Language Learning Theories and Cooperative Learning Techniques in the EFL Classroom

Matthew T. APPLE

Abstract

Group work in the educational context generally involves a small number of students working together to achieve a task. However, not all group work provides equal opportunities for learning for all members of the group. Cooperative learning techniques allow instructors to more effectively structure and implement group work in their classrooms. This paper first discusses prevailing cognitive and social-cultural theories of second language acquisition, then argues that cooperative learning as a teaching methodology not only adequately addresses the theories, but can be a powerful tool for language instructors in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts where few native speakers of English are available as a resource for students. Finally, the paper gives several examples of cooperative learning techniques and tasks that used the techniques.

Introduction

Though cooperative learning (CL) as a term has been used only recently to denote an educational teaching methodology, the techniques of what is

now called cooperative learning have been used in classrooms and have been researched extensively for thirty years or more. In his well-known book about cooperative learning, Slavin (1995) listed over 90 experimental studies about cooperative learning. He concluded that the reason cooperative learning succeeds as an educational methodology is its use of convergent tasks: Group goals based on the individual responsibility of all group members leads to increased learning achievement, regardless of subject or proficiency level of students involved (see Figure 1). For educational instructors, the most important result of the voluminous research into CL is that

> …it is possible to create conditions leading to positive achievement outcomes by directly teaching students structured methods of working together with each other (especially in pairs) or teaching them learning strategies closely related to the instructional objectives (especially for reading comprehension skills). (Slavin, 1995, p. 45)

Figure 1. Factors influencing learning gains

(Based on Slavin, 1995, p. 45)
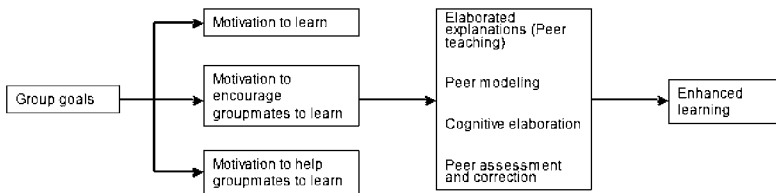
For English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructors, a main concern of using CL techniques is whether the techniques will work with students of varying language proficiencies in large class sizes. To examine the usefulness and practicality of CL techniques in the EFL classroom, this paper will first discuss the underlying principles of cooperative learning in

educational contexts in general. Then, some of the main language learning theories, both cognitive and social-cultural, will be outlined and CL as a philosophy will be located within a theoretical framework. Finally, basic patterns and tasks using CL techniques in the EFL classroom will be presented and discussed.

Basic Principles of Cooperative Learning

According to Deci and Ryan (1985), all human beings have three basic needs: relatedness, competence, and autonomy. Cooperative learning principles stem from this primarily psychological standpoint: Because all students are humans, teachers can use cooperative learning teaching methodologies to help students satisfy the three needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy in the classroom. Teachers who do so will be able to create a more effective environment for learning and thus can help students reach their learning potential. The eight basic principles of collaborative learning in the classroom (Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002) are:

1 Cooperation as a value

2 Heterogeneous grouping

3 Positive interdependence

4 Individual accountability

5 Simultaneous interaction

6 Equal participation

7 Collaborative skills

8 Group autonomy

The first of these principles ("Cooperation as a value") is fairly self-explanatory: Cooperation is highly valued in the workplace, the community, and society in general, and thus is a value teachers should aim to instill in their students. The second principle of "Heterogeneous grouping" derives from the basic idea that situations in which individuals are different in skill level, interest, motivation, experience, and family background lead to more

learning opportunities during cooperative activities. Simply put, if a student of English has the same overall language ability, background, and interests as his or her classmates, learning is far less likely to occur than if the students have different abilities and do not share an identical worldview.

"Positive interdependence" and "Individual accountability" are related principles. Students who work together effectively will find that they need each other to complete the assignments or tasks in class; however, if one or more members of the group does not do as much as other members—a common group phenomenon known as "social loafing"—the group harmony may suffer a serious breakdown, inhibiting learning and spreading dissent and negative feelings. Good cooperative learning techniques ensure that each member of the group is responsible for a certain amount of work, while at the same time encouraging a group sense of "all for one, one for all."

Other principles such as "simultaneous interaction" and "equal participation" are similarly related to the concept of individual accountability. Each member in the group must equally participate, regardless of perceived ability or social status. A group leader should not be allowed to create a mini-monarchy or dictatorship within the group; "collaborative skills" cannot be gained if only one or two members of a group are in charge or are doing most of the work. Finally, groups need to have a certain degree of autonomy ("group autonomy") within the overall classroom environment.

CL activities that follow these eight principles will promote learner autonomy and personal responsibility for language learning by allowing individual learner choices and decisions during the learning process. In fact, this emphasis on the learning process rather than the product alone is the hallmark of CL language learning. By encouraging a sense of learner autonomy, CL also increases learner motivation and promotes harmonious group dynamics, lowering classroom anxiety and facilitating interaction in the classroom as well as an individual sense of self-competence and self-

worth (Ushioda, 2003).

Theories of Language and Cooperative Learning

Cognitive SLA theories

Several theories of language learning inform cooperative learning techniques. One of the earliest language theories in second language acquisition (SLA) is the concept of interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage is described as the learner's perception or approximation of the target language; in fact, some researchers argue that second language learners may never completely reach the target language and remain perpetually in the interlanguage stage. However, increased exposure to input from the target language can help students revise their approximations of the language and modify their interlanguage to a more target-like language state. Through constant modification and adjustments to interlanguage, students can eventually reach a near-native language state, in which the interlanguage is virtually the same as that of a native speaker of the second language (L2). This achievement of near-native interlanguage is seen as a primary goal of L2 education by many cognitive SLA theorists.

A great deal of mainstream cognitive SLA research has tried to discover ways in which students can modify their interlanguage. Since the SLA field first started, a seemingly endless series of theories have been proposed to explain how second language learners can become proficient. Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (1982), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1983), Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985), and Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990) are the most well known theories of cognitive second language acquisition (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Among these, Krashen's Input Hypothesis has attracted the most interest, as well as the most detractors. Krashen (1985) theorized that all human beings have direct access to Universal Grammar, to which Chomsky (1965) argued all native children but no adults can access. Krashen contended that even adults have

full access to UG; however, various affective factors such as motivation and anxiety prevent adults from absorbing comprehensible input in the second language. When input is just a little higher than the learner's current language proficiency level and is available in a sufficient amount, language learning will happen automatically. This concept was famously represented by the expression $i+1$, with "i" meaning the learner's current level of comprehension and the plus one representing the newly comprehended and acquired input. According to Krashen, because of the learner's access to UG, grammar will be acquired naturally. Speaking will also be acquired in the process of a natural growth in competence and confidence from understanding the target language. Krashen's theories on second language teaching were popularized in his book, *The natural approach* (Krashen, 1985) and reached their apex in language teaching during the mid-1980s.

However, there are many problems with Krashen's "i+1" hypothesis. First, Krashen never provided any solid evidence that the Input Hypothesis works. Despite the plethora of papers he co-authored concerning reading and language acquisition, Krashen himself has never addressed reasons why only a small number of adults have mastered a second language compared to the relatively large number of children who have. Second, many teachers and learners alike instinctively grasp what cognitive psychologists have discovered in almost literally thousands of studies: Practice is the only sure way to develop productive, fluent abilities in any human activity, language or otherwise. Merely watching a tennis match repeatedly will not make one a good tennis player; likewise, merely listening or reading English will not make one a good speaker or writer of English. Krashen has repeatedly denied that language output or production has any place in language learning (for a more in-depth analysis of the role of output in language learning, see Izumi, 2003). Finally, Krashen has not explained how input is made comprehensible by second language learners. Since presumably all learners (unless starting from no knowledge of the target language) have

different levels of comprehension, it stands to reason that the input available to them occurs at different levels of comprehensibility. Krashen has so far provided no explanation for how "i+1" works.

In an attempt to explain how native speakers can modify input in order to make it comprehensible for non-native speakers, Long (1983) proposed his Interaction Hypothesis. Since the proposal of this hypothesis, enormous efforts have been spent researching how non-native speakers of a second language "repair" breakdowns in communication with native speakers. This conversational repair is called "negotiation of meaning," (Long, 1985; Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987), which is further described by the speakers' use of repetition, confirmation checks ("I do this?"), comprehension checks ("So, this means…?"), and clarification requests ("Does this mean…?").

Social-cultural theories (SCT)

While cognitive theories of second language acquisition focus on the individual learner's internal cognitive processing of input, social-cultural theories place the individual within the larger social or communal context. Social-cultural theories (SCT) in educational practice stem largely from the writings of Soviet-Era psychologist Lev Vygotsky, who theorized that all learning takes place as a result of social interaction, giving rise to the concept of "social constructivism." One of Vygotsky's most famous concepts is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is the limit to which someone can learn new information with the assistance of someone else. Who this "someone else" is could be an expert such as a teacher or a fellow learner at the same level or slightly higher level of competence than the learner. This more competent peer acts as a mediator between the student and the knowledge the student is trying to understand and assists the learner in reaching goals not attainable by the learner alone. Thus, the ZPD "defines those functions that have not yet matured but are in the process of maturation, functions that will mature tomorrow but are currently in an

embryonic state" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

ZPD characterizes the student as someone who has two levels of learning potential: one potential that is reachable alone (the "intramental plane"), and one that is only reachable with the assistance of others (the "intermental plane"). Through the sharing or "scaffolding" of knowledge from fellow classmates, rather than the rote copying and regurgitating of knowledge, students can reach their ZPD potential for learning. This use of "collaborative dialogue" places more emphasis on the process of learning, rather than seeing the product as a means in itself. Students can learn how to become "engaged in problem-solving and knowledge building," (Swain, 2002, p. 102), which in turn will allow them to teach each other (for a recent discussion of Vygotsky's ideas and SLA, see Lantolf, 2006).

Recently, the attention of language teachers has been drawn to the work of one of Vygotsky's colleagues, Leontiev, whose idea of Activity Theory distinguishes a "task," seen as a "blueprint" with a specific goal, from an "activity." Because individuals will naturally interpret tasks subjectively, they may have individual goals which do not match those of their mediators (peers or experts); thus, an activity is regarded as a complex interaction of individual learner motives, the educational context, the process of interaction, and the outcomes (Ushioda, 2004). By challenging the concept of task as a "unitary fixed concept," Activity Theory also "provides for an interpretative framework where learner perspective in regard to motive can more finely analyzed in relation to processes and outcomes" (Parks, 2000, p. 66). For the language instructor, this means that the goals of students need to be carefully considered when designing classroom tasks: Students may focus on the social meaning embodied in the task in an attempt to find connections with their previous knowledge and experiences, whereas the instructor may focus on the language forms and specific vocabulary items for examination purposes. Activity Theory suggests that activities that address both learner and instructor viewpoints will be most effective.

Comparing SLA and SCT

The two main approaches to second language teaching—cognitive-based language acquisition and socially-culturally mediated language use—have been characterized using two metaphors known as the "acquisition metaphor" and the "participation metaphor." In the acquisition metaphor, learners memorize and internalize "chunks" of L2 through comprehensible input, comparing knowledge to a substance which can be received by the learner and the mind to a "repository where the learner hoards the community" of L2 forms and words; in the participation metaphor, learners actively engage L2 users as a part of a process to become a member of a language community in "a struggle of concrete socially constituted and always situated beings to participate in the symbolically mediated lifeworld of another culture" (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000, p. 155). The cognitive term $i+1$ has been likened to ZPD; however, whereas the input hypothesis is concerned with the language itself, ZPD's primary concern is the individuals and their social negotiation. In addition, according to SCT, comprehensible input alone is not effective; the input must necessarily become mediated input shaped by L2 peers or experts in the target community for the language to have any meaning.
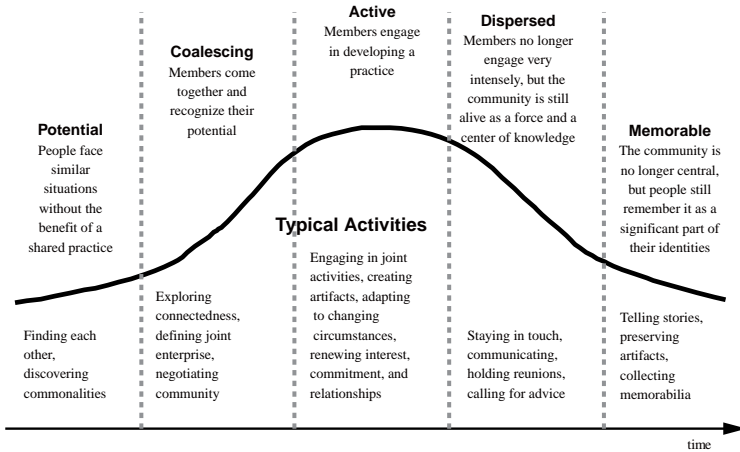
Since according to SCT language use is more important than language acquisition, the activity itself in L2 learning is more important than the language forms. According to Activity Theory, even if the teacher-created task has comprehensible input, if the learners interpret the activity's goal in a different way there is no meaning to the actual language form being used. This is crucial, since the goal of L2 teaching (as seen by socioculturalists) is not the acquisition of language features, but rather communication and a new understanding of the self as represented in the foreign language. This self is socially constructed through participation in the language community, meaning that language itself should not be viewed solely as a

set of rules and patterns to be memorized and then regurgitated, but as a means of communication between individuals.

Key to understanding the socio-cultural theoretical perspective of language learning are the notion of discourse community and the concept of legitimized peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Morita, 2004). In this perspective, learning is seen as occurring not within the mind of the individual, but as a result of social interaction with members of the community. This community could be as small as one's immediate family, or it could extend to include an entire academic community such as a university, or it could even include one's own hometown, city, prefecture, region, or country.

For language learners, the most pertinent and immediately available community is the language classroom community. However, if students continue to view their second language as an subject to be learned, rather than a means of communication or personal expression, they cannot become "legitimized" members of the second language community. Students who fail to interact with other members of the discourse community remain outside the language community, and therefore fail to learn the language. A style of education which maintains a distance from what is being learned, "tends to keep students on the peripheral too long and fossilizes their identities as non-users of what they study" (Murphey & Asaoka, 2006, p. 4). What is instead needed for language learning is to enable students to become full members of the language classroom community by encouraging supportive and mutually-beneficial social interactions, thus allowing students to traverse the stages of becoming a legitimized member of the language learning community (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. Stages of Development in a Community of Practice (Wenger, 1998)

Active
Members engage
in developing a
practice

Coalescing
Members come
together and
recognize their
potential

Dispersed
Members no longer
engage very
intensely, but the
community is still
alive as a force and a
center of knowledge

Potential
People face
similar
situations
without the
benefit of a
shared practice

Memorable
The community is
no longer central,
but people still
remember it as a
significant part of
their identities

Typical Activities

Finding each
other,
discovering
commonalities

Exploring
connectedness,
defining joint
enterprise,
negotiating
community

Engaging in joint
activities, creating
artifacts, adapting
to changing
circumstances,
renewing interest,
commitment, and
relationships

Staying in touch,
communicating,
holding reunions,
calling for advice

Telling stories,
preserving
artifacts,
collecting
memorabilia

time

The place of cooperative learning within the theories

SLA theories, whether cognitive or social-cultural, assume access to a large population of native L2 speakers, because SLA theorists assume the language learner lives and studies in a country in which the target language is used. Students in an EFL context such as a Japanese university do not have a large amount of input from their second language; they are surrounded by Japanese language, not English, in their daily lives, and often receive second language input from their EFL instructor only once or twice per week for 90 minutes at a time. Even then, it is debatable whether all 90 minutes of class time provide comprehensible input in English to all students, particularly those in large classrooms without opportunities for negotiation of meaning through one-on-one conversational checks and confirmations with "native" L2 speakers.

With this in mind, cooperative learning techniques are designed to increase the amount of comprehensible input as well as to encourage

motivation and self-confidence through social interaction between non-native speaker peers. Encouraging a greater sense of community within the language classroom can only occur through increased interaction between students—learning communities need to "engage in joint activitie and discussions, help each other, and share information" (Wenger, 2006). This change in student-student relations also necessitates a gradual change in the role of the teacher in the classroom, from the "autocratic model" to the "democratic model" (Dornyei & Murphey, 2003). Though many students and teachers alike may feel more comfortable with a teacher-centered style of learning, ultimately the goal of learning is for the student no longer to need the teacher—or even to become the teacher. An intermediate step towards learner self-regulation and self-reliance in the language classroom is the increased use of cooperative learning techniques, starting with simple pairs and building up to small groups then large groups. Students can learn how to effectively teach each other, along the way becoming more capable of clarifying their own knowledge by verbally communicating and monitoring their language use. As the axiom says, "Those who teach learn twice" (Murphey & Jacobs, 2000; Murphey, 2001b).

Dornyei (1997) has further argued that although classrooms in which the teacher largely controlled the learning may result in short-term learning gains, cooperative classrooms in which positive interdependence was a key factor consistently result in more learner achievement over a longer period of time. In order to encourage intrinsic motivation and learner autonomy, "we may conclude that from a motivational point of view CL is undoubtedly one of the most efficient instructional methods" (Dornyei, 1997, p. 490). However, Dornyei also repeated the warning by Johnson and Johnson (1995), that cooperative skills do not appear "magically" when students are placed into groups; teachers must act as a guide by providing a structure for task goals, rewards, student roles, materials, and rules for group behavior.

Good, well-planned CL activities require each individual within a group to have specific roles and responsibilities during the group effort, ensuring a high level of cooperation and achievement by all members in the class. The following section will explain some basic patterns of CL activities, including graphical representation of how these techniques can be carried out in the language classroom.

Examples of CL Activities

The basic pattern

The basic pattern of CL activities (see Figure 3) starts with a group of four learners sitting in a square-shape formation. The person sitting next to the learner is his or her shoulder partner, while the learners seated directly behind or in front of him or her are face partners. This pattern is ideal for classrooms with large numbers of learners, as well as for rooms with seating arrangements or spaces that may restrict movement around the classroom.

Figure 3. The basic CL pattern
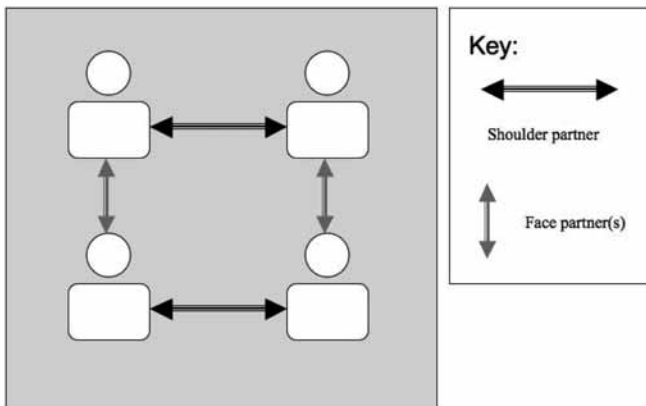
Write-pair-switch

Three basic techniques of CL that use the basic four-person group pattern

include "Write-pair-switch," "Heads Together," and "Traveling Heads Together" (Kagan, 1994). For the "Write-pair-switch" technique, each learner begins the CL activity by working alone at his or her seat. This first step often asks the learner to write answers to specific questions. The second step, "pair," involves each learner sharing answers with the shoulder partner, the person sitting next to him or her. In the final step, "switch," learners change partners and talk to their face partners seated in front of or behind them. During this step, the learners summarize in their own words what they learned from their shoulder partner. An alternative to doing the "write" portion of the technique within class time is to assign homework to be done alone outside class; the following class time can begin immediately with the "pair" part, as students compare answers from their homework.

Numbered Heads Together-Traveling Heads

Numbered Heads Together (Kagan, 1994) expands on the basic four-person group pattern. First, the instructor puts learners into groups of four to work on a task, and then gives each student a number. After working on a task together, the instructor calls out a number (for example, "2"). Each student with that number must stand up and give a brief report of his or her group's work to the whole class. Traveling Heads is a variation of Numbered Heads Together, which uses the same numbering system but instead asks the students who stand up to move to a different group. After the students move, they then present their previous group's report to the new group rather than to the class as a whole. This technique has the advantages of involving more students actively participating in the report while at the same time lowering the risk of anxiety brought about by making a potentially face-losing oral report in front of the entire class.

Jigsaw

Another version of Traveling Heads Together called "Jigsaw" involves

all students of each group making new groups (Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002, p. 32). As in the Numbered Heads Together, the instructor gives students numbers within their respective "home team" groups (see Figure 4). In the home group, each student works on a different question or aspect of the task. After a certain time period, the learners will make new groups with those who have the same number. Learners with the number 1 will make a new "expert" or "ad hoc" group of four with other "number 1" learners, and so on (Shimo & Apple, 2006). For classes with larger numbers of learners, the instructors may need to make two or three "expert" groups per number, to ensure that learners maintain the four-person group pattern.

After comparing answers to the same items with members of their "expert" group, students return to their "home team" groups and relay the information they learned to the original group members. This technique is an effective way for learners to share information and to work on convergent tasks that require learners to work towards the same answer.

Figure 4. The "Jigsaw" technique

(Based on Jacobs, Power, & Loh, 2002, pp. 34-35)
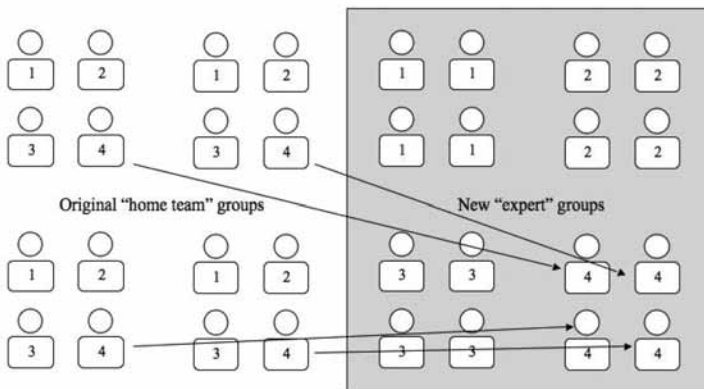
Carousel

Carousel (or "Merry-go-round"—a reference to the spinning wheel of wooden or plastic horses often seen at carnivals and amusement parks) can be used with group presentations such as posters. Each group creates a poster and attaches it to a wall of the classroom. Other groups take turns walking around the room, looking at their classmates' posters and assessing them (Nicoll, in press). There are many variations of Carousel, including different ways that groups make presentations (oral, written, video-recorded, on paper or on computer) and alternate ways for commenting or assessing (simple notes, lengthy summaries, special forms for assessment, etc.).

Roles

CL activities also ensure that each learner within the group has a specific role, and that if each learner does not fulfill his or her role, the group effort fails to meet its overall objective. There are many potential roles, but the most common include:

- Facilitator—a person responsible for ensuring that the group stays on task
- Recorder—a person responsible for writing down group answers and decisions
- Summarizer—a person responsible for summarizing the group answers
- Reporter—a person responsible for conveying the group's ideas to another group
- Time-keeper—a person responsible for checking the time left to finish the task

Other roles are possible, depending on the nature of the task and the time necessary to complete it. When first employing CL roles in the classroom, instructors may choose to appoint roles to students; however, students can

become more motivated if they are allowed to choose their role within the group. Instructors should make sure, however, that the same student does not always choose the same role each time roles are assigned. One rule instructors might consider is that students must all take different roles each time a task is performed, until they have done all roles possible.

Tasks using CL techniques

There are many kinds of tasks with which instructors can utilize the patterns and techniques of cooperative learning in the language classroom, starting with simply checking the previous class's homework assignment. Collaborative Shadowing is a task method for improving speaking and listening ability that utilizes the CL "Write-pair-switch" technique (Appendix 1). While one learner reads aloud something that he or she has written, his or her shoulder partner repeats, or shadows, as closely and as quickly as possible. In other words, rather than waiting until the end of the sentence heard, the shoulder partner should repeat nearly at the same time. This style is called "complete shadowing." In another style, "mention shadowing," the partner only shadows the final two or three words or the most important words of each sentence. When the initial shoulder partner shadowing is finished, the shoulder partner turns to his or her face partners and summarizes what he or she heard from the first partner. If necessary, the summarizer may ask questions to the first partner about what he or she had read aloud. The face partner can also shadow the summary.

This simple activity can often lead to confusion initially, as the task demands high cognitive processing and a heavy memory load on the part of the partner doing the shadowing. However, Cooperative Shadowing can increase learner cooperation and communication in the target language, while also allowing learners to scaffold off their peers' knowledge of target forms (for more about shadowing, see Deacon & Murphey, 2001; Murphey, 2001a; Shimo, 2005).

An example of a longer task using cooperative learning techniques is the Tourist Skit. The instructor assigns (or lets students choose) groups of four to research and present information about a specific city or country. During the presentations, students will take turns presenting in "carousel" fashion (for a more detailed description, please refer to Appendix 2). Semester-long tasks such as the tourist skit can encourage students to become more autonomous, learn library and research skills, and combine writing and speaking (output), reading and listening (input), and presentation skills. Such tasks can be done as an alternative assessment to final exams, or as a supplement or complement to exams and other in-class activities.

Potential Problems with CL and Some Solutions

No methodology is without drawbacks, and for EFL instructors in Japan, the preponderance of large classes is the most obvious obstacle. Although class sizes of up to and over 100 do not preclude the use of cooperative learning activities—Nicoll, in press, is a good example of using the "carousel" technique in a lecture class of 120 students—there are additional considerations for the language teacher in such situations. Jacobs et al. (2002, p. 139) sum up the problems associated with large classes as primarily consisting of excessive noise, the existence of a teacher-fronted mind set or belief by both instructor and student, less individual supervision possible by the instructor, and overall classroom organization difficulties. Their suggested solutions include the following:

- Establish guidelines early in the semester to reduce student anxiety
- Allow more group autonomy in making task decisions
- Prepare more and make clear instructions to reduce confusion
- Help students develop collaborative skills in pairs so they can monitor each other more effectively
- Use base (home) groups to help with classroom management such as homework checking, catching up absent students, and attendance

• Let students know that their peers can provide useful feedback, in addition to that of the teacher

As to whether CL activities can help in second language classrooms, Jacobs et al. (2002, p. 136) suggest that CL not only can build confidence and motivate language students, but it is also particularly effective when students of different language proficiencies are in the same group. Students can be assigned different roles according to their proficiencies; when they feel more comfortable using the target language, then students can take on more challenging roles.

EFL instructors can also provide more language support for students to use in combination with CL techniques in group work. For example, instructors can teach set phrases used for group work in order to build vocabulary; provide pre-task activities such as model dialogs for group discussion, vocabulary or essay reading for homework, and written text to supplement listening activities; or hand out "Permission Tickets" to allow a certain number of uses of the students' native language during the group work, if students find it difficult to perform the task entirely in their L2.

Other advantages of CL activities include:

• During group time, students can practice the phrases they will use for whole class reports
• Assigning roles can allow one student to take on the role of "Language Monitor" to encourage L2 usage during the group work
• Activities such as "Write-Pair-Switch" give students more time to think and prepare before speaking in their L2 in front of other group members or the whole class

Conclusion

Cooperative learning techniques allow EFL learners to actively participate in the language classroom, working together to achieve learning potentials not reachable by merely studying alone. More than just being a

way of learning language vocabulary and forms for future exam use, classroom activities allow learners to use their different understandings of how the world operates, leading to stronger personal ties between group members, more well-defined individual identities, and a greater sense of membership in the learning community. CL can help students feel less isolated as learners and form a more effective "classroom culture" in which collaboration towards a common emergent goal plays a significant role in their emotional and linguistic development as a legitimized member of a social learning community (Murphey & Asaoka, 2006). More than simply a methodology for language teaching, CL is a methodology of encouraging students to continue the cooperative learning process well beyond the classroom and school context into the greater society around them.

References

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Deacon, B., & Murphey, T. (2001). Deep impact storytelling. *English Teaching Forum, 39*(4), 10-15, 23.

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

Dornyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics in the language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determinism in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Izumi, S. (2003). Comprehension and production processes in second language learning: In search of the psycholinguistic rationale of the output hypothesis. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(2), 168-196.

Jacobs, G., Power, M., & Loh, W. (2002). *The teacher's sourcebook for cooperative learning*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1986). Computer-assisted cooperative learning. *Educational Technology, 26*, 12-18.

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1995). Cooperative learning and non-academic

outcomes of schooling: The other side of the report card. In J.E. Pedersen & A.D. Digby (Eds.), *Secondary schools and cooperative learning* (pp. 3-54). New York: Garland. Cited in Dornyei, Z., & Murphey, T. (2003). *Group dynamics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative learning*. San Clemente, CA: Kagan Publications.

Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis*. New York: Longman.

Lantolf, J. (2006). Sociocultural theory and L2. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 28*, 67-109.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Cited in Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 573-603.

Long, M. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories (2nd ed.)*. London: Arnold.

Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 573-603.

Murphey, T. (2001a). Exploring conversational shadowing. *Language Teaching Research, 5*(2), 128-155.

Murphey, T. (2001b). Tools of recursion, intermental zones of proximal development, and critical collaborative autonomy. *JALT Journal, 23,* 130-150.

Murphey, T., & Asaoka, C. (2006). Creating cultures of intensive collaboration. In M. Apple & E. Shimo (Eds.), *Working together: Making a difference in language education* (pp. 2-12). Miyazaki, Japan: Japan Association for Language Teaching.

Murphey, T., & Jacobs, G. (2000). Encouraging critical collaborative autonomy. *JALT Journal, 22*, 228-244.

Nicoll, H. (in press). Seeking autonomy in a lecture course. In A. Barfield & S. H. Brown (Eds.), *Reconstructing autonomy in language education: Inquiry and innovation*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Parks, S. (2000). Same task, different activities: Issues of investment, identity, and use of strategy. *TESL Canada Journal, 17*(2), 64-88.

Pavlenko, A. & Lantolf, J. (2000). Second language learning as the participation and the (re)construction of selves. In. J. Lantolf. (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp.155-177). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on

comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 737-758.

Shimo, E. (2005). The effective use of collaborative shadowing activities in second language classrooms. *Bulletin of Miyazaki Municipal University, 10*, 89-100.

Shimo, E., & Apple, M. (2006, August). Using cooperative learning techniques in the language classroom. Workshop held at the 2006 Asia TEFL Conference, Seinan Gakuin University, Fukuoka, Japan.

Slavin, R. (1995). *Cooperative learning (2nd ed.)*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ushioda, E. (2003). Motivation as a socially mediated process. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Teacher, learner, curriculum, and assessment* (pp. 90-102). Dublin: Authentik.

Ushioda, E. (2004, June). Motivation, autonomy, and sociocultural theory. Paper presented at the Autonomy and Language Learning: Maintaining Control Conference, Hangzhou, China.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wenger, E. (June, 1998). Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *Systems Thinker, 9*(5). [online]

Wenger, E. (2006). Communities of practice: An introduction. Retrieved October 29, 2006 from http://www.ewenger.com/tech.

Appendix 1. Collaborative shadowing (adapted from Shimo & Apple, 2006)

1) Students form pairs and one (Student A) reads his or her essay aloud in a pair, while the other (Student B) shadows in his or her mind, taking notes.
2) Student B make an oral summary of Student A's essay. Student B can make use of his notes. While listening to Student B's summary, Student A shadows Student B.
3) Students repeat the procedures 1) and 2) with a new partner.
4) Students form new pairs again. Before starting sharing each other's essay for this third round, students make a list of main points of their essays.
5) Students share each other's story without looking at their essay but by looking at their notes, the list of main points.

Appendix 2. Tourist Information Skit (adapted from Shimo & Apple, 2006)

1) The teacher writes the names of certain number of cities from the students' native country on the blackboard. The number of place names should be at least two more than the number of groups. Each group decides which place to research (or the teacher can choose if time is an issue).

2) Each group must have four roles. Students may choose to research

   » Transportation
   » Hotels
   » Restaurants
   » Attractions

• Teachers should give students some examples of things they can research. This can simply consist of a list:

   » Maps
   » Photographs
   » Cost (in Japanese yen)
   » Telephone numbers to call
   » Mailing addresses
   » E-mail addresses
   » Time of operation (open and close)
   » History (dates)
   » Famous people (names, years)
   » Directions (how to get to places)

• Teachers should also give guidelines about the required number of pages and/or use of graphic elements such as photographs etc. For example, teachers may say:

   - "Please write at least 4 PAGES (B5 size)."
   - "If you want to, you can use a B4 paper, folded in half. You can also use B5 and staple the pages together."
   - "Each person must have at least 1 photo. You can print photographs from the internet and copy them onto your text."
   - "Don't forget subway and train maps!"
   - "Be prepared to speak for at least 2 minutes per person!"

3) Give students a specific date to hand in their first draft for correction and suggestion.

4) Give students enough time to correct their brochure if necessary

   • Teachers may also want to specify certain phrases or vocabulary that students should use.

   • At this time, teachers should prepare evaluation sheets for students: Teachers will

evaluate the presentation groups, and each students should write their own evaluation as well as encouraging comments to their classmates

5) On presentation day in class, divide the groups into two; half the class will pretend to be tourist officials and half the class will pretend to be tourists

6) If possible, arrange desks and chairs to form "tourist offices."

• The group in the "tourist office" will explain each aspect of their research.

• One group not presenting will pretend to be tourists (teachers can choose either to keep groups intact or to let students decide where to sit).

• Members of the "tourist" groups will each ask one question about the tourist brochure.

• Members of the tourist groups will write one or two brief comments and give the comments to the tourist office group

7) After the first presentations are finished, the teacher has two options:

• Each "tourist office" group and "tourist" group simply switch places

• The "tourist office" groups remain the same and the "tourist" groups stand up and go to another "tourist office" group. This can be repeated as many times as desired.

8) Presentations should take the entire class time. Each group should have a chance to present their tourist brochure at least once. At the end of the class, take a vote as a class to find out which tourist office group was the most convincing: Which town or city do students most want to visit? Note that this activity can also be done with other cities from other countries.

9) Teachers need to be on guard against plagiarism. Students should be encouraged to write and speak in their own words.

EFL

EFL