing the fundamental theories and concepts of cooperative learning, this learning method motivates students and promotes positive interaction among members of groups. It also helps students develop social and group skills necessary for success outside the classroom as well as their own knowledge. Cooperative learning methods hold great promise for improving the classroom environment, so that students can succeed academically and develop their interpersonal relationships. In view of the fact that the opportunity for mutual communication exchange among peers is essential for language acquisition, cooperative learning appears to be a potentially meaningful social environment for promoting language use and comprehension, more so than the traditional classroom.

Critical Thinking

Teaching students to think critically is an often-expressed aim of education at all levels. However, students may not know what critical thinking is, or how to do it. To be able to think critically about what they are learning, students must know what questions to ask about

the topic, how to find and develop appropriate answers to the questions, and how to present their findings in logical ways.

Definitions of Critical Thinking

There are many definitions of critical thinking. John Dewey was an early advocate and pioneer in the study of thinking. While he did not define critical thinking specifically, he discussed reflective thinking (Dewey, 1933). He stated that reflective thinking involves the following: a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty in which thinking originates; and an act of searching, hunting, inquiring to find material that will resolve the doubt and settle the perplexity (Dewey, 1933, p. 9). Taba (1959) sees critical thinking as generalizing, concluding, comparing, and contrasting.

Ennis (1985) has broadened the definition of critical thinking to be reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or what to do. He divides critical thinking into skills and attitudes. The skills are the cognitive aspect, while the attitudes are the affective aspect. The four general sets of skills are clarity-related skills, inference-related skills, skills related to establishing a sound basis for inference, and

skills involved in going about decision making, often called problem solving. When these four categories are combined with the attitudes such as open-mindedness and the seeking of reasons, the process of deciding what to believe or what to do is accomplished.

According to Kurfiss (1988), critical thinking is a rational response to questions whose purpose is to explore a situation, phenomenon, question, or problem to arrive at a conclusion about it that integrates all information available and that can therefore be convincingly justified. Paul, Binker, and Charbonneau (1987) see critical thinking as involving dialogical thought and dialogical reasoning. These include argument for and against, moving back and forth between opposing points of view, and handling the situation in different ways. McPeck (1981) sees foundational knowledge is the core ingredient to critical thinking and states that critical thinking differs according to subject matter. While McPeck agrees that critical thinking can be taught and learned, he concludes that it is not a generalized skill. For Smith (1990), it includes analyzing, drawing inferences, and making judgements on the basis of some standards.

The top three categories of Bloom's Taxonomy have

often been equated with critical thinking: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom, 1956). Analysis is the breakdown of a communication into its constituent elements such that the relative hierarchy of ideas is made clear. Synthesis is the putting together of elements so as to form a whole. Evaluation refers to judgement about the value of material and methods for given purposes. Many definitions tend to have common or overlapping characteristics with Bloom's taxonomy. Wade (1995) defines critical thinking as the ability to assess claims and make objective judgements on the basis of well supported reasons (pp. 24-25). Angelo (1995) states that most formal definitions characterize critical thinking as the intentional application of rational, higher order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, problem recognition, solving, inference, and evaluation (p. 6).

In short, critical thinking is a process in which students analyze, synthesize, and evaluate the information, supporting their opinions with evidence, data, and logical reasoning in order to look at a problem from multiple angles. Through these steps of critical thinking, students generate questions, speculate to explain phenomena, evaluate them on the basis of logic and reasoning, and

finally produce creative and diverse ways to solve other new problems.

Educational Value of Critical Thinking

Critical thinking, knowledge, and skill are all interdependent (Wade, 1995). To teach knowledge to students is not merely to get them to believe it. It is, at some point, to let learners judge independently using special skills. In this complex society full of new information, teachers should help their students deal with this complexity by suggesting analytical frameworks and perspectives for sorting things out and thinking critically about them (Meyers, 1986). Meyers insists that teachers should know explicitly what they mean by critical thinking in the context of their disciplines and must provide opportunities for students to practice critical thinking skills and attitudes. In higher education, preparation in critical thinking is essential for true autonomy (Glen, 1995). Glen asserts that self-motivated and creativity-based critical thinking should be developed as a part of a liberal education. Kurfiss (1988) provides the following review of teaching practices that support critical thinking in every discipline: the instructor and peers are resources in developing critical thinking skills; problems, questions,

or issues are the point of entry into the subject and a source of motivation for sustained inquiry; a successful course balance challenges to think critically with support tailored to students' developmental needs; courses are assignment centered rather than text and lecture centered. Goals, methods, and evaluation emphasize using content rather than simply acquiring it; students are required to formulate and justify their ideas in writing or other appropriate mode; students collaborate to learn and to stretch their thinking in a form of pair or small group work; the developmental needs of students are acknowledged and used as information in the design of the course. Teachers in these courses make standards explicit and then help students learn how to achieve them (pp. 88-89).

A critical need for reform at the core of current thinking about schools and education is becoming increasingly apparent. In order to acquire critical knowledge as the backbone of their intellectual maturity (Glen, 1995), students should learn how to apply critical thinking to every course and curriculum.

Approaches to Teaching Critical Thinking Skills

Ennis (1989) attempts to clarify the subject-specific debate by offering three versions of subject specificity:

infusion, immersion, and mixed approach. Infusion of critical thinking instruction in subject-matter instruction involves the situation in which critical thinking skills and attitudes are made explicit, and students are encouraged to think critically in the subject. Immersion is also intense subject-matter instruction; however, critical thinking principle is not made explicit. Ennis believes that generalizable thinking skills do not exist because a person must have a good working knowledge of the particular subject in order to be an effective critical thinker. Critical thinking must vary from subject to subject. The mixed approach consists of a combination of infusion and immersion approach. According to this approach, there is a separate course designed to teach general principles of critical thinking; however, students may also be involved in subject-specific critical thinking instruction.

Providing an overview of the arguments for subject-specific critical thinking and general skills, Perkins and Salomon (1989) recommend a combination of these approaches.

Using Computers in Teaching Critical Reading

As the use of computer technology in every area has expanded, applying computers to teaching and learning has

also become a major concern. This implies many exciting educational possibilities, offering new opportunities for the facilitation of critical learning. In fact, many college students have difficulty selecting the author's major points; and they are also often unable to "synthesize and restructure" ideas from complex text. Accompanying this lack of ability is a lack of interest in reading critically (Thistlethwaite, 1990). The use of computer technology is emphasized as one of recommendatory ways for critical reading. Klinger and Connet (1992) suggest three underlying characteristics of computer applications that promote critical thinking while reading.

The first characteristic is a high level of interactivity; that means that there is two-way communication between the user and the computer so that the learner is involved in the instructional process. Interactivity consists of students generating questions, concept maps, and summaries for which the software provides the prompts. A high level of interactivity encourages students to become more actively involved with what they are reading.

A second characteristic is that computer applications should encourage the use of strategies that are used by

effective readers. For example, the use of an electronic diary or journal may be used to help students become more aware of the strategies they employ. The strategy of accessing one's prior knowledge about a topic is fostered through prompts in the software that ask students to write they already know about the topic of a reading. Such prompts ask them to analyze the sources of their prior knowledge. Programs developed using hypertext and hypermedia can be used to support the processes of notetaking, indexing, and linking one idea to other ideas.

A third characteristic is that the computer applications approximate a real context. The reading is available in print, and interaction among persons encourages them to construct negotiated meaning through collaboration with others. Besides, computer technology supports the following processes that promote critical reading: comprehension; idea generation through brainstorming; analysis by reacting to others' comments; reflection; and composition and communication through e-mail.

In a class entitled "Critical Reading in the Content Areas," students are introduced to a networked electronic environment which uses process tools of technology that

support the processes listed above (Goodrum & Knuth, 1991). To support students in the process of constructing the meaning of the content, the authors made use of typical hypertext applications for notetaking, bookmarking, copying and pasting, searching, indexing, and linking. They also included a tool that facilitated the generating of ideas for discussions on the topic being considered. To facilitate the analysis of ideas, an analyzer tool was developed which assisted the classification of structure or logical development of ideas. A paper-writing tool was included to help students construct reports and presentations, and an electronic journal was used to develop learners' awareness of their cognitive processes as they reflected on class tasks, individual and group strategies. The final tool used was e-mail, which students used to coordinate group activities and communicate with the instructor as well as other students.

Using Computers in Teaching Critical Writing

Writing is not a static technique but a rapidly changing one that involves critical thinking (Mathes & Stevenson, 1991). Critical writing is a process of thinking, writing, revising, thinking and revising, until the idea is fully developed, not solely that of correcting

mechanical errors. (Franke, 1989). Critical writing usually covers certain basic criteria, which are essential ingredients in critical thinking instruction (Wade, 1995)). They are as follows: asking questions and being willing to wonder; analyzing assumptions and biases; avoiding emotional reasoning; avoiding oversimplification; considering alternative interpretations; and tolerating uncertainty. In other words, writing is a metacognitive act, "thinking about thinking" (Kuhar, 1998, p. 80), requiring critical thinking aimed at identifying and solving the writing problem (Kanaoka, 1999).

The more highly developed a technological society becomes, the more sophisticated the critical knowledge and intellectual maturity are needed to assess and cope with various problems arising from the complex nature of society. The ability to think clearly about complex issues and solve a wide range of problems is the cognitive goal of education at all levels (Pellegrino, 1995). Considering the fact that writing is a problem-solving activity and the final goal of writing is to create good questioners and thinkers, a collaborative computer writing class can be a powerful way in which the writing audience shifts from teacher to peers. Students may still rely on the instructor for

writing expertise, but there is an inevitable increase in the stature of peer criticism as inclusion of other students' opinions are both sought out and respected (Boiarsky, 1990).

The use of case study. Case study refers to the use of a case that presents a problem for analysis. A case is "a story about a situation that is carefully designed to include only facts arranged in a chronological sequence" (McDade, 1995). He asserts that the function of a case study is to create a realistic laboratory in the classroom to apply research skills, decision-making processes, and critical thinking abilities. In writing class, the use of a case study can nurture first-person analysis as students identify the sources and nature of conflicts and the dynamics of behavior, prepare solutions, and anticipate and assess possible results through decisions and actions. Students design and apply theoretical constructs in a recursive and empirical manner, going back and forth between theory and practice. The more realistic the setting is, the more sophisticated and strategic the students' self-motivation, self-insight, and critical knowledge will become.

The benefits of case studies are as follows:

providing a detailed description and analyzing process of information; promoting integrated learning by incorporating theory into practice; developing critical thinking by listening to diversified thinking processes of others; learning cooperatively; and considering different perspectives as various team members present ideas, analyses, and solutions (Kanaoka, 1999).

Internet writing example. Through the Internet, students can search for controversial topics, such as environmental pollution or current top news. As they begin, they may present a sheet of "purpose analyzer" with some critical questions in writing to clarify each student's thoughts, such as the following: "Why are you writing? Can you specify your writing goal? What do you want to accomplish with your writing among information, persuasion, argument, or sharing experience? What action do you want your readers to take after their reading? Taking up a new action, reflecting on experience, or what else? What challenge do you hope to bring about?" (Kanaoka, 1999). To achieve the writing goal, the overall problem-solving writing process is presented in step-wise progression: (1) make a digest of the Internet news; (2) check when some new words occur; (3) clarify the writing goal with the purpose

analyzer; and (4) design a short report with statements of their own purposes.

Critical thinking ability forms an important component at all levels of education. Many students have difficulty selecting the author's major points and seeing how they have been developed into a coherent whole; but they also often are unable to synthesize and restructure ideas. Students' lack of ability in critical thinking is related to the fact that this has not been widely taught at schools.

With a well-devised curriculum, students can develop the skill of thinking critically. Above all, their capacity for critical thinking can be more developed in the computer-assisted classroom. Many programs using computers have been developed to facilitate and extend problem-solving strategies. The capacity of new technology needs to be more fully utilized to benefit critical thinking education under the growing pressure of an increasingly complex society.

Culture Teaching in Language Education

Teaching culture as part of language learning has been a main issue during the last three decades. As communicative nature of language has been increasingly

emphasized, the attainment of communicative competence requires a certain degree of cultural understanding; many educators recognize the inevitability of teaching and learning culture in foreign language education (Valdes, 1990). Current research shows the intrinsic role that culture teaching plays in second and foreign language development (Savignon, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980). In this light, students must become aware that human beings are cultural beings. They must be taught the notion of the relativity of cultural values and accept the fact that some cultural discomfort will result when the values of the target language culture conflict with their native language culture. Therefore cultural issues and cross-cultural comparisons are a necessary component of language pedagogy (Stern, 1983).

However, the increased understanding of the importance of culture as part of language curricular has not resulted in increased practical implementation of cultural components in language instruction. As a result, many language learners demonstrate very limited knowledge about the culture whose language they study (Sadow, 1987).

Background of Culture Teaching in Language Education

The primary reason for second or foreign language

study in the earlier part of the twentieth century was to access to the great literary masterpieces of civilization (Allen, 1985). It was through reading that students learned of the civilization associated with the target language (Flewelling, 1993). In the grammar translation method, the cultural goal of language study was to promote an aesthetic appreciation of the literature of a foreign language, not on an anthropological sense of culture, which consists of expressions of everyday life. The development of the social sciences resulted in an increased focus on the disciplines of anthropology and sociology, and a more widespread understanding of culture. In the sixties, the importance of culture was emphasized not for the study of literature but for language learning (Brooks, 1987). An anthropological and sociological view of language in connection with culture and society manifested itself in language teaching theory (Stern, 1983). Advocates of the audio-lingual method disavowed this attitude toward language and culture.

Since the seventies, an emphasis on sociolinguistics has resulted in greater emphasis on the context and situation where the second language or foreign language would be used. The communicative approach eventually

replaced the audiolingual method and the integration of language and culture took place through a more communicative approach than through a more grammatically based approach (Canale & Swain, 1980). Paulston (1974) emphasized the importance of offering cultural context crucial to the acquisition of communicative competence. Many educators insisted that language and culture could not be separated (Rivers, 1981; Fox & Allen, 1983) and language learners must have knowledge of the cultural background and behavioral styles of the members of the target language culture. These educators were concerned with communicative competence, along with spoken rather than merely written language. Teacher-oriented texts included culture teaching in language class for the goal of communication within the cultural context of the target language.

In short, as the understanding of language and communication has evolved, the importance of culture in language education has increased. The importance of cultural understanding in improving communicative competence demands the development of a new philosophy of, and focused on, teaching culture in language education.

Definitions of Culture

The term "culture" is used in many ways. On a

general level, (culture has been referred to as the ways of a people (Lado, 1957) or the sum total of a way of life of a people) (Hall, 1959). Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) defined it as (the explicit and implicit patterns of behaviors, symbols, and ideas that constitute the distinctive achievements of human groups). According to Tylor (in Pearson, 1974), (culture is the complex whole that includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities acquired by humans as members of society). Robinson (1988) stated that (culture is a dynamic system of symbols and meanings that involves an ongoing, dialectic process where past experience influences meaning, which in turn affects future experience, which in turn affects subsequent meaning, and so on) (p. 11).

Adaskou, Britttten, and Fahsi (1990) define culture on a more specific level by outlining four meanings of (culture: cinema, literature, music, and media. They are the necessary language codes for successful communication) (pp. 3-4). Steele (1989) also emphasizes the role of culture in terms of communication. He defines (culture as both a means by which a community communicates and a commonly agreed-upon set of meanings in interactions that members use with one another.)

The different definitions imply various understandings of what culture means in language education. Because culture is the filter through which people see the world, teachers who have a deeper view of culture are able to use their understanding to move beyond the superficial and to recognize that people live in characteristic ways (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 1995). Most of all, the fact that the nature of culture is constantly changing should be recognized so that language teachers can provide the ability to emphasize various dimensions of culture at different points.

Relations of Culture and Language Teaching

McLeod (1976) asserts that teaching a language is teaching culture implicitly (p. 212). This implies that language is independent of cultural background. Buttjes (1990) summarizes several reasons why language and culture are inseparably connected: language acquisition does not follow a universal sequence, but differs across cultures; the process of becoming a competent member of society is realized through exchange of languages in particular social situations; every society orchestrates the ways in which children participate in particular situations, and this, in turn, affects the form, the function, and the content of

children's utterances; caregivers' primary concern is not with grammatical input, but with the transmission of sociocultural knowledge; the native learner, in addition to language, also acquires the paralinguistic patterns and the kinetics of his or her culture (p. 55).

Buttjes (1990) also adds two observations about how language teaching equates to culture teaching. First, language codes cannot be taught in isolation because processes of sociocultural transmission are bound to be at work on many levels, such as the contents of language exercises, the cultural discourse of textbooks, and the teacher's attitudes towards the target culture. Second, in their role of "secondary care givers," language teachers need to go beyond monitoring linguistic production in the classroom and become aware of the complex and numerous processes of intercultural mediation that any foreign language learner undergoes (pp. 55-56).

In light of these findings, it could be inferred that language teaching is correlated with culture and it is taught in both explicit and implicit ways. Learning the language means learning cultural knowledge through communication.

The Role of Teachers in Culture Teaching

The main goal of culture teaching is to prepare students for global citizenship through crosscultural or inter cultural understanding and communication. Cultural knowledge is one of the basic goals of language education and attention to cultural issues is necessary for a full understanding of second or foreign language classroom processes (Poole, 1992). However, above all, the teacher should encourage learners to maintain their own cultural identity while introducing them to some aspects of the target culture. To achieve this goal, teachers should be neutral when they transmit a certain social value and should present the features of their own culture as well as different cultures (Valdes, 1990), supporting language with authentic materials. In presenting the target culture or comparing the target culture with the native culture, teachers must avoid value judgements (Lado, 1964). Otherwise there is a danger that students can call "bad" what is merely "different" and call "good" what is merely pleasing to them.

Second, cultural awareness is necessary if students are to develop an understanding of the dynamic nature of the target culture, as well as their own culture. They

need chances to be exposed to the foreign culture through a variety of materials or activities (Osuna, 1998). Students may suffer cultural shock, which is defined by Ellis (1985, p. 252) as the "disorientation stress, fear, etc. as a result of differences between his or her own culture and that of the target language community." The EFL teacher must look out for ways of promoting positive feelings toward the second or foreign language culture.

Finally, teachers should be systematic about teaching culture, using many kinds of techniques. Teachers must select material and design activities which will merge language and culture. They must monitor their own use of language so closely that they will not be seen as subconsciously promulgating or encoding a cultural mindset in their students (Zaid, 1999). In addition, teachers should encourage students to perceive the necessity of culture learning in various language programs and contexts as a means of improving language acquisition, communication, and mutual understanding with global peers throughout the world.

Methodologies of Intercultural Communication Training

In most EFL and ESL programs, emphasis is given to the culture of the target language group, especially to

those features that are important for effective communication. Baxter (1983) points out how much of the intercultural communication training literature fails to see language in specific terms, with the result that the intercultural field has little influenced English language teaching and research. In the midst of rapid cultural change and increasing intercultural connectedness, English plays the crucial language of international business, conferences, education and research, and communication network. This means that the content of teaching and learning materials for English as an international language should aim to integrate culture learning, intercultural communication learning, and language learning within the context of the more general language learning program. Cultural content should be varied and not tied to any particular English-speaking country nor bound to any particular cultural bias. Learners should be exposed to as wide a range of experiences as the learning context will allow.

In this light, introduction of a number of particular teaching and learning procedures of culture should be required for developing intercultural communication skills. Wajnryb (1988) divides the dominant methodologies used in

intercultural communication training into the academic, observational, comparative, cognitive, interactive, experiential, conflict analysis-based, and media-based approach.

Academic approach. The academic approach uses lectures or readings on relevant topics as the vehicle for imparting cultural knowledge. (The purpose of this approach is to provide the general information about the target culture to the learners.)

Observational approach. The observational approach involves the learners' observing aspects of the target culture or having access to native speakers who inform the learners of certain aspects of the target culture through interviews or question and answer sessions.

Comparative approach. The comparative approach involves the learners' seeking out and identifying cultural differences by taking their native culture as the starting point in a reflective and non-judgmental way. Students can increase critical thinking skills by comparing two cultures.

Cognitive approach. The cognitive approach is designed to raise awareness of cultural factors so as to reduce culture stress. A typical activity of this approach is the "culture assimilator." In this approach learners

read about a particular conflict-based situation and then make a choice from a number of possible different solutions to the problem. The learners' choices are then matched with choices made by native speaker informants and differences are then discussed.

Interactive approach. The interactive approach involves interaction with other learners, native speakers, or specially constructed materials with the aim of affecting learners' sensitivities to cultural issues. In this approach learner awareness is raised through interaction with texts which explain typical incidents or events in a particular culture.

Experiential approach. The experiential approach draws on the learners' own experiences of intercultural failed encounters. Learners act out another class member's failed experience in order to analyze and identify the source of the failure. A new enactment is then carried out, effecting a successful resolution of the problem.

Conflict analysis-based approach. The conflict analysis-based approach involves placing the learners in a context where they have expectations of a certain sort of behavior but find themselves faced with something completely different. In the ensuing class discussion, the

nature of the conflict in the interaction is drawn out and examined.

Media-based approach. The media-based approach uses film and video to provide information and cultural content. A good illustration of the target culture can be found in the use of film and video. The teacher's task is to manipulate students' enthusiasm in a way that develops a positive attitude towards culture learning.

Using the Internet to Integrate Culture and Language

New cultures, values, and attitudes are exposed through the Internet as well as television and cinema. New forms of communication have brought the vision of a global village, not only of business and finance, but also of culture. The Internet shifts communication use to a potentially global form. With the rise of the Internet, intercultural communications become a mouse click away (Dahl, 1998). The Internet indeed gives the chance to experience intercultural communications at low cost, which facilitates the use of it in a wider audience. While the media is essentially a one-way communication process, where the feedback is only very marginally provided by means of viewer ratings, the Internet offers the possibility of a far more interactive experience, with

feedback directly provided, offering an unlimited resource for information of any kind.

By using the Internet's new communication technology, students can have almost instantaneous access to a wide range of foreign experiences and culture in their target language that would not otherwise be possible. The computer serves as a gateway to the virtual foreign world where real people are using real language in real context (Sonnenwald, Livonen, Alpi, & Kokkinen, 1998). The Internet places English learners in a cross-cultural situation beyond time and space (Muehleisen, 1997), and they share experiences and gain insight from open discussions about similarities and differences among the people of the world.

One major advantage of the Internet for culture teaching is the visual element (Rakes, 1996). Engagement with visuals brings about positive attitudes toward cultural learning (Poohkay & Schwartz, 1995). According to Monroe (1993), education has overlooked the relevance of visual stimuli in favor of verbal and analytical skills. He insists that photography is an entry device into culture. Through photography as a good memory-assisting device, students come across colorful and authentic manifestations

of foreign people, places, costumes, and relationships.

In view of the potential role of the Internet as a means to gain a deeper sense of culture, it may play an important role in the integration of culture in the foreign language curriculum.

The goal of culture teaching in language education is to prepare learners for effective communication and personal interaction with people from other cultures. To reduce misunderstanding or cultural shock, teachers should provide a comfortable and collaborative classroom environment and expose a variety of cultures to students. Free verbal exchange of views among students during computer-assisted simulation of international contexts will help them restructure their opinions for effective negotiation.

Cultural topics used to enhance students' critical thinking can persuade students to identify with the viewpoints of people in other cultures. Considering the crucial role of good teaching materials for effective culture teaching, the Internet, one of main components of CALL, is recommended as a means to bring about cross-cultural cooperative learning. Most of all, for the promotion of culture teaching, teachers should

systematically plan what to teach and how to teach. They should present a variety of learning activities from reading and discussion in the classroom to actual international travel. In this way, teachers can provide new ways for student to be aware of their own culture and increase critical thinking skills for crosscultural understanding that is essential to successful EFL learning.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A Description of the Model

The literature reviewed in Chapter Two was organized with five key concepts: (1) CALL; (2) the Internet; (3) cooperative learning; (4) critical learning; and (5) culture teaching. The five key concepts are interdependently combined in a model that provides the theoretical framework for this curriculum project (see Figure 1). This model is divided into three domains: content objectives, process objectives, and technology objectives.

Content Objectives

This project is based on web site materials using the Internet to solve one of problems that ESL students have, lack of culture teaching. The Internet may play a crucial role in providing a variety of resources for satisfying the content objectives to improve crosscultural understanding instead of the main text. To prepare students for global citizenship, culture awareness of both the target language and their own language is essential in EFL learning. Various cultural topics may encourage students to be involved in more motivating learning experiences and to express themselves openly in communicative and cooperative

classroom environments.

Figure 1: A Model of Computer-Based Culture Teaching

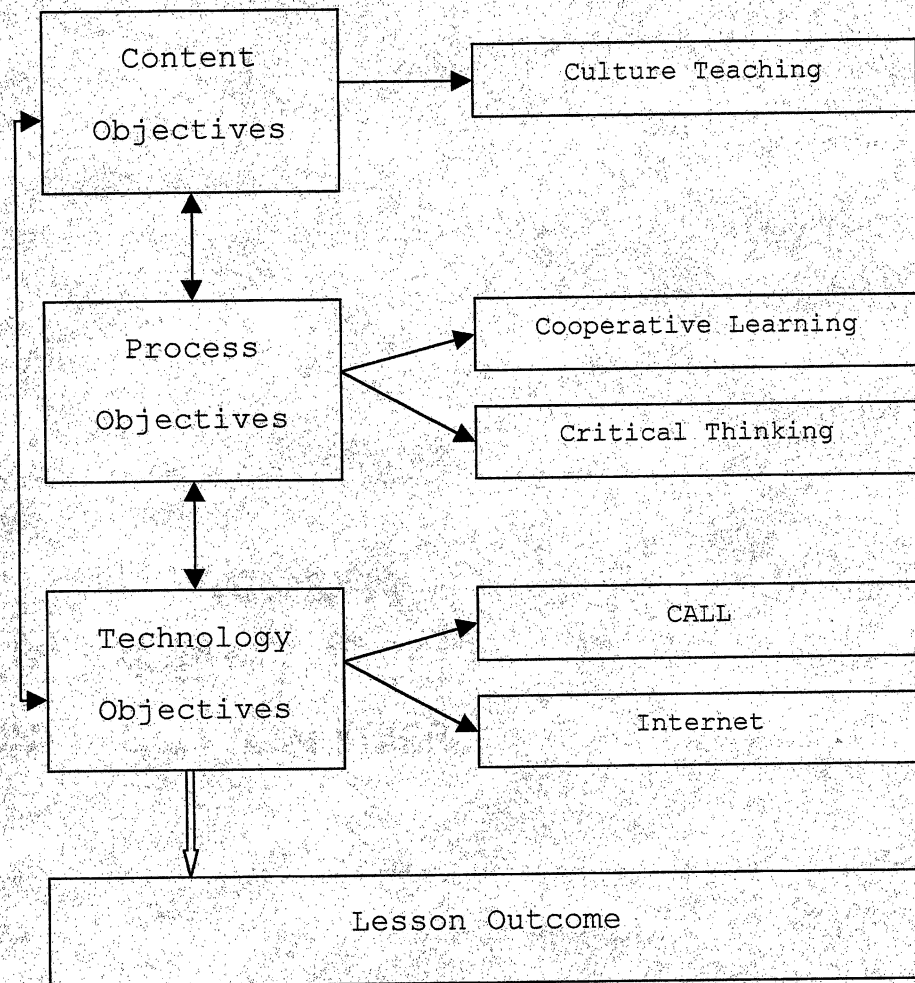


Table 5: Components of the Teaching Model

Domains	Key concepts	Components
Content objectives	Culture teaching (60s in America)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Civil rights movement 2. Martin Luther King Jr. Day 3. Hippie culture
Process objectives	Cooperative learning	Small group activity
	Critical thinking	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Interpretation 2. Classification 3. Debate 4. Analysis 5. Synthesis 6. Evaluation 7. Application
Technology objectives	CALL	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Word processing 2. Graphics 3. Power Point
	Internet	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. E-mail 2. Search engines

Process Objectives

In order to facilitate the acquisition of cultural knowledge, two types of process objectives are involved in this project. One is cooperative learning and the other is critical thinking. The role of teachers in culture teaching is to be neutral by encouraging learners to maintain their own cultural identity while introducing them to some aspects of the target culture. In addition to support with authentic materials about different cultures, teachers should create an environment where students can

develop and share their own ideas with other students.

For the purpose of achieving this goal, the concept of cooperative learning plays an important role as one type of process objective. In this model, the term "cooperative learning" refers to an instruction method in which students at various performance levels work together in small groups toward a common goal. The students are responsible for one another's learning as well as their own. The success of one student helps other students to be successful. The shared learning gives students an opportunity to engage in discussion, take responsibility for their own learning, and thus become critical thinkers.

To improve students' critical thinking, many skills are used during the whole unit, such as the following:

- interpretation: understanding the meaning of information;
- classification: sorting the identified items into the categories;
- analysis: dividing information into component parts;
- synthesis: combining parts into whole units;
- evaluation: making judgements about value usefulness;
- application: using information in a new situation.

Technology Objectives

The advances in technology have put an increased emphasis on teamwork within the workforce. Workers need to

be able to think creatively, solve problems, and make decisions as a team. Considering the fact that technology education has been incorporated gradually into schools, the effectiveness of technology education to develop critical thinking should not be disregarded in the education field. Since the Internet has emerged, exchanging information across the world has enabled students to share their own culture with others.

The main teaching tool for the above model is the computer. Through computer-based learning during the whole unit, students can use word processing and graphics. Using Power Point is another activity that the teacher can assign to them to improve their critical reading and writing skills. Presenting what they read into a slide show will also help their public speaking ability. To facilitate students' familiarity with the web, the teacher can encourage students to use search engines and e-mail. To motivate students in web use, the teacher can also provide Internet links that are related to the main topic or a Treasure Hunt game.

CHAPTER FOUR: CURRICULUM DESIGN

The Rationale for the Design

The purpose of this project is crosscultural understanding via the Internet to improve students' critical thinking skills. One curriculum unit is included in this project. The unit integrates five key ideas: CALL, the Internet, cooperative learning, critical thinking, and culture teaching. The Internet, one component of CALL, is incorporated into the curriculum to provide students with a variety of update resources for learning EFL and increase the students' motivation in learning English. The role of teachers is as facilitators with authentic resources. Most of all, students can have contact with various Western cultures via the Internet, which may help them more fully understand their own culture. Students who have opportunities to cooperate with each other in group activities can use critical thinking skills to compare or contrast the target culture and their own culture.

The unit, "Let's Learn About the 60s in America", is made up of three lessons. Lesson One is "Racial Discrimination"; Lesson Two, "Martin Luther King Jr. Day"; and Lesson Three, "Hippie Culture." All lessons have their own distinct objectives. The objectives of each lesson are

divided into three parts: content objectives, process objectives, and technology objectives (see Table 6). Each objective is accomplished by means of a set of activities, the task chain. The materials used in the unit are divided into four types: focus sheet, work sheet, self-assessment sheet, and assessment sheet. The primary goal of the focus sheet is to present information that students are supposed to learn. To enhance students' understanding of each lesson, all lessons consist of various focus sheets the content of which originates from the Web. Using the focus sheet, students directly surf for information by accessing the designated websites. This means that students can look at the information on the computer screen during the instructional tasks. Work sheets are used as consumable materials in achieving the objectives of each task chain. The purpose of these work sheets is to check students' understanding of the focus sheets. Most of the work sheets are designed for cooperative learning and critical thinking skills such as discussion, debate, interpretation, classification, analysis, synthesis, application, and evaluation. Self-assessment sheets and assessment sheets are included to check what students have already known or to evaluate their understanding of given materials. In

addition, assignments are given to students on each lesson in the form of writing essay for the purpose of improving students' critical thinking skills.

The Content of the Lesson Plans

In Lesson One, students learn the basic facts about the American civil rights movement, the speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream," and how to write a short dialogue about racial discrimination. Through each task chain, students are encouraged to practice working in small groups and to think critically about racial discrimination. To facilitate students' familiarity to the Internet, the teacher provides the websites that supply the main content. As a follow-up activity, students send e-mail to their classmates to increase interactive learning.

In Lesson Two, students learn about Martin Luther King Jr. Day. By listing American holidays and those of students' country, students can compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with a corresponding holiday of students' country, and finally list advocates of the civil rights movement in their country. Students learn how to use search engines and are involved in two Treasure Hunts with two concepts: "Martin Luther King Jr. Day" and "holiday." Through this activity, students become accustomed to accessing a web

page. This enables students to be motivated to access the information about their own culture from the web. They also use graphics in creating compare/contrast matrices on the computer. Students perform cooperative learning in groups and develop debating and public speaking skills and evaluative judgements in each task chain. The teacher observes the process of students' critical thinking, focusing on the students' ability to analyze, classify, synthesize, and evaluate. Students have opportunities to review how to use search engines in doing their assignments with the group members.

In Lesson Three, students learn about the background of hippie culture in the 60s, some characteristics of hippie culture through lyrics of a song, "*San Francisco*," and hippie slang. At first, the teacher presents a slide show, using Power Point for students to get general information about hippie culture in the 60s. Students also learn how to use Power Point by making a few slides. By using a song whose background is hippie culture in the 60s, students are involved in activities using vocabulary cloze tests, listening comprehension, social values and cultural awareness. In addition, students learn how to weigh the pros and cons when making choices by writing a short

persuasive essay about their attitudes toward hippie culture. They can also be reflective of their own culture in the 60s. Students can improve critical thinking during the process of exchanging their different opinions with other group members.

Table 6: Content of the Lesson Plans

Component of Instruction	Lesson	Instructional Lesson
Content	1	To gain basic facts about the American civil rights movement
		To learn about the speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream"
	2	To learn about Martin Luther King Jr. Day
		To list and compare American holidays and those of students' country
		To list and compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with a corresponding holiday of students' country
		To list advocates of civil rights movement in students' country
	3	To learn about Hippie culture in the 60s in America
		To learn a song, "San Francisco"
		To learn Hippie slang

Table 6: Content of the Lesson Plans (con't)

Component of Instruction	Lesson	Instructional Lesson
Process	1	To be able to think critically about racial discrimination
		To apply information to appropriate situations
		To practice working in groups
	2	To develop debating and public speaking skills
		To make judgements about value usefulness
		To practice working in groups
	3	To be able to analyze and classify the text
		To learn how to weigh the pros and cons when making choices
		To practice working in groups
Technology	1	To be able to access the Internet
		To be able to use the basic functions of word processing
		To be able to send e-mail
	2	To be able to use search engines
		To be able to use graphics
	3	To be able to Power Point

CHAPTER FIVE: ASSESSMENT OF INSTRUCTION

In assessing students' performance, the teacher divides the assessment into three categories: content, process, and technology. The whole assessment is conducted via the activities during class and assignments after class. The activities during class are assessed by students' worksheets and assessment sheets. The assignments after class consist of compositions. A holistic scoring guide will be applied to every worksheet and composition. For example, a score of 5 is excellent, a score of 4 is pretty good, a score of 3 is good, a score of 2 is inadequate, and a score of 1 is not acceptable.

Content assessment involves formative assessment, which will be used to check students' understanding about the target culture. This assessing content occupies 50% of the whole assessment, based on the score of each worksheet, printout, self-assessment sheet, and assessment sheet (see Table).

Process assessment is divided into two categories: assessment for critical thinking and assessment for cooperative thinking. Assessment for critical thinking is based on worksheets, assignment, or teacher's observation, consisting of 20%. Assessment for cooperative learning is

based on an observation checklist, consisting of 10% (see Table 7). An observation checklist allows the teacher to circulate among students while they are working in small groups and to check whether there are some students who do not participate in the group activities.

Assessment for critical thinking is based on the teacher's observation (the whole lessons), an assignment (Lesson One), and assessment sheets (Lesson Two and Three). The components of critical thinking skills are as follows: interpretation, classification, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Interpretation and classification skills are to enhance students' ability to understand the meaning of information and sort the identified items into the categories. Application skill is to improve the ability to use what students learned into new situations. Analysis and synthesis skills are to improve the ability to break information into parts and combine parts into whole unit. Evaluation skill is to check the ability to make judgements.

The components of technology assessment are as follows: Lesson One contains the assessment of students' ability to use the basic function of word processing, to access the Internet, and to send e-mail; Lesson Two

contains the assessment of students' ability to use search engines and graphics; Lesson Three contains the assessment of students' ability to use Power Point. Technological skills are graded by worksheets, printouts, or assignments, consisting of 20%.

The main reason that the assessment is divided into three parts is that this curriculum design emphasizes the process of students' critical thinking and cooperative learning based on computers. The teacher's observation of students' attitudes and participation, which occupies most of the process assessment, is an important process that the teacher can use to evaluate his or her curriculum design. In addition, considering this curriculum design is based on CALL, the assessment of students' ability to use computers is essential. By combining process and technology assessments with cross-cultural content assessment, the teacher can encourage students to realize the usefulness of computers, the importance of critical writing, and the effects of cross-cultural understanding in language learning (see Table 8).

Table 7: Checklist of Group Cooperation

Checklist of Group Cooperation					
Group: _____ total: _____ 5 = Excellent 4 = Good 3 = Adequate 2 = Poor 1 = Fail					
Score	5	4	3	2	1
Encouraging					
Sharing ideas					

Table 8: Assessment of Instruction

Component of Instruction	Lesson	Objectives	Method of Assessment
Content	1	To gain basic facts about the American civil rights movement	Work Sheet 1.1.1: 10 points Work Sheet 1.1.2: 10 points Work Sheet 1.1.3: 15 points
		To learn about the speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream"	Work Sheet 1.2.1: 15 points
	2	To learn about Martin Luther King Jr. Day	Work Sheet 2.1.2: 10 points
		To list and compare American holidays and those of students' country	Work Sheet 2.2.1: 10 points Work Sheet 2.2.2: 10 points
		To list and compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with a corresponding holiday of students' country	A printout of chart: 10 points
		To list advocates of civil rights movement in students' country	Work Sheet 2.4.1: 10 points
	3	To learn about hippie culture in the 60s in America	Work Sheet 3.1.1: 10 points Self Assessment Sheet 3.1.1: 10 points
		To learn a song, "San Francisco"	Work Sheet 3.2.1: 10 points Work Sheet 3.2.3: 15 points
		To learn hippie slang	Assessment Sheet 3.3.1: 15 points
	Process	1	To be able to think critically about racial discrimination
To apply information to appropriate situations			

Process	1	To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students who do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).	
	2	To develop debating and public speaking skills	1. Teacher observes the process of students' critical thinking in each task chain focused on: -Task Chain 1: the ability of debating and public speaking skills -Task Chain 4: the ability of making judgements about value usefulness 2. Assignment: 20 points	
		To make judgements about value usefulness		
		To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students who do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).	
	3	To be able to analyze and classify the text	1. Teacher observes the process of Students' critical thinking in each task chain focused on: -Task Chain 1: the ability of analysis -Task Chain 2: the ability of analysis and classification 2. Assignment: 20 points	
		To learn how to weigh the pros and cons when making choices		
		To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students who do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).	
	Technology	1	To be able to access the Internet	Teacher observes Task Chain 1, 2, and 3 and sees if students access the Internet.
			To be able to use the basic functions of word processing	A printout of dialogue: 20 points
To be able to send e-mail			Follow-Up Activity #1	
2		To be able to use search engines	Work Sheet 2.1.1: 20 points	
		To be able to use graphics	Task Chain 3: #2	
3		To be able to use Power Point	A printout of slides: 20 points	

APPENDIX

UNIT: LET'S LEARN ABOUT THE 60S IN AMERICA

Lesson Plan One Racial Discrimination

Objectives

Content Objectives:

1. To gain basic facts about the American civil rights movement
2. To learn about the speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream"

Process Objectives:

1. To be able to think critically about racial discrimination
2. To practice working in groups

Technology Objectives:

1. To be able to access the Internet
2. To be able to use the basic functions of word processing
3. To be able to send e-mail

Involving Students' Background Interest and Prior Knowledge

The teacher asks students the following questions:

- What is racism or discrimination?
- What do you know about the American civil rights movement and Martin Luther King, Jr.?

Task Chain 1. Gaining Basic Facts about the American Civil Rights Movement

1. Students are grouped in fours and do the matching exercise with some vocabulary about the American civil rights movement (Work Sheet 1.1.1). Groups explore this site on the Internet: <http://blackhistory.eb.com> (Focus Sheet 1.1.1).
2. Groups read the text and complete the chart with key words of each paragraph (Work Sheet 1.1.2). Each student may need encouraged to participate in finding key words.
3. Groups write 3 interesting events that they found out about the American civil rights movement after group discussion (Work Sheet 1.1.3).

Task Chain 2. Learning the Speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream"

1. Students play audio clips from the civil rights movement: <http://www.webcorp.com/civilrights/index.htm>, while students are looking at some part of the "I Have A Dream" speech that is selected by the teacher (Focus Sheet 1.2.1).

2. Groups write the topic and main idea of each paragraph of the speech (Work Sheet 1.2.1) after group discussion.

Task Chain 3. Writing a Short Dialogue about Racial Discrimination

1. Students click "Powerful Days in Black and White. Kodak pictures taken by Charles Moore" on the web site:
<http://seattletimes.com/mlk/classroom/MLKlink.html>
2. Each group selects one picture that reflects the racial discrimination the most and one student in each group gives a brief description about his/her feeling or opinion about the picture.
3. Groups write short dialogues about the pictures (in at least ten sentences), insert their pictures in their dialogues, and print them out to submit to the teacher.

Follow-Up Activity

1. Students send e-mail to their secret pal with whom they have been paired in advance, writing about his/her own experience of racism or discrimination in six sentences based on 6 wh-questions (when, where, who, what, how, and why).
2. Students hand in their printouts of the mail that they received from their secret pal to the teacher.

Assignment

Groups choose one of the topics from the Self Assessment Sheet, complete one page essay (double space) on the computer following the form on Focus Sheet 1.2.2, and submit it to the teacher after saving it to the floppy disk for the next class.

Assessment

	Objectives	Assessment
Content	To gain basic facts about the American civil rights movement	Work Sheet 1.1.1: 10 points Work Sheet 1.1.2: 10 points Work Sheet 1.1.3: 15 points
	To learn about the speech of Martin Luther King Jr., "I Have A Dream"	Work Sheet 1.2.1: 15 points
Process	To be able to think critically about racial discrimination	1. Teacher observes the process of students' critical thinking in each task chain focused on: -Task Chain 1: the ability of interpretation and analysis -Task Chain 2: the ability of synthesis -Task Chain 3: the ability of application and evaluation 2. Assignment: 20 points
	To apply information to appropriate situations	
	To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students who do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).
Technology	To be able to access the Internet	Teacher observes Task Chain 1, 2, and 3 and sees if students access the Internet.
	To be able to use the basic functions of word processing	A printout of dialogue: 20 points
	To be able to send e-mail	Follow-Up Activity #1

Criteria for grades by point value:

90-100	A
85-89	B+
80-84	B
75-79	B-
70-74	C
60-69	D
< 60	F

Name: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 1.1.1
Matching Exercise

Direction 1:

Read the following definitions and match them with the correct words in the box.

1. Members of society who share a common trait or culture...()
2. Using passive resistance to test a law that is believed to be immoral...()
3. Being treated unfairly because of race or other trait...()
4. Unfair opinions against a group formed without facts to support them...()
5. A system of laws and principles according to which a state or other organization is governed...()
6. To separate a group of people from the rest of the community, especially because of their race or religion, and treat them differently...()
7. To murder somebody important or famous for money or for political reasons...()
8. To take away rights from somebody, especially the right to vote for a representative in parliament...()
9. Belief in radical ideas and principles...()
10. Formally announcing, a formal announcement, or a written statement giving information about something...()

- | | |
|----|--------------------|
| a. | prejudice |
| b. | civil disobedience |
| c. | minority groups |
| d. | discrimination |
| e. | constitution |
| f. | declaration |
| g. | segregate |
| h. | assassinate |
| i. | disenfranchise |
| j. | radicalism |

Focus Sheet 1.1.1
Civil Rights Movement

Martin Luther King, Jr. (center), with other civil-rights supporters at a march on Washington, D.C., in August 1963



In the United States, the civil rights movement was a mass movement starting in the late 1950s that, through the application of nonviolent protest action and broke the pattern of racially segregated public facilities in the South and achieved the most important breakthrough in equal-rights legislation for blacks since the reconstruction period (1865-77). Denied constitutional guarantees (1787) because of their mainly slave status at the founding of the republic, black Americans were first promised fundamental citizenship rights in the 13th-15th constitutional amendments (1865-70; see Reconstruction). The Civil Rights Act of 1875 required equal accommodations for blacks with whites in public facilities (other than schools), but this legislation was effectively voided by the Supreme Court in 1883.

By 1900, 18 states of the North and West had legislated public policies against racial discrimination, but in the South new laws reinforced segregation practices. The U.S. Supreme Court upheld "separate but equal" facilities for the races in 1896, thus legitimizing the segregation of blacks from whites.

During World War II, progress was made in outlawing discrimination in defense industries and after the war in desegregating the armed forces. During the late 1940s and early 1950s, lawyers for the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) pressed a series of important cases before the Supreme Court in which they argued that segregation meant inherently unequal (and inadequate) educational and other public facilities for blacks. These cases culminated in the Court's landmark decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kan.* (1954), in which it declared that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal and therefore unconstitutional. This historic decision was to stimulate a mass movement on the part of blacks and white sympathizers to try to end the segregationist practices and racial inequalities that were firmly entrenched across the nation and particularly in the South. The movement was strongly resisted by many whites in the South and elsewhere.

After a black woman, Rosa Parks, was arrested for refusing to move to the Negro section of a bus in Montgomery, Ala. (Dec. 1, 1955), blacks staged a one-day local boycott of the bus system to protest her arrest. Fusing these protest elements with the historic force of the Negro churches, a local Baptist minister, Martin Luther King, Jr., succeeded in transforming a spontaneous racial protest into a massive resistance movement, led from 1957 by his Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC). After a protracted boycott of the Montgomery bus company forced it to desegregate its facilities, picketing and boycotting spread rapidly to other communities. During the period from 1955 to 1960, some progress was made toward integrating schools and other public facilities in the upper South and the border states, but the Deep South remained adamant in its opposition to most desegregation measures.

In 1960 a sit-in movement was launched at Greensboro, N.C., when black college students insisted on service at a local segregated lunch counter. Patterning its techniques on the nonviolent methods of Indian leader Mahatma Gandhi, the movement spread across the nation, forcing the desegregation of department stores, supermarkets, libraries, and movie theatres. In May 1961 the Congress of Racial Equality (CORE) sent "Freedom Riders" of both races through the South and elsewhere to test and break down segregated accommodations in interstate transportation. By September it was estimated that more than 70,000 students had participated in the movement, with approximately 3,600 arrested; more than 100 cities in 20 states had been affected. The movement reached its climax in August 1963 with a massive march on Washington, D.C., to protest racial discrimination and demonstrate support for major civil-rights legislation that was pending in Congress.

The federal government under presidents Dwight D. Eisenhower and John F. Kennedy had been reluctant to vigorously enforce the Brown decision when this entailed directly confronting the resistance of Southern whites. In 1961-63 President Kennedy won a following in the black community by encouraging the movement's leaders, but Kennedy's administration lacked the political capacity to persuade Congress to pass new legislation guaranteeing integration and equal rights. After President Kennedy's assassination (November 1963), Congress, under the prodding of President Lyndon B. Johnson, in 1964 passed the Civil Rights Act. This was the most far-reaching civil rights bill in the nation's history (indeed, in world history), forbidding discrimination in public accommodations and threatening to withhold federal funds from communities that persisted in maintaining segregated schools. It was followed in 1965 by the passage of the Voting Rights Act, the enforcement of which eradicated the tactics previously used in the South to disenfranchise black voters. This act led to drastic increases in the numbers of black registered voters in the South, with a comparable increase in the numbers of blacks holding elective offices there.

Up until 1966 the Civil Rights Movement had united widely disparate elements in the black community along with their white supporters and sympathizers, but in that year signs of radicalism began to appear in the movement as younger blacks became impatient with the rate of change and dissatisfied with purely nonviolent methods of protest. This new militancy split the ranks of the movement's leaders and also alienated some white sympathizers, a process that was accelerated by a wave of rioting in the black ghettos of several major cities in 1965-67. After the assassination of King (April 1968) and further black rioting in the cities, the movement as a cohesive effort disintegrated, with a broad spectrum of leadership advocating different approaches and varying degrees of militancy.

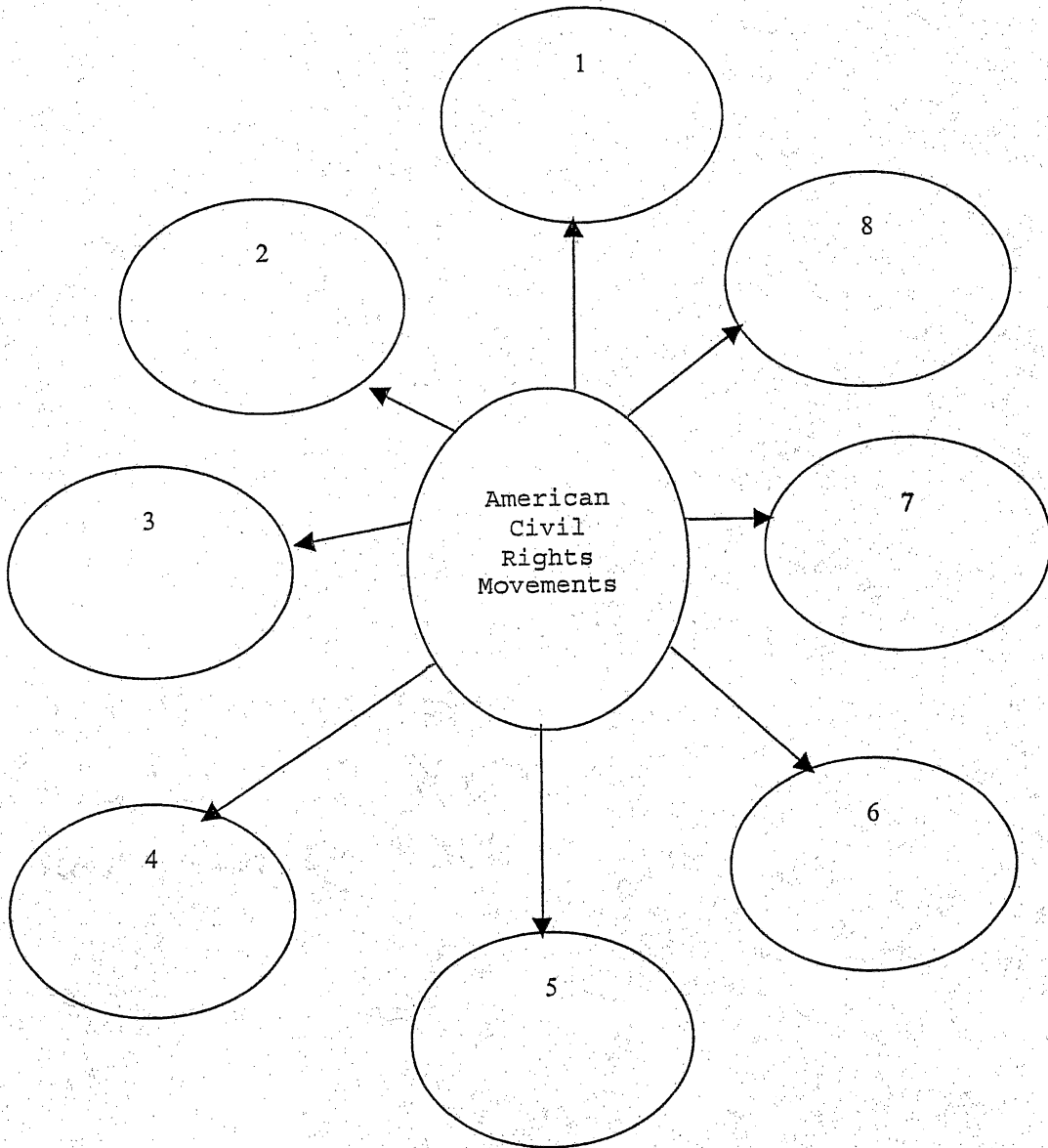
In the years that followed, many civil rights leaders sought to achieve greater direct political power through elective office, and they sought to achieve more substantive economic and educational gains through affirmative-action programs that compensated for past discrimination in job hiring and college admissions. During the later 1970s and the '80s the civil rights movement was less militant but still persevering.

Name: _____

Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 1.1.2
Finding Key Words

Directions: Fill in the circles with key words of each paragraph.



Name: _____

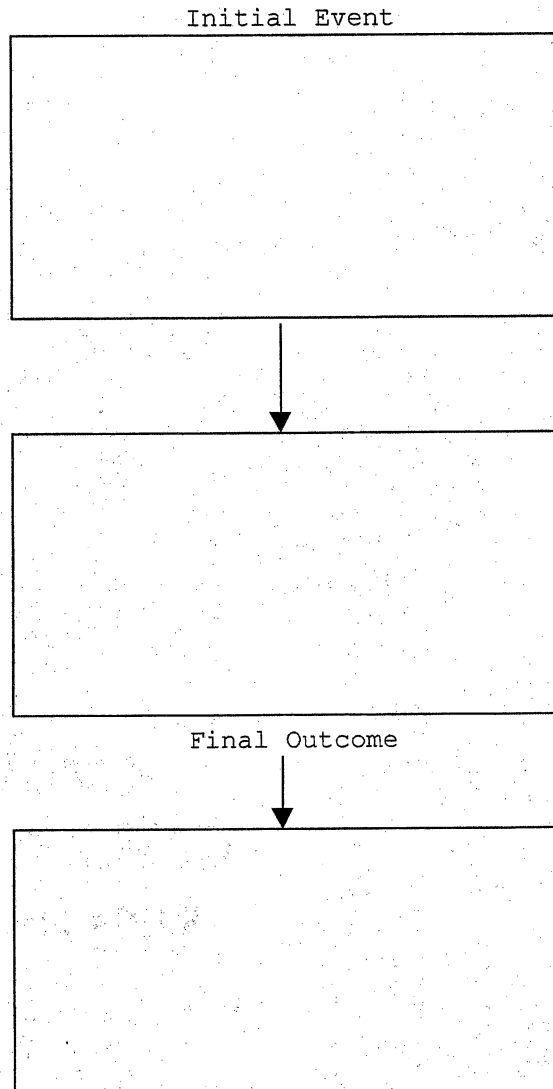
Score (15 points): _____

Work Sheet 1.1.3

Three Events of American Civil Rights Movement

Directions: Write down 3 interesting events that your group found out about the American civil rights movement (5 points for each event).

Series of Event Chain



Focus Sheet 1.2.1

"I Have A Dream"

[Delivered on the steps at the Lincoln Memorial in Washington D.C. on Aug. 28, 1963]



..."But one hundred years later, we must face the tragic fact that the Negro is still not free. One hundred years later, the life of the Negro is still sadly crippled by the manacles of segregation and the chains of discrimination. One hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of poverty in the midst of a vast ocean of material prosperity. One hundred years later, the Negro is still languishing in the corners of American society and finds himself an exile in his own land. So we have come here today to dramatize an appalling condition."

"I say to you today, my friends, that in spite of the difficulties and frustrations of the moment, I still have a dream. It is a dream deeply rooted in the American dream."

"I have a dream that one day this nation will rise up and live out the true meaning of its creed: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal." "I have a dream that one day on the red hills of Georgia the sons of former slaves and the sons of former slaveowners will be able to sit down together at a table of brotherhood." "I have a dream that one day even the state of Mississippi, a desert state, sweltering with the heat of injustice and oppression, will be transformed into an oasis of freedom and justice."

"I have a dream that my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character. I have a dream today. I have a dream that one day the state of Alabama, whose governor's lips are presently dripping with the words of interposition and nullification, will be transformed into a situation where little black boys and black girls will be able to join hands with little white boys and white girls and walk together as sisters and brothers."

"I have a dream today. I have a dream that one day every valley shall be exalted, every hill and mountain shall be made low, the rough places will be made plain, and the crooked places will be made straight, and the glory of the Lord shall be revealed, and all flesh shall see it together. This is our hope. This is the faith with which I return to the South. With this faith we will be able to hew out of the mountain of despair a stone of hope. With this faith we will be able to transform the jangling discords of our nation into a beautiful symphony of brotherhood. With this faith we will be able to work together, to pray together, to struggle together, to go to jail together, to stand up for freedom together, knowing that we will be free one day."

...

"Let freedom ring from the snowcapped Rockies of Colorado!"

"Let freedom ring from the curvaceous peaks of California!"

"But not only that; let freedom ring from Stone Mountain of Georgia!"

"Let freedom ring from Lookout Mountain of Tennessee!"

"Let freedom ring from every hill and every molehill of Mississippi. From every mountainside, let freedom ring."

"When we let freedom ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God's children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual, 'Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!'"

Source: Tribune Media Services

Name: _____

Score (15 points): _____

Work Sheet 1.2.1
Finding Topic/Main Idea

Directions: Read the speech of "I Have a Dream" and fill in the chart.

Paragraph	Topic	The Main Idea of "I Have a Dream" (Complete in three or four sentences)
1		
2		
3		
4		
5		
6		

Name: _____

Score (10 points): _____

Self Assessment Sheet
Sample Essay Questions

Directions: Choose one topic and complete one page essay (double space).

1. If King were alive today, what aspects of America society would he feel had fulfilled? In contrast, what part of the dream remains unfulfilled?
2. Would his non-violent approach for the injustice of racial prejudice be effective in today's America?
3. If you have ever been the victim of discrimination, what were the social causes?

Source:

<http://www.lessonplanspage.com/SSCICivilRightsMovementWebProjectHS.html>

Focus Sheet 1.2.2
Composition Grade Checklist

All the following will be given points on a scale of 1-5.

1. Beginning (Introduction: one paragraph including topic statement)
2. Middle (Main Topic: two paragraphs including topic sentences)
3. End (Conclusion: one paragraph)
4. Grammar, word choice, and unity and coherence

Notes:

- 5 points: excellent
- 4 points: pretty good
- 3 points: good
- 2 points: inadequate
- 1 point: not acceptable

Lesson Plan Two
Martin Luther King, Jr. Day

Objectives

Content Objectives:

1. To learn about Martin Luther King Jr. Day
2. To list and compare American holidays and those of students' country
3. To compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with its corresponding holiday of students' country
4. To list advocates of civil rights movements in students' country

Process Objectives:

1. To develop debating and public speaking skills
2. To practice working in groups

Technology Objectives:

1. To be able to use search engines
2. To make judgements about value usefulness
3. To be able to use graphics

Involving Students' Background Interest and Prior Knowledge

Write the following on the board and encourage students to find out the similarities and differences: Martin Luther King, Jr. Day, Lincoln's Birthday, Washington's Birthday.

Task Chain 1. Learning about Martin Luther King Jr. Day

1. Students work in groups of four. Using "An Introduction to Search Engines" on Work Sheet 2.1.1, students search for the topic of Martin Luther King Jr. Day.
2. Groups read the biography of Martin Luther King Jr. they found (the site: <http://www.holidays.net/mlk/holiday.htm> is recommended: Focus Sheet 2.1.1), solve the quiz (Work Sheet 2.1.2), and check the answers (Focus 2.1.2).
3. Students read the history of Martin Luther King Jr. Day (Focus Sheet 2.1.3) and briefly discuss the relative importance of the holiday compared with other American holidays with their group members.

Task Chain 2. Listing and Comparing American Holidays and Those of Students' Country

1. Groups search for American holiday sites and sites about their country's holidays, using search engines.
2. Groups list American holidays and their own holidays (Work Sheet 2.2.1) and compare both countries' holidays (Work Sheet 2.2.2).

Task Chain 3. Comparing Martin Luther King Jr. Day and Its Corresponding Holiday of Students' Country

1. Students access the web addresses that supply information about both holidays or use the websites they have found for themselves, using search engines.
 - Index to Martin Luther King Jr. Day
<http://www.holidays.net/mlk/holiday.htm>
<http://deil.lang.uiuc.edu/>
<http://www.seattletimes.com/mlk/classroom/MLKlink.html>
 - Index to Korean holiday
<http://Korea.insight.co.kr/forbid/holiday/index.html>
<http://soback.kornet.nm.kr/~mimidad/holidays.htm>
2. Groups compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with its corresponding holiday of students' country and create their own compare/contrast charts on the computer based on three different items (use one of graphic organizers on Focus Sheet 2.3.1).
3. Groups print out their charts to submit to the teacher.

Task Chain 4. Listing Advocates of Civil Rights Movement in Students' Country

1. Groups list advocates of civil rights movement in their country and evaluate them using the form (Work Sheet 2.4.1).
 - Index to Korean history
http://askasia.org/for_educator/fe_frame.htm
<http://www.jamie.co.kr/onlyike/history/kimgu.htm>
<http://Korea.insights.co.kr/engl.htm>
2. Each group joins another group and debates on whether each advocate on his or her lists is a civil movements advocate or not.

Assignment

Groups choose one American holiday and compare it with its corresponding holiday of their country based on five different items, using graphic organizers.

Assessment

	Objectives	Assessment
Content	To learn about Martin Luther King Jr. Day	Work Sheet 2.1.2: 10 points
	To list and compare American holidays and those of students' country	Work Sheet 2.2.1: 10 points Work Sheet 2.2.2: 10 points
	To compare Martin Luther King Jr. Day with a corresponding holiday of students' country	A printout of chart: 10 points
	To list advocates of civil rights movement in students' country	Work Sheet 2.4.1: 10 points
Process	To develop debating and public speaking skills	1. Teacher observes the process of students' critical thinking in each task chain focused on: -Task Chain 1: the ability of debating and public speaking skills -Task Chain 4: the ability of making judgements about value usefulness 2. Assignment: 20 points
	To make judgements about value usefulness	
	To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).
Technology	To be able to use search engines	Work Sheet 2.1.1: 20 points
	To be able to use graphics	Task Chain 3: #2

Criteria for grades by point value:

90-101	A
85-90	B+
80-84	B
75-79	B-
70-74	C
60-69	D
< 60	F

Group: _____
Score (20 points): _____

Work Sheet 2.1.1
An Introduction to Search Engines
(<http://teachers.net/lessons/posts/265.html>)

Now that you have had a little experience using the Internet, you need to learn the appropriate ways to search for information using search engines. Use the guidelines below to start your introduction.

1. Begin Netscape. In the top margin, you will see a list of options. Click on Net Search.
2. You will see a list of 5 search engines across the top. A search engine is a program that allows you to put in key terms, then searches documents for that term. List the 5 search engines:
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
 - e. _____
3. Click on Yahoo. Click in the box, type in the word "skateboard" and press RETURN.
4. Yahoo now searches through millions of Internet resources that in any way use the word "skateboard." When it finds the best ones, it will list them. "Top 10 matches" tells you that Yahoo found many references to skateboards and has listed 10 of them. To go to any one of those sites, simply click on the listing and you will go there. Notice how the URL (location) changes. Click on two or three of these to test them.
5. Now write the topic: Martin Luther King Jr. Day and visit five sites using a different search engines each time.
6. Open a new ClarisWorks word processing page. You will paste on this page the following:
 - The number of sites found for the topic
 - The URL for the site
 - One graphic from the site pasted on your document and one interesting fact written beside the graphic.
7. When you are finished, print the Claris Works page, staple it to this Work Sheet, and turn it in.

Focus Sheet 2.1.1

Biography of Martin Luther King Jr.

(http://broadcast.webpoint.com/wdzt/mlk/mlk_bio.htm)

As the father of the modern civil rights movement, Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. is recognized around the world as a representative of freedom, peace, and nonviolent civil disobedience. He was born January 15, 1929, the son of an Atlanta pastor. His grandfather was a founder of the Atlanta chapter of the NAACP. Growing up, King began to see the church the way his father did, as a means for great social change for African-Americans.

During his studies at Morehouse College, the school's president encouraged King to do God's work in society by becoming a minister. He graduated from Morehouse as a minister in 1948 and went on to Crozer Theological Seminary in Chester, Pa., where he earned a divinity degree. Continuing his education, King went on to earn a doctorate in theology from Boston University in 1955. It was during his time at Boston University that he decided to accept the pastorate of the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in Montgomery, Alabama.

Just five days after the Rosa Parks refused to give her bus seat up to a white man, King was elected president of the Montgomery Improvement Association, which was formed by blacks who had decided to boycott Montgomery's bus system. King underwent personal trials as the result of his new position. He was convicted of trying to interfere with bus company operations and his house was bombed. As a result of his unwavering dedication, King became known nationally as a courageous leader and as an outstanding speaker. Montgomery's buses were desegregated after the Supreme Court declared Alabama's segregation laws unconstitutional.

Noting their success in the bus boycott, King and other black ministers from the South wanted to build on the foundation they had just laid. They formed the Southern Christian Leadership Conference (SCLC) in 1957, with King as president. During 1957, King began to campaign for black voting rights, and he also published his first book, *Stride Toward Freedom*, about the Montgomery boycotts. The following year King traveled to India, where he built upon his knowledge of Ghandhi's philosophy of nonviolence. He resigned from the Dexter Avenue Baptist Church in 1959 and went back to Atlanta, where the headquarters for the SCLC are located. Returning to Atlanta also allowed him to help his father in his pastoral duties.

In the five years that followed Montgomery boycott, he did not organize any mass protest, instead leaving that task to black college students, who staged sit-in protests during 1960. He sympathized with their cause, even though many within the student movement criticized

him in an attempt to establish their independence. A call from presidential candidate John F. Kennedy in 1960 to Coretta Scott King (King's wife) solidified much black support for Kennedy's successful campaign. The next year saw the launch of the student-driven "Freedom Rides," which showed that the student movement had a mind of its own, and was not necessarily answerable to King.

Seeking to organize a protest campaign that would be successful and free from conflict with the student movement, King oversaw mass demonstrations in Birmingham, Ala., where police were notoriously racist. The demonstrators often came up against police using fire hoses and police dogs, and the conflict that usually ensued made headlines around the globe. This led to President Kennedy's commitment in July of 1963 to submit broad civil rights legislation to Congress (it eventually became the Civil Rights Act of 1964). A series of other mass protests climaxed in the infamous march on Washington, D.C., on August 28, 1963, which attracted a quarter of a million protestors. King addressed the throng from the steps of the Lincoln Memorial, giving his "I Have a Dream" speech.

King was subsequently named "Man of the Year" by Time magazine and received the Nobel Peace Prize in December of 1964. Even though he was receiving many awards and honors and much recognition, his leadership was being challenged by the likes of Malcolm X, an advocate of Black Nationalism and "Black Power" proponent Stokely Carmichael. King and his staff were able to keep his opponents at bay long enough during 1965's march from Selma to Montgomery, Ala., to achieve the Voting Rights Act of that year but later marches drew harsh criticism. Though many of the civil rights movement's budding leaders did not share King's views on nonviolence, he remained committed to the philosophy.

King was not only challenged from within the black community but also from without. FBI director J. Edgar Hoover consistently tried to undermine King's leadership. These efforts became especially intense during 1967 when race riots were prevalent in urban areas and King criticized American involvement in Vietnam. His relations with the administration of President Lyndon Johnson were not good at that point, and he began to lose the support of many liberal whites. While helping out with garbage-workers' strike in Memphis, King was assassinated on April 4, 1968, outside his motel room by James Earl Ray.

While his views at the time seemed radical to many, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. is remembered and respected today as a martyr of the civil rights movement and an icon of change through nonviolent means.

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 2.1.2

Test Your Knowledge about Martin Luther King Jr.

(<http://seattletimes.com/mlk/classroom/MLKquiz.html>)

1. What year was Martin Luther King Jr. assassinated?
 - a. 1960
 - b. 1963
 - c. 1968
 - d. 1973

2. Where did Rosa Parks become famous?
 - a. At a Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina
 - b. At a high school in Little Rock, Arkansas
 - c. On a bus in Montgomery, Alabama
 - d. On a march in Selma, Alabama

3. Which president signed the first major civil rights act of this century?
 - a. John F. Kennedy
 - b. Lyndon B. Johnson
 - c. Richard M. Nixon
 - d. Ronald Reagan

4. What was the name of King's first book?
 - a. Stride Toward Freedom
 - b. Dreamer
 - c. Why We Can't Wait
 - d. We Shall Overcome

5. Where was the tactic of the sit-in protest first used?
 - a. At a Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina
 - b. At a high school in Little Rock, Arkansas
 - c. On a bus in Birmingham, Alabama
 - d. On a march in Selma, Alabama

6. Where did King deliver his "I Have a Dream" speech?
 - a. At Ebenezer Baptist Church
 - b. In front of the Atlanta City Hall
 - c. At the Lincoln Memorial
 - d. At the Nobel Prize ceremony

7. What foreign figure has King been compared to?
 - a. Charles de Gaulle
 - b. Mohandas Gandhi
 - c. Albert Nobel
 - d. Nelson Mandela

8. What year was the Martin Luther King Jr. national holiday first observed?
 - a. 1969
 - b. 1973
 - c. 1980
 - d. 1986

9. What black leader was killed five years before King's assassination?
 - a. James Meredith
 - b. Malcolm X
 - c. Medgar Evers
 - d. Stokely Carmichael

10. Why was King arrested in 1956?
 - a. Protesting segregated department store facilities in Birmingham.
 - b. Driving too fast
 - c. Sitting in at a Woolworth's lunch counter.
 - d. Assaulting a police officer.

Focus Sheet 2.1.2

Quiz Answers

(<http://seattletimes.com/mlk/classroom/MLKquiz.html>)

1. What year was Martin Luther King Jr. assassinated?
 - c. 1968: He was killed in Memphis, Tennessee, where he had gone to support a strike by sanitation workers.
2. Where did Rosa Parks become famous?
 - c. On a bus in Montgomery, Alabama. Her arrest Dec. 1 led to a yearlong boycott aimed to desegregate the bus system.
3. Which president signed the first major civil rights act of this century?
 - b. Lyndon B. Johnson. He signed the Civil Rights Act of 1964 on July 2 that year.
4. What was the name of King's first book?
 - a. Stride Toward Freedom. He was only 29 years old when it was published.
5. Where was the tactic of the sit-in protest first used?
 - a. At a Woolworth's lunch counter in Greensboro, North Carolina. The 1960 protest was one of the key moments in the civil rights movement.
6. Where did King deliver his "I Have A Dream" speech?
 - b. At the Lincoln Memorial. He addressed a quarter-million people who turned out for the 1963 March on Washington.
7. What foreign figure has King been compared to?
 - c. Mohandas Gandhi. King admired Gandhi greatly, and traveled to India in 1959.
8. What year was the Martin Luther King Jr. national holiday first observed?
 - d. 1986. The first legislation for the holiday had been proposed almost 18 years earlier.
9. What black leader was killed five years before King's assassination?
 - a. Medgar Evers. The NAACP leader was murdered June 12, 1963.
10. Why was King arrested in 1956?
 - b. Driving too fast. (He was driving 30 M.P.H. in a 25 M.P.H. zone.)

Focus Sheet 2.1.3

History of Martin Luther King Jr. Day

(<http://www.holiday.net/mlk/holiday.htm>)

Each year on the third Monday of January schools, federal offices, post office and banks across America close as America celebrates the newest American national holiday. Fifteen years after Dr. King's death, President Ronald Reagan signed a bill into law making the third Monday of January a national holiday celebrating the birth and life of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. But it was difficult to get the bill passed.

First a bill had to be introduced by a member of the House of Representatives. The Speaker of the House assigned the bill to a committee where the bill was discussed in detail. Meetings were held where supporters and opposers could discuss their positions. The committee then agreed that bill should be sent to a vote. The Rules Committee scheduled a debate on the issue. The House of Representatives then voted on the bill. It passed the House with a vote of 338 to 90. Then it was sent to the Senate.

Again the issue of the King holiday had to pass through committees and public hearings before a final vote was taken. There were many that opposed the idea of holiday for Dr. King. America had only honored two individuals with national holidays: George Washington and Christopher Columbus. Many felt that there were other Americans that deserved a national holiday, such as Abraham Lincoln and John F. Kennedy.

One barrier to the confirmation was the Senator from Georgia who had denounced Dr. King as a communist. Others feared the King holiday was meant as a way to make up to African-Americans for slavery. Other feared the cost of the holiday, with the extra overtime paid to federal workers who had to work on the holiday as well as millions to those federal employees who were paid for the day. Senator Robert Dole pointed out to those critics "I suggest they hurry back to their pocket calculators and estimate the cost of 300 years of slavery, followed by a century or more of economic, political and social exclusion and discrimination."

It took many years for Congress to decide to celebrate the holiday. In the years leading up to the official decree many African-Americans celebrated the birthday themselves with a few states declaring King's birthday a state holiday. The bill was finally passed by both the House of Representatives and the Senate and was signed into law on November 2, 1983. The first national celebration of the Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. holiday took place January 20, 1986. In 2000 the King holiday will be celebrated on January 17. The theme of holiday in 2000 is Remember! Celebrate! Not A Day Off!

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 2.2.1
Listing Holidays

Directions: List the titles of American and your country's holidays.

Month	American holiday(s)	My country's holiday(s)
January		
February		
March		
April		
May		
June		
July		
August		
September		
October		
November		
December		

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 2.2.2
Comparing Holidays

Directions: Fill in each blank with names of holidays.

- A: American holidays
- B: Holidays similar in both countries
- C: Your country's holidays

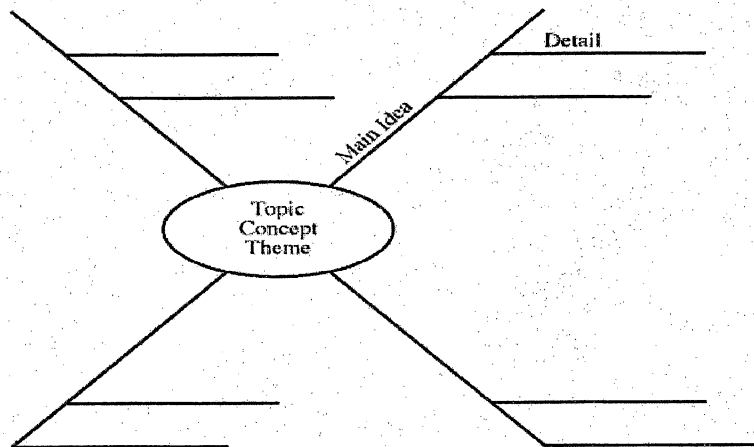
A	B	C

Focus Sheet 2.3.1
Graphic Organizer

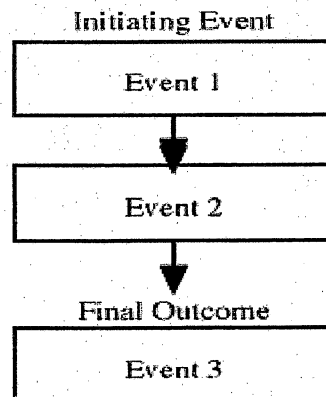
(<http://www.ncrel.org/areas/issues/students/learning/lrlgrorg.html>)

A graphic organizer is an instrumental tool used to illustrate a topic. Organizers include the following:

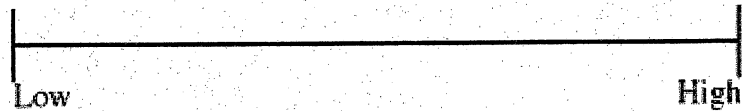
A Spider Map is used to describe a central idea, a thing, process, concept, or proposition with support. Key frame questions: What is the central idea? What are its attributes or functions?



A Series of Events Chain is used to describe the stages of something, the steps in a procedure, or a sequence of events. Key questions: What is the object, procedure, or initiating event? What are the stages or steps? What is the final outcome?



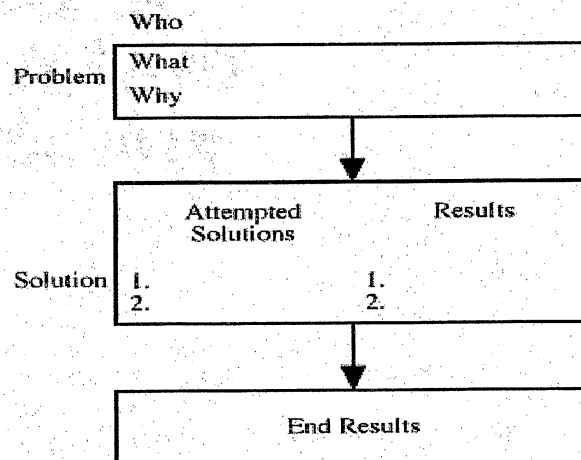
A Continuum Scale is used for time lines showing historical events or ages (grade levels in school), or degrees of something (weight). Key questions: What is being scaled? What are the end points?



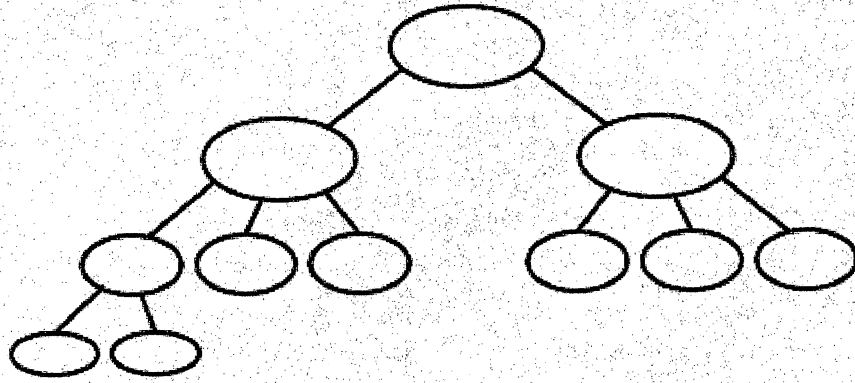
A Compare/Contrast Matrix is used to show similarities and differences between two things (people, places, events, ideas, etc.). Key questions: What things are being compared? How are they similar? How are they different?

	Name 1	Name 2
Attribute 1		
Attribute 2		
Attribute 3		

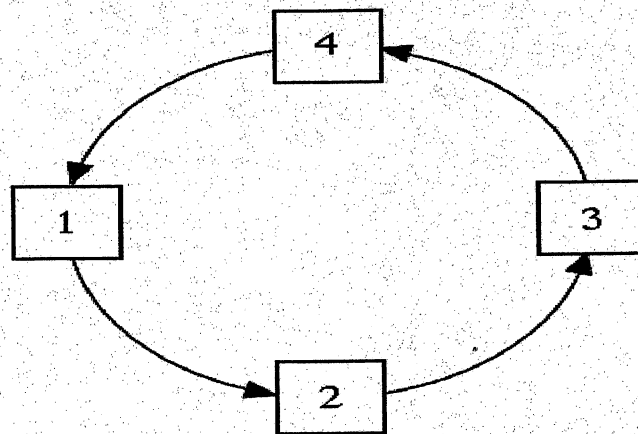
A Problem/Solution Outline is used to represent a problem, attempted solutions, or results (the national debt). Key questions: What was the problem? Who had the problem? Why was it a problem? What attempts were made to solve the problem? Did those attempts succeed?



A Network Tree is used to show causal information (causes of poverty), a hierarchy (types of insects), or branching procedures (the circulatory system). Key questions: What is the superordinate category? What are the subordinate categories? How are they related? How many levels are there?



A Cycle is used to show how a series of events interact to produce a set of results again and again (weather phenomena, cycles of achievement and failure, the life cycle). Key questions: What are the critical events in the cycle? How are they related? In what ways are they self-reinforcing?



Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 2.4.1
Listing/Evaluating the Advocates of Civil Rights Movement

Directions: List the advocates of civil rights movement in your country and evaluate them.

What (Who is the person?)	Why (Why is this person important?)	Result (What happened as a result of what this person did?)

Lesson Plan Three

Hippie Culture and Slang

Objectives

Content Objectives:

1. To learn about Hippie culture in 1960s of America
2. To learn a song, "San Francisco"
3. To learn hippie slang

Process Objectives:

1. To be able to analyze and classify the text
2. To learn how to weigh the pros and cons when making choices
3. To practice working in groups

Technology Objectives:

- To be able to use Power Point

Involving Student's Background Interest and Prior Knowledge

1. The teacher encourages students to think of main events in 1960s of America, asking following questions:
 - What happened in 1960s of America?
 - What does "Hippie" remind you of?
2. Students understand briefly the sixties of America by filling in the blanks on Work Sheet 3.1.1.

Task Chain 1. Learning about Hippie Culture in 1960s of America

1. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.1.1 and presents a slide show about Hippie culture in 1960s (Focus Sheet 3.1.2).
2. Students are grouped in four and fill in the blanks on Assessment Sheet 3.1.1.
3. The teacher distributes Focus Sheet 3.1.3 and gives a brief explanation to students how to use Power Point.
4. Groups access the site: <http://www.ronevans.clara.net/>, choose one sub title, and make three slides based on the information they found according to the form on Focus Sheet 3.1.4.
5. Groups submit the printout of 3 slides to the teacher.

Task Chain 2. Learning a Song, "San Francisco"

1. Groups access the site of Scott McKenzie: <http://users.wantree.com.au/~hartman/mckenzie.htm> (Focus Sheet 3.2.1) and classify some vocabulary by doing categorizing game (Work Sheet 3.2.1).
2. Groups listen to the song using a CD and fill in the blanks on Work Sheet 3.2.2.
3. Groups print out the lyrics from the site (Focus Sheet 3.2.2) and check out the missing words.

4. Groups choose the vocabulary from the cultural background about Hippie culture and write a brief description about the vocabulary, connecting with Hippie culture on Work Sheet 3.2.3.

Task Chain 3. Learning Hippie Slang

Using Focus Sheet 3.3.1, students understand the correct meanings of Hippie slang items and work on Assessment 3.3.1.

Assignment (choose one)

1. Students write a persuasive essay about Hippies in the 60s, following the form on Focus Sheet 3.3.2.
2. Students write a few main events in 60s in their country, following the form on Focus Sheet 3.3.3.

Further Information

<Index to the Hippie Culture/Lyrics/Slang: >

<http://www2.netdoor.com/~greenlee/oldhippie.htm>

<http://www.maine.rr.com/gilley/skillin/sixties.htm>

<http://www.yahoo.com/bin/>

<http://www.narthist.ewu.edu/ar/berkeley/photos/cal.html>

http://serendipity.notadz.com/pm_bio.html,

<http://www2.netdoor.com/~greenlee/woodstock.htm>

<http://www.yahoo.com/entertainment/music/events/concerts/festivals/woodstock>

<http://www.digitaltimes.com/lyrics/endless.html>

<http://www.lyrics.ch/>

http://www.music.indiana.edu/music_resources/songlyr.html

<http://www.warnerchappell.com>, <http://www.stairway/-to-webbin.com>

<http://eslcafe.com/slang/>

<http://tcada.state.tx.us/research/slang>

<http://www.geezer.demon.co.uk>

<http://www.drugs.indiana.edu/slang/home.html>

<http://www.slanguage.com>

<http://www.intranet.csupomona.edu/~jasanders/slang>

<http://mbhs.bergtraum.k12.ny.us/cybereng/slang/>

<http://www.hurricane.net/~wizard/19a.html>

Assessment

	Objectives	Assessment
Content	To learn about Hippie culture in the 60s in America	Work Sheet 3.1.1: 10 points Assessment Sheet 3.1.1: 10 points
	To learn a song, "San Francisco"	Work Sheet 3.2.1: 10 points Work Sheet 3.2.3: 10 points
	To learn Hippie slang	Assessment Sheet 3.3.1: 10 points
Process	To be able to analyze and classify the text	1. Teacher observes the process of Students' critical thinking in each task chain focused on: -Task Chain 1: the ability of analysis -Task Chain 2: the ability of analysis and classification 2. Assignment: 20 points
	To learn how to weigh the pros and cons when making choices	
	To practice working in groups	Teacher observes if there are some students who do not participate or feel left out of the group (Checklist: 10 points).
Technology	To be able to use Power Point	A printout of slides: 20 points

Criteria for grades by point value:

90-102	A
85-91	B+
80-84	B
75-79	B-
70-74	C
60-69	D
< 60	F

Name: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 3.1.1
The 60s in America

Directions: Fill in the blanks with the correct answers below.

1. The () invaded the United States with their bowl haircuts. The Rolling Stones began their thirty-year career and Buffalo Springfield, the Mamas and Papas, and Jimmy Hendrix were popular.
2. () became the youngest president and was assassinated three years later.
3. The United States plunged into the War in (). Civil and woman's rights protesters filled the streets in Washington with their posters and protests. Draft resisters fled to Canada and burned their draft cards.
4. () became the first man on the moon.
5. () was assassinated and dampened African-American people's hopes for racial equality.
6. Inventions such as the () fascinated people. Video cameras and audiocassettes were created.
7. () was all over America with bell-bottoms, long hair, peace symbols, and bandanas. Lava lamps and beads decorated teen-age bedrooms. Tie-dyed shirts and flowers colored the American landscape.
8. () was one of the most celebrated hippie gatherings of the sixties.
9. () gave children an educational show on television.
10. () died of an overdose.

A	Marilyn Monroe	F	John F. Kennedy
B	Beatles	G	Woodstock
C	Neal Armstrong	H	Martin Luther King, Jr
D	Hippies	I	Vietnam
E	Sesame Street	J	Color and Remote Control TV

Focus Sheet 3.1.1 Hippie Culture

The Sixties were filled with turbulence in America. One significant culture called "Hippie" derived from the counterculture and was influenced by the "Beat Generation." By the fifties, the youth protested what they saw wrong with the world. A small group of writers, of which Jack Kerouac, Allen Ginsberg and William S. Burroughs were the best known, met and shared thoughts in coffee houses or jazz clubs. They refused to conform. They were skeptical of their future. This reminds us of Ernest Hemingway's description, "Lost Generation". These "Beatniks" way of thinking was the major background of hippie culture. "Howl" written by Allen Ginsberg is typical well-known poem that the meaning of beat is reflected. The meaning of "beat" at that time is similar to "disappointment." Beatniks used "I am hip" quite often. Some even called them "hipster," the origin of the "hippie."

The derivation of the term "hipster" is not clear. Some theories about "hipster" are as follows:

1. It comes from a "hipicat," denoting a person attuned to his environment, literally with "eyes open."
2. It comes from Chinese opium. Smokers who reclined on their hips while they smoked.
3. It comes from a hip flask, which is a "hipster" carried liquor on his hip instead of hidden in his boot.

There are two major factors in the growth of the hippie movement, music and The Vietnam War. In the 60s, the youth felt no respect for their nation. They were "beat" because they didn't believe in straight job and had to struggle to survive. The feeling of hopeless, and alienation caused them to become further involved in the counterculture. The music whose theme was against government took roots from the folk music of musicians coming out of the depression, such as Pete Seeger, Woody Guthrie, Bob Dylan and Jamea Douglas Morrison. They tried to express the new self-understanding of the youth, an awareness of the strange and wrong, something that is not quite right. The war in Vietnam as another major factor killed so many young people and college students demonstrated on campus under the slogan of "anti-war" all over the country. Berkley became the center of the movement. They were also angry at the injustices such as racism, poverty and the lack of women's rights. It was the hippies that took the movement out of the coffee shops and on to the campuses around the country. Their ambition was to abolish any kind of hierarchy to make sure that people are no longer judged by their race, agenda, religion, or social class. It was revolutionary attitude for that time.

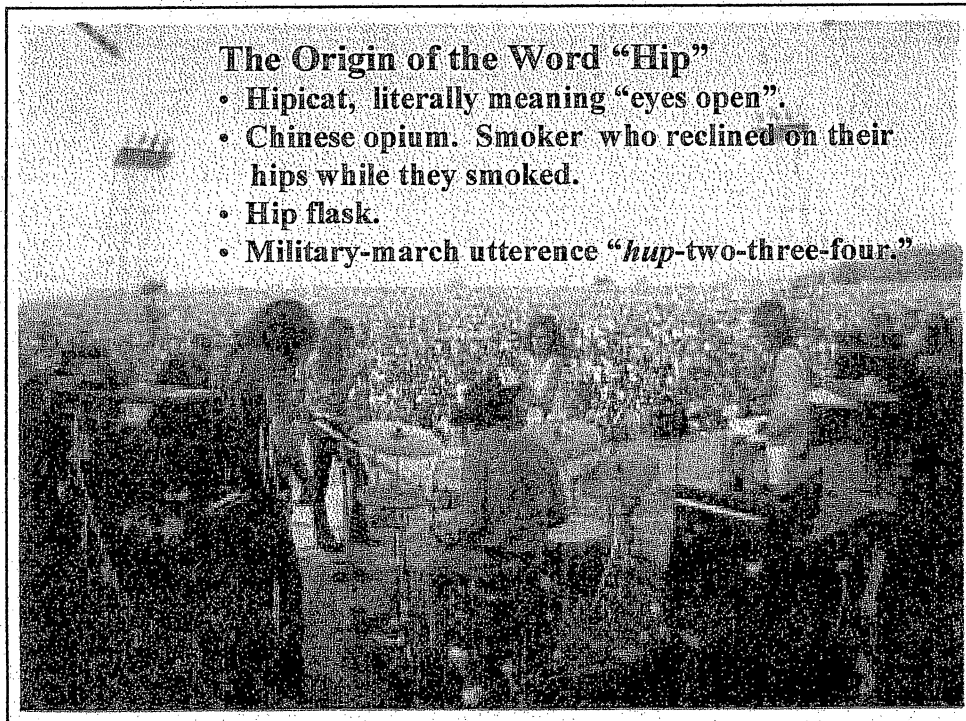
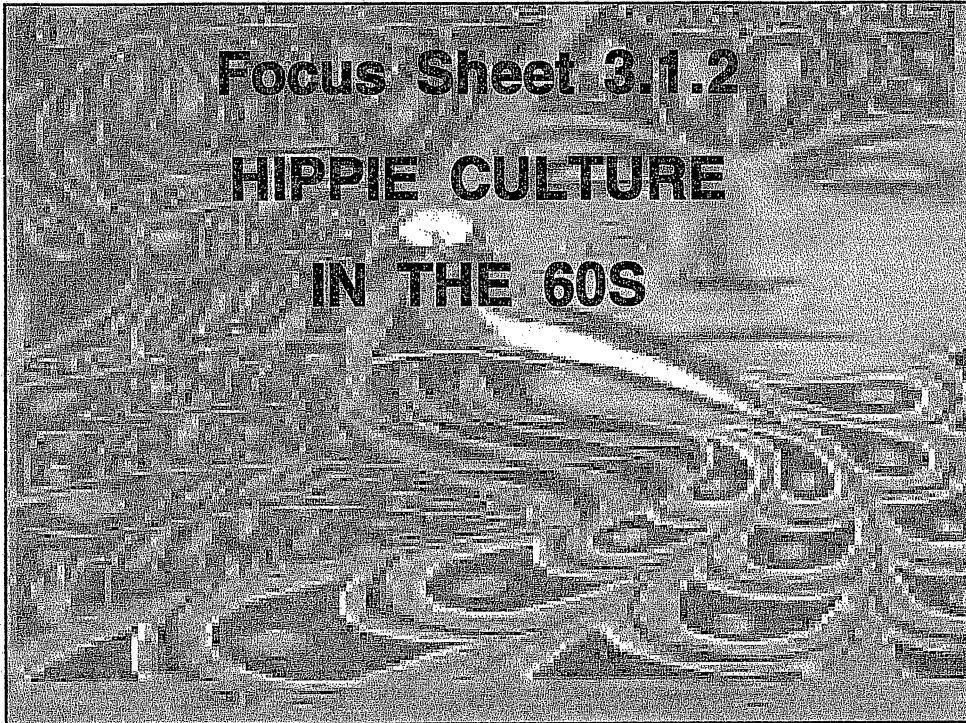
Characteristics of Hippie Culture

1. Nonconformity
2. Make love not war
3. Alternate lifestyle
4. Personal liberty instead of universal justice
5. Escape from reality
6. The drug, sex, and rock and roll
7. Bell bottoms shabby clothes, long hair, peace symbols and bandanas, Lava lamps and beads decorating the American landscape.

The dream for a better life of the hippies in the 60s was realized in a form of the Woodstock festival in 1969. There were drugs and sex but most of all there was rock and roll. However, the majority of average people rejected the concepts these youths presented. To the middle class of 1960s being different was being crazy. The ways of hippies scared the old generation. Months after the 'summer of love', most Americans held a negative view on their activities claiming them "seriously disturbed youngsters" or "privileged products of the American Dream." Even its leaders admitted that the movement had gone sour. The end of the war, and the gains of more stability in society led to the dwindling of the hippie movement, but there are still a lot of old hippies and a growing number of new young hippies with the ideals and hopes those who in 1960s had. Because the main goal of hippie was to change the structure of society, it is necessary to reconsider their contributions from all angles in light of America's history.

< References >

<http://www.narthist.ewu.edu/ar/berkeley/photos/cal.html>
<http://home.maine.rr.com/gilley/skillin/sixties.htm>
http://www.emporia.edu/academy/honorscd/student_projects/stingray/klein.htm
<http://www2.netdoor.com/~greenlee/oldhippie.htm>
<http://www2.netdoor.com/~greenlee/woodstock.htm>
<http://www.yahoo.com/bin/>
http://serendipity.notadz.com/pm_bio.html
<http://www.yahoo.com/entertainment/music/events/concerts/festivals/woodstock>

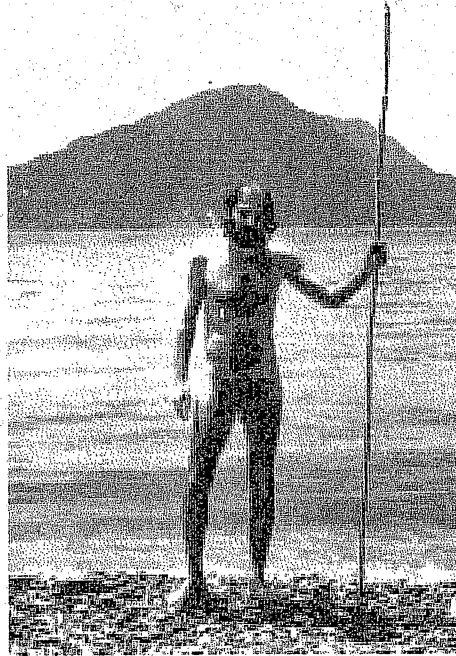


**“Howl”, a Poem by
Allen Ginsberg, October
1955**

Main topic:

**people’s desire of breaking
away society values.**

*“... saw the best minds of my
generation destroyed by
madness, starving hysterical
naked...”*



Background of Hippie Culture

1. Beat Generation

A phenomenon of the 50’s counterculture. The youth refused to conform and protested what they saw wrong with the world. Those who’d come of age during the Second World War were beat because they didn’t believe in straight jobs and had to struggle to survive.

Two meanings of the term ‘beat’:

- 1) disappointment**
- 2) secret holiness of the downtrodden**

2. Vietnam War

- 1) killed enormous young people and college students.
- 2) was considered unjust within the movement. The youth felt no respect for their nation. The feeling of helplessness, and alienation caused them to be involved in the *counterculture*.



3. Music

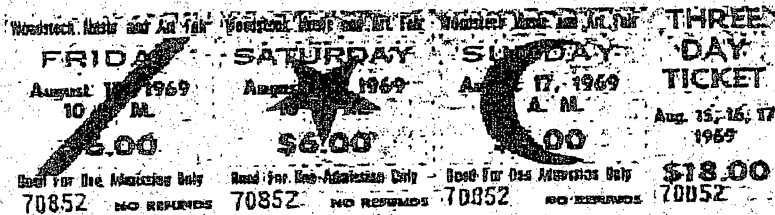


Against government and war.

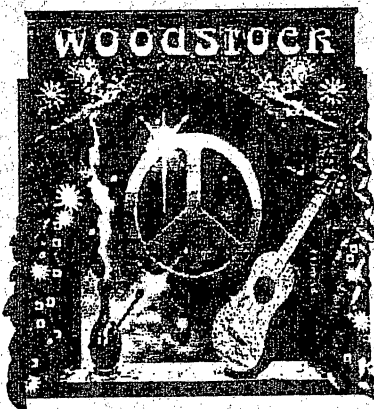
The root of 60's music comes from the folk music of musicians, such as Pete Seeger, Woody Guthrie, and Bob Dylan

Characteristics of Hippie

- 1) Make peace and love, not war
- 2) Alternate lifestyle
- 3) Non confirmity and non materialism
- 4) Marijuana, sex and rock and roll culture
- 5) Bell bottoms, tie-dyed shirts, flowers, long hair, peace symbols, bandanas, and lava lamps

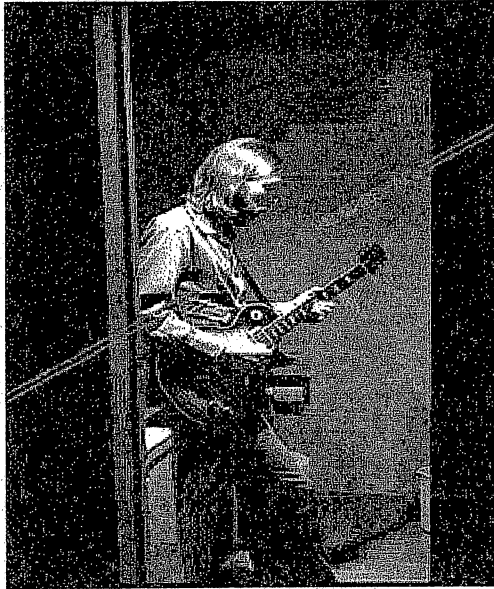


What is Woodstock?



- 20 In Bethel, New York, fifty miles away from Woodstock.
- 20 18600 tickets were sold.
- 20 An organized ad commercial culture.
- 20 Marijuana possessed by 90 % of flower children.
- 20 A minimum of force and restriction.
- 20 Music and community.
- 20 A gigantic size, having the same concerns.
- 20 Establishment of rock and roll and American pop culture.

Reflection of Hippie Culture



- The ways of hippie scared the old generation.
- ‘seriously disturbed youngsters’
- at the ends of the war, the hippie movement disappeared gradually, but there are still a lot of old hippies and a growing number of new young hippies with the ideals and hopes those who in the 1960s had.

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Self Assessment Sheet 3.1.1

Directions: Fill in the blanks.

1. The sixties were filled with confusion in America. One significant culture called "hippie" was influenced by the (B) (G).
2. This reminds of Ernest Hemingway's description, (L) (G).
3. The meaning of "beat" in 60s was (d).
4. The origin of the term "Hipster" is not clear. One of origins is a "hipicat," literally meaning 4) (e) (o).
5. There are two major factors in the growth of the hippie movement, (m) and the (V) (w).
6. This war killed so many young people and college students demonstrated on campus under the slogan of "anti-war" all over the country. (B) became the center of the movement.
7. It was the (H) that took the movement out of the coffee shops and on to the campuses around the country. Their ambition was to abolish any kind of hierarchy under the slogan of "Make Love Not War."
8. The dream for a better life of the hippies in the 60s was realized in a form of (W) festival in 1969.

Focus Sheet 3.1.3
Power Point Tutorial

(<http://library.stmarytx.edu/lac/advcomp/PPTutori.htm>)

1. Open new presentation: File -> New -> Choose a presentation design
2. Click on the Title Slide-> (first slide) click -> O.K.
3. Click on the Click to add title-> enter your title.
4. Click to add sub-title-> NEW CHARTS:
5. Insert -> New Slide. From AutoLayout choose Chart Slide, then -> O.K.
6. Double click on the chart icon (in slide).
7. A sample chart will appear. There are two views: datasheet view and chart view. You can switch back and forth between either view.
8. Delete sample data and add your data into the rows and columns of the chart. New data will be displayed in the chart immediately.
9. Select Chart Type from menu bar at top of screen or locate the Chart Type icon on the icon bar underneath the menu bar. Try the different chart types to see which displays your data best.
10. To change any part of the chart, first single click to select the item to be changed. Then right click to bring up formatting options such as Placement, Font, Data Labels, Patterns, 3-D View, Color etc.
11. Size and position of the graph may be changed by clicking and dragging one of the small squares that appear at the corners of the image.
12. After entering your data and formatting your chart, close the datasheet by clicking on the X on the top right of the icon. You can return to the datasheet by clicking View -> Datasheet from the menu bar at the top of the screen.

How to Use Excel Chart

1. In Power Point, from the menu bar choose Insert-> Chart, then Edit-> Import file then select the Excel worksheet you want to import.
2. From the Import Data Options box, select either Entire Worksheet or the Range of data you want to chart. Also check Overwrite existing cells box. Follow previous chart formatting steps above to change your chart.

Saving Movies or Sounds from the Internet

1. Open K:\Lac\movies where I have saved some movies for today. Be sure that file types says "all files." On the Internet go to either of these: <http://www.wavplace.com/sounds.htm> or http://www.uslink.net/~edgerton/tv_movie.html
2. Short Cut: When you find a movie or sound you want from the Internet, put cursor on object, Shift and Left Click, Save As box will come up. Type in filename.ext and choose correct drive or directory to save object in (Save on your disk)

Inserting Movies or Sounds into Power Point

1. Insert -> New Slide. From AutoLayout choose any slide, then -> O.K.
2. Click Slide Show -> Custom Animation ->Timing -> Select object (text box or picture) you want sound attached to. Click on Animate Effects, Sound or Animation (Browse to find correct sound or movie)
3. Preview -> OK
4. Insert -> New Slide (Choose the blank slide).
5. On menu bar select Slide Show -> Slide Transition.
6. Under Sound, click on the down arrow button and select Stop Previous Sound.
7. Click on Apply Insert -> Text Box, type in new text, click on box corner and drag to wherever you want your text to be.
8. Right click on the text box and go to Custom Animation.
9. Click on the Timing tab.
10. Click on the text box and click Animate.
11. Click on the Effects tab and choose your animation.
12. Click on O.K.
13. Save presentation on disk in A:\ drive or on Desktop for me to see.

Search Engines:

<http://altavista.digital.com/>
<http://www.dogpile.com/add2home.html>
<http://www.lycos.com/>
<http://guide.infoseek.com/>
<http://www.webcrawler.com/>
<http://www.yahoo.com/>
<http://www.mediasource.com/Links.html> (Journalism sites)

Picture Sites:

<http://www.desktopPublishing.com/cliplist.html>
<http://www.stockobjects.com/wav sounds:>
<http://www.getty.edu/digital/surfsup/index.html>
<http://www.wavplace.com/sounds.htm>
<http://www.dailywav.com/>
<http://galent.com/camelot/jukebox.htm>
<http://www.guitarsounds.com/albums/hcts.html>

Movie clips: .avi or .mov

http://www.uslink.net/~edgerton/tv_movie.html
<http://www.geocities.com/Hollywood/Set/1745/screen.htm>
<http://www.c-zone.net/rogue5/movies.htm>
<http://www.islandnet.com/~carleton/monster/monster.html>
<http://www.extratv.com/>

Focus Sheet 3.1.4
Guidelines for Making Three Slides

Directions: Use Power Point and make three slides about your topic.

1. The first slide

Why do you choose this topic?
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

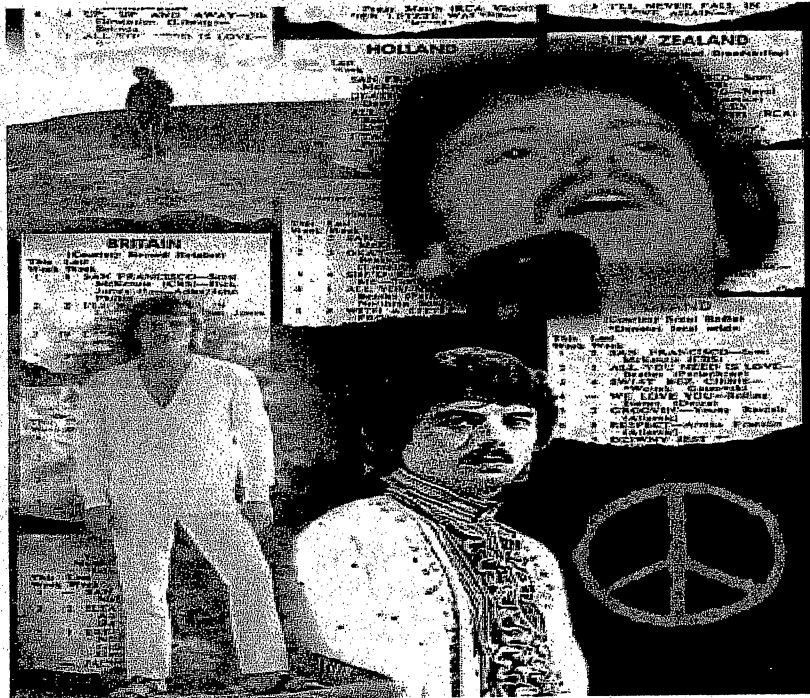
2. The second slide

Information of your topic
1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

3. The third slide

Main idea (in your own words)	Insert one picture
----------------------------------	--------------------------

Focus Sheet 3.2.1
 Scott McKenzie



Scott McKenzie had a huge hit in 1967 with the song "San Francisco" (Be Sure To Wear Flowers In Your Hair). In the late 50's, with buddy, John Phillips, Scott played on street corners in a Doo Wop Band called The Locals. John and Scott had met through their mothers who were friends.

John Phillips then formed a quartet, the Abstracts. This group had to harmonize with the likes of The Four Freshmen, The Four Lads and the Four Aces. Scott had curly blond hair, big blue eyes and a cuddly sheepish look that softened the group image. By the spring of 1959, Scott with his rich feathery tenor had become the lead singer. The Smoothies and the Journeymen had some success. John Phillips and Scott discussed forming the Mamas and Papas. They had been in several groups together but Scott no longer wanted to sing in a group. Strangely enough he wanted to be a jazz singer whilst John's influences were more rhythm and blues.

John Phillips wrote "San Francisco". A new song was wanted for the Monterey Pop Festival in 1967. Thousands of kids were streaming west and Scott suggested that John write something for them. About 20 minutes later the song was finished. Scott actually wore flowers in his hair when he recorded "San Francisco." People were even meditating in the studio.

"The flowers felt right because everyone we knew was trying to save the world peacefully with flowers as symbols - I guess they still are," said Scott. Scott had a follow up song. "Like An Old Time Movie" was a minor hit, however, these days he is known as a "one-hit wonder." On stage Scott says that if you are going to be a one-hit wonder, "San Francisco" is the song to do it with.

"San Francisco" became a freedom song all over the world and a hippie anthem in the USA. In the summer of 1967 thousands upon thousands of people moved from all over the States to California. It was a genuine mass popular movement in the middle of a year of hope. Many of Scott's friends were Vietnam veterans and San Francisco meant a lot to them. Scott has spoken with grown men who threw their arms around him to thank him for the song. "During the Cold War they had secret servicemen coming round to their homes if they listened to Western music so they adopted the song as a freedom anthem. It is very humbling," says Scott.

After his hit song and the subsequent album, The Voice of Scott McKenzie, he released an album called Stained Glass Morning for which he wrote all the songs. Surprisingly, Scott McKenzie dislikes the sound of his own voice. This is perhaps one of the reasons that he didn't continue a recording career.

Scott dropped out in the late 60's. He went to live in a desert for a while and he went around barefoot talking to cactus. Then he went to Virginia Beach, which he says at that time was full of psychics and weird people. He lived there for 10 years. In 1986, original Papa's Denny Doherty and John Phillips, with Mackenzie Phillips (John Phillips daughter) and Spanky McFarlane (ex Spanky and Our Gang) as female vocalists took a new version of the group onto the nostalgia circuit. Later, when Denny left the group, Scott joined John Phillips as the second Papa. However, when John left due to ill health, Denny returned and Scott took the role vacated by John Phillips.

In 1988 Scott co-wrote the Beach Boys hit "Kokomo" with former Papa, John Phillips. Scott McKenzie retired as a member of the Mamas and Papas at the end of 1998. Sadly, it seems that we will no longer hear Scott's beautiful voice singing the wonderful music of John Phillips. Scott lives in Los Angeles.

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 3.2.1
Categorizing Games

Directions: Classify the words in the box into the same category and give an appropriate title to the category.

a freedom song, blond hair, Voice of Scott McKenzie, big blue eyes, John Phillips, a hippie anthem, 1967, Stained Glass Morning, cuddly sheepish look, 20 minutes

→

Title		
1. _____	2. _____	3. _____

Group: _____

Work Sheet 3.2.2
Lyrics of "San Francisco"

Directions: Listen carefully and fill in the blanks.

If you're going to San Francisco
Be () to wear some flowers in your hair
If you're going to San Francisco
You're () meet some () people there
For () who come to San Francisco
() will be a ()-in there
In the streets of San Francisco
() people with flowers in their hair
All () the nation,
such a () vibration
People in motion
There's a whole generation,
with a new ()
People in motion, people in motion
For () who come to San Francisco
Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair
If you come to San Francisco
() will be a ()-in there
If you come to San Francisco
() will be a ()-in there

Focus Sheet 3.2.2

Lyrics of "San Francisco"

<http://users.wantree.com.au/~hartman/mckenzie.htm>

If you're going to San Francisco
Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair
If you're going to San Francisco
You're gonna meet some gentle people there
For those who come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there
In the streets of San Francisco
Gentle people with flowers in their hair
All across the nation,
such a strange vibration
People in motion
There's a whole generation,
with a new explanation
People in motion, people in motion
For those who come to San Francisco
Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair
If you come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there
If you come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there

Group: _____
Score (10 points): _____

Work Sheet 3.2.3
Vocabulary about Hippie Culture

Directions: Underline at least 5 word (s) whose background is (are) about Hippie culture and write a brief description, connecting with Hippie culture.

If you're going to San Francisco
Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair
If you're going to San Francisco
You're gonna meet some gentle people there
For those who come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there
In the streets of San Francisco
Gentle people with flowers in their hair
All across the nation,
such a strange vibration
People in motion
There's a whole generation,
with a new explanation
People in motion, people in motion
For those who come to San Francisco
Be sure to wear some flowers in your hair
If you come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there
If you come to San Francisco
Summertime will be a love-in there

1. The word _____ means _____.
2. The word _____ means _____.
3. The word _____ means _____.
4. The word _____ means _____.
5. The word _____ means _____.

Focus Sheet 3.3.1
Hippie Slang

far out	a. very unconventional, avant-garde, radical b. wonderful, excellent, beautiful
beat	a. escape from b. very tired c. be better than d. perplex
stoned	a. very intoxicated b. completely drunk c. under the influence of drugs, esp marijuana
score	a. achievement of having sex, sexual conquest b. successful robbery or theft c. successful illegal transaction
groovy	pleasing, attractive, excellent, esp because fashionable or modern
drop out	a. leave a conventional life-style b. remove (oneself) from conventional pursuits
uptight	a. tense, nervous, angry b. overly formal or concerned about conventions
tune-in	a. pay attention to b. heed
cool	a. fine b. socially valued, behaviorally desirable c. restrict d. a full...or at least...(a sum of money)
spaced-out	a. odd or eccentric b. not conscious of things around one, esp because of drugs
psychedelic	a. having intensely vivid colors, sounds, etc like those explained while hallucinating b. (of drug) that make the user hallucinate

Name: _____

Score (10 points): _____

Assessment Sheet 3.3.1

Directions: Fill in the blanks with the correct number below.

1. She was acting real _____. You could hardly talk to her.
That guy is really _____. He's in his own little world.
2. You don't have to smoke much of this grass to get _____.
He was lying in the gutter, _____ out of his mind.
3. I saw this really _____ movie about mental telepathy
between two reincarnated Roman soldiers.
4. What a _____ chick! I think I'm in love.
It's s _____ song from the sixties.
5. I just can't get my teenage son to _____ me ____.
6. He quit his job, left his wife, and joined a commune,
completely _____ped ____.
7. He thought she'd be an easy _____.
The gunman made a good _____ at the liquor store.
8. Those punks think it is _____ to smoke.
That's a real _____ truck he drives.
9. Don't be so _____, man. Everything's cool.
The teacher got real _____ when John talked back to him.
10. What a day! I'm _____.
It _____s me why Rosie said such a dumb thing.
He was guilty as well, but somehow he _____ the rap.

1	psychedelic	2	score	3	tune in
4	far out	5	groovy	6	uptight
7	cool	8	spaced-out	9	stoned
10	beat	11	drop out		

Focus Sheet 3.3.2
Persuasive Writing for/against Hippie

Directions:

1. The Hippie formed a subculture in the 1960s as a reaction against the conformist and materialist values of the mainstream U.S. culture. They appeared to live by a different set of value. What are your opinions for/against the hippies' cultural values?

Pros (reasons for Hippies)

Cons (reasons against Hippies)

2. Following the sequences below, write a persuasive essay.
(Support every reason with evidence, examples, or details.)

Introduction (Opinion): I think...

Reason 1

Reason 2

Reason 3

Conclusion

Source: Web page: David_Leahy@beavton.k12.or.us

Focus Sheet 3.3.3
Writing about the 60s of My Country

Directions: Write the characteristics of the culture in 60s of your country and list a few main events that influenced the cultural formation.

1. Beginning (Introduction)
2. Middle
 - Characteristics of the culture in 60s of your country: one paragraph
 - List of a few main events: one paragraph
3. End (Conclusion)

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