Cooperative Learning and Learners’ Opportunities to Participate in English Foreign Language Classes

the Case of Second Year Pupils at Soumani Mehmoud Secondary School-Kherrata

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE MAGISTER DEGREE IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND FOREING LANGUAGE TEACHING

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DEDICATION

In the name of the Almighty God

To my dearest parents.

To my brothers, sisters, fiancé and to all my family members.

To my friends and to all those who helped me to achieve this work,

I dedicate this modest dissertation.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research would not have been possible without the inspiration, the immense encouragement, and the support we received along the way from many people. In particular, I owe thousands of thanks to my supervisor Dr. KESKES Said.

I am particularly indebted to the members of the jury: Dr. KAOUACHE Salah and Dr. ATAMNA El Khiar who accepted to devote their precious time to read and evaluate this work.

For their continued assistance, I am also very grateful to all my family members specifically my parents. I really appreciate their patience and constant encouragement.

Also, Special thanks must be expressed to Soumani Mahmoud secondary school and to every teacher and pupil who participated in this research.
This study brings together the fields of Cooperative Learning (CL) and classroom participation. Our attempt is to find out what obstructs second year secondary school pupils’ participation during group work tasks. Using the questionnaire technique we have attempted to show the learners’ activity during group tasks as affected by their attitudes towards this learning strategy, and the implementation of these tasks as impacted by the teachers’ professional views and positions towards this method. The results show that many pupils are excluded, either intentionally or unintentionally, from participating and taking part in the group work. This exclusion is due to the lack of motivation and the negative interdependence structured among them which are in turn due to the reward structure used by the teachers. The research findings indicate that the teachers tend to use traditional group work in which the reward structure is competitive or individualistic but not cooperative which affect the learners’ participation and interaction. Based upon the insight gained from this study, CL methods are thus recommended to be incorporated in the second year secondary school classes. Pedagogical implications for the application of CL requirements are developed. Above all, guidelines for CL implementation are proposed. Finally, suggestions for future research are presented.
LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

1. **CIRC**: Cooperative Integrated Reading Composition
2. **CL**: Cooperative Learning
3. **FL**: Foreign Language
4. **FT**: Foreigner Talk
5. **IH**: Interaction Hypothesis
6. **L1**: First Language
7. **L2**: Second Language
8. **SLA**: Second Language Acquisition
9. **STAD**: Students Team-Achievement Dimensions
10. **STL**: Students Team Learning
11. **TGT**: Team-Games-Tournaments
12. **TL**: Target Language
13. **ZPD**: Zone of Proximal Development
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INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

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INTRODUCTION

I. Background of the Study

Research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA)\(^1\) was based on traditional psycholinguistic perspective of language and learning, which held that language is a discrete set of linguistic systems external to the learner, and that learning is the process of assimilating the structures of these systems into preexisting mental structures. The main attempt was to discover and construct the ideal linguistic system rather than to find effective ways that facilitate the assimilation of the new system of knowledge (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 1).

The shift in emphasis, away from an external view to an internal view of learning, highlights the role learners play in constructing their own knowledge. For instance, Jacob (1999, p. 4) assumes that learning is an active process where “learners do not automatically learn what is available to them or is presented to them. Learners are active agents in the process of learning”. Moreover, the sociocultural perspective on learning held that language learning is not a strictly individual act which is equivalent across learners and situations. Rather, it is a social phenomenon that depends on learners’ participation in their classroom tasks largely realized through classroom interactions (Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 8). Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Jacob, 1999, p. 8) asserted that higher mental functions have their origins in face-to-face promotive interaction: “Every function in the child’s cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level”. That is to say, cognitive learning is influenced by social interactions. According to Jacob (1999, p. 8) Vygotsky’s view goes beyond the influence of the society and social interaction to emphasize the child’s broader participation in this social system.

As a matter of fact, constant interaction can not be achieved easily. According to Allwright and Bailey (1991, pp. 18-19), successful classroom interaction does not really involve planning, but management which is both the teacher and learners’ responsibility. Although it is

\(^1\)SLA research serves also FL teaching and learning (Edmondson, 1999, p. 259).
up to the teacher to decide on the topic, learners’ cooperation is crucial. In other words, learners’ participation is highly important to the success of interaction and the success of the course as a social event. In the same vein, Vygotsky (1962, as cited in Fisher, 2005, p. 89) highlighted the significance of experiencing participation in classroom interaction for learners to be full participants in their society. He claimed: “what a child can do in co-operation today, he will be able to do alone tomorrow”.

II. Statement of the Problem

Being in touch with some second year students, we have noticed many difficulties that the students encounter in their English class. Among these are: the resistance to classroom interaction, the lack of participation, the avoidance of offering and sharing their ideas.

The pre-questionnaires reveal that the classroom allotted speaking time is confined to few students with the most ability to speak English. While those with the least ability, are likely to be excluded from participating and taking part in the classroom interaction. Beyond this, the lack of participation is not only related to classroom interaction, but also to group work. Although the latter provides a less stressful context for participation, it is generally accomplished by only some members of the group (see appendices IV & V).

III. Research Questions

CL provides learners with equal opportunities to participate and interact. The questions our research raises are:

- What limit learners’ participation?
- What impact teachers’ decision to implement group tasks?
- What implementation factors appear to hinder participation opportunities during group work?
IV. Aim of the Study

Our research seeks to answer the questions raised above. It is conducted to report the extent to which this learning strategy is utilized in the Algerian classroom, therefore, the opportunities learners have to participate and interact in small groups. It also seeks to illuminate the factors that contributed to the success or failure of group tasks in promoting such opportunities. Our work does not only attempt to understand problems related to teaching/learning English from the point of view of participation, but also, to come out with some pedagogical implications that could be of some value for teachers to successfully implement this learning strategy, and set out lessons and activities that involve learners to work cooperatively.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will contribute to understanding the role of interaction and active participation in enhancing knowledge construction on the one hand, and the role of CL in providing such opportunities on the other hand.

V. Research Methodology

The present study seeks to describe an educational phenomenon, which is learners’ participation in group tasks, by delineating its features. The research undertaking follows a heuristic approach illustrated in pre-questionnaires to have a holistic view on the teaching and learning conditions. To answer the research questions, we will opt for two questionnaires that will be administered to a sample of teachers and pupils. The latter will be selected purposively and will represent one fifth of the whole population. The questionnaires will be designed to find out the factors that impact the learners’ participation in group work tasks. Along with the descriptive approach, we will opt for an exploratory one intended to obtain a deep understanding of the learners’ perceptions of their levels by using the focus-group interview technique.
VI. Organization of the Dissertation

In order to answer the research questions, we need first to review what it means for interaction and participation to enhance language development and how can CL methods promote such opportunities by summarizing findings of research as well as making inferences based on these findings. These theoretical aspects will be discussed in the first two chapters following an introduction, in which the main parts of the work are presented. Chapter three describes how research is designed and the procedures in collecting and analyzing data. Chapter four includes analysis and interpretation of the data gathered. Finally, some recommendations are suggested concerning the implementation of CL methods.
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Introduction

In the language classroom, be it first (L1), second (L2) or foreign language (FL) classroom, interaction and participation are very important because language in this case is both the subject of study and the medium of learning. In this chapter, we will try to overview interaction from a theoretical prospective seeking to know what it means for interaction and participation to promote learning. Starting first with the main aspects of language classroom and the changing paradigm from a transmissionist\(^2\) to a constructivist\(^3\) view of learning, and ending with identifying effective intervention strategies to promote classroom interaction and participation.

I.1 Language Classroom Lesson Aspects

The classroom is the place where teachers and learners meet, bringing with them different experiences and their own reasons of being there. These differences may affect the way they get along to facilitate learning (Gaies 1980, as cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p.18). Allwright and Bailey (1991, p. 22) claim that the role of the teacher in traditional classrooms was extended to three aspects: the syllabus to teach, the method to follow, and the atmosphere to have in their classrooms. More recently, these aspects receive higher attention, and teachers’ role becomes much more restricted to the two first aspects than the social atmosphere, because the latter depends also on learners’ cooperation. When these aspects are acted on, the results are classroom interaction. According to them,

The end result, each time, is not just that a certain bit of the syllabus is taught, or a certain planned method is used, or that a certain planned atmosphere is created, just like that. Instead, the outcome in all three respects will be the result of interactive processes, and therefore necessarily different from any plans. (p. 23)

\(^2\) The transmissionist view of learning considers learners as passive recipients of knowledge (Gordon, Hacker, & Vries, 1993, p. 219).
\(^3\) The constructivist view of learning considers learners as creators of knowledge and active participants in the process of learning (Gordon et al., 1993, p.219).
I.2 Changing the Teaching and Learning Paradigm

Traditional instructional methods emphasized language rather than the information carried by the language (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). According to Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1995, p. 6-7), teaching was thought in terms of:

1- Transferring knowledge from teacher to students.
2- Filling passive empty vessels with knowledge.
3- Classifying students and sorting them into categories.
4- Conducting education within a context of impersonal relationships among students and between teachers and students.
5- Maintaining a competitive organizational structure, and
6- Assuming that every one with expertise in their field can teach without training to do so.

Students were required to be silent, isolated, and in competition with each other. Moreover, communication is minimized because it is viewed as misleading and false information is often communicated through. Helping, as well, is minimized because it is viewed as cheating. Once knowledge is believed to be transmitted from the teacher to passive students, the teachers classify students in a norm-referenced way⁴ (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1995, pp. 9-10). This approach to evaluation, according to Slavin, (1995), makes students compete for grades. Other teachers, in their attempt to avoid competition, use an individualistic approach to instruction in which students are supposed to work individually to accomplish learning goals which are not related to those of others, then evaluated on a criterion-referenced basis⁵. Doing so, teachers create competitive and individualistic learning situations which isolate students and create negative relationships among classmates and discourage active construction of knowledge.

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⁴ Norm-referenced assessments report a student’s results in comparison to other students who have taken the same assessment (Linn & Hambleton, 1991, as cited in Zucker, Christensen, Ellis, Harris, & Manning, 2004, p. 4).
⁵ Criterion-referenced assessments report a student’s results in comparison to a curriculum (Linn & Hambleton, 1991, as cited in Zucker et.al, 2004, p. 3).
The traditional way of teaching was carried forward as the only alternative until it proved to be wrong (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1995, p. 8). The old paradigm is being dropped for a new one, which is constructivist and learner-centered, based on the premise that learners learn more effectively by being active, intentional and strategic constructors of knowledge. Haley and Austin (2004) assumed that learners should be provided with an environment ripe for discovery and the tools to explore it. Thus, Learners should be actively involved in constructing their knowledge and developing their cognition. According to Walker (2002, pp. 26-27), the constructivist theory assumes that:

1- Knowledge and beliefs are formed within the learner. In contrast to traditional education where learners are considered as “empty vessels”, constructivist learning theory assumes that learners bring experience and understanding.

2- Learners personally imbue experiences with meaning. That is, allowing learners to suggest possible meaning instead of explaining it for them.

3- Learning activities should cause learners to gain access to their experiences, knowledge, and beliefs. In other words, learners interpret new information and construct new knowledge.

4- Learning is a social activity that is enhanced by shared enquiry. That is to say, learners enhance their learning and understanding when sharing ideas with others, thinking with them, considering other points of view, and broaden their own perspectives.

I.3 Interaction

I.3.1 History and Background

The move from behaviorism to constructivism shifted the emphasis from an external view to an internal view of learning. The conceptualization of SLA on a behaviorist view, according to Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 304) and Gass (2002, p. 171) deemed the language learners are exposed to (i.e. the input) as the major deriving force of language learning. Input was viewed as
a basic feature in SLA upon which imitation and therefore habits are formed. From the mid-
1950s on, behaviorism was dropped out and so was the importance given to input. Cognitivists
emphasized the internal mechanisms a learner brought to language learning situation. In 1976, a
distinction was made between the language learners are exposed to (i.e., the input) and what is
really internalized by the learner (i.e., the intake).

The Input Hypothesis, suggested by Krashen (as cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 120), shows how the learner moves from a stage to another stage of interlanguage development. The term comprehensible input was used to maintain that not all the Target Language (TL) can be understood by L2 or FL learners. It refers to the TL data which are comprehensible and slightly more advanced than L2 or FL learners’ current stage of interlanguage development. Krashen (1985, as cited in Gass & Selinker; 2008, p. 309; Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 120) defined the current stage of learner’s knowledge as “I” and the next stage as “i+1”. Therefore, the input learners are exposed to should be at the i+1 level for them to develop their knowledge. According to Krashen (1982, as cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 122), “Comprehensible input is responsible for progress in language acquisition. Output is possible as a result of acquired competence. When performers speak, they encourage input. This is conversation”. However, Allwright and Bailey (1991, p. 121) consider this view as non problematic in two ways. First, it is because not all incomprehensible input is without value to the learner. Second, even comprehensible input does not ensure language development unless it is negotiated in face-to-face interaction. Similarly, Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 325) view input as non sufficient because it does not require the mastery of syntax. Instead, meaning comprehension is rather involved.

In the mid-1980s, the role of learner’s output was also highlighted (Hall & Verplaatse, 2000, p. 4). It was viewed as a means to reinforce what has already been learned and to set out hypothesis about the syntactic structure of the language being studied. Output, According to
Swain (1985, as cited in Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 326), “may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing”. Swain (1985, as cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 4) identified three functions of output: noticing, hypothesis testing, and reflection, and assumed that students do not need to attend to all features of language to comprehend the content and process the input, but, while producing output, the student may notice a gap of linguistic knowledge, test out hypothesis about the organization of language system, and reflect their use of language through the interlocutor’s feedback to output. However, Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 326) point that early methods of teaching considered output as a way of practising what is previously learned rather than a means through which learners can learn the language while interacting with the teacher or another learner.

In the early 1970s, special interest was given to issues such as “baby talk” and “Foreigner Talk” (FT) that include modifications when directed towards nonproficient nonnative speakers. FT research was based on the fact that native speakers modify their input when speaking with non-native speakers (Gass, 2002, pp. 171-172). Ferguson (1971, as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 305) investigated issues related to the way native speakers or proficient speakers of the language address deficient speakers of that language; He noticed that their speech is characterized by adjustments and modifications. Later on, the focus was shifted from describing FT linguistic features to exploring the role of FT’s interaction. Long (1981, as cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 2) distinguished between linguistic modifications and interactive modifications, and assumed that interactive modifications facilitate second language acquisition.

According to Ellis (1999, pp. 3-5), The Interaction Hypothesis (IH) draws on early studies of native speaker talk to repair breakdowns in communication, and on Hatch’s claim that learners can learn a second language through the process of interacting rather than manifesting what they have already learned in interaction. The early version of the IH was closely associated with the input hypothesis. Interaction was viewed as just one among three ways of making input
comprehensible (the two other ways are simplified input and learners’ use of context). However, Long (1980, 1983, as cited in Ellis, 1999, p. 5) argued that while comprehensible input is necessary, interactionally modified input is important and beneficial. He also claimed that the acquisition of linguistic competence is mostly incidental rather than intentional, that is to say, learners acquire it with or without awareness when they try to communicate.

I.3.2 Negotiation of Meaning

According to Ellis (1999, pp. 3-4), negotiation of meaning is one type of interaction that involves what Long called interactional modifications to prevent communication breakdowns. This contrasts with input modifications found in FT that may result from interactional modifications as well as from monologic discourse. The study of negotiation of meaning is related to Long’s IH. Long (1980, 1983a, as cited in Ellis, 1999, p. 5; Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 122; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005) agreed with Krashen’s view about the importance of comprehensible input, but emphasized the role of interaction in generating high levels of input. Long (1996, as cited in Gass, 2002, p. 174) defined IH as follows: “Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS (Native Speaker) or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways”. Negotiation of meaning was seen as providing learners with comprehensible input and supplying them with “positive evidence” (i.e. what is acceptable) (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Gass (2002, p. 175) points that it is through negotiations that the learner notices that there is a gap in the target language and recognizes that there is something to learn. Long’s revised IH (as cited in Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 168) stressed the role of negotiation in increasing conscious noticing and enhancing language learning. According to him, “… it is proposed that environmental contributions to acquisition are mediated by selective attention and the learner’s developing L2 processing capacity, and that these resources are brought together more usefully, although not
exclusively, during negotiation for meaning. Furthermore, Long (1996, as cited in Gass, 2002 p. 174) stressed the role of negative feedback obtained during negotiation work which may be facilitative of L2 development, at least for vocabulary, morphology, and language-specific syntax, and essential for learning certain specifiable L1-L2 contrasts. The following model, suggested by Long (1983, adapted from Allwright, Bailey, 1991, p. 122), represents the relationships between negotiated interactions, comprehensible input, and language acquisition.

![Long's Model of the Relationship between Type of Conversational Task and Language Acquisition](image)

**Figure 1**: Long’s Model of the Relationship between Type of Conversational Task and Language Acquisition.

The model emphasizes the role face-to-face interaction in providing opportunities for meaning negotiation and which results in comprehensible input leads to language acquisition.

### I.4 Classroom Interaction

The role of interaction has been examined from different angles, growing out from early FT studies and moving to the role of the non native speakers in interaction, then to the study of teacher talk and task-based talk in FL and L2. In its earlier period, research on classroom interaction stressed whole class interactions between the teacher and the students. Major concern was given to teacher talk (Hall, & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 6). Although Krashen (as cited in Hall & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 5) provided little empirical evidence, his claim leads to further studies on comprehensible input, such as identifying features of teacher talk that were regarded to be crucial
in making the message comprehensible, for instance, feedback error correction and the use of questions to clarify the input. Similar research investigated the role form-focused instructional talk in consciousness-raising. Finally, the interest shifted to the description of task conditions appropriate for speech negotiation (Hall, Lorrie & Verplaetse, 2000, p. 5).

The most widely known interaction pattern before, according to Kumpulainen & Wray (2002, p. 9), is Initiation-Response-feedback/Evaluation sequence in which the teacher initiates the discussion by asking a question to which students respond, and then the teacher gives feedback or evaluate student’s response. By doing so, the teacher controls the structure and content of classroom interaction. Moreover, Allwright and Bailey. (1991, p. 139) found that in many classes teachers monopolized about one half and three quarters of the time allotted in classrooms. According to Lantolf (2000), the teachers’ insistence on imposing their own pedagogical agenda and their subsequent unwillingness to communicate authentically with students may lead to considerable learner confusion and frustration and result in a missed opportunity to interact with learners in their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

Although teacher talk is considered as a valuable source of input, Allwright & Bailey (1991, p. 148) view learning strategies, such as interacting in small groups to generate high levels of input, as potentially important. Recent research in language learning and teaching focused more on the actions learners take to master the target language. For instance, Philp & Duchesne (2008, p. 14) assume that while teacher-learner interaction can be seen as crucial in providing scaffolding and feedback, learner-learner interaction provides contexts for practice. Hence, Interacting with peers can be as effective as teacher-learner instructional conversations. Carter and Nunan (2001) also assert that learners’ talk is highly significant; this does not include only their responses to the teacher, but also communicative strategies, and the relation between the type of the task, learners’ interaction, and participation in negotiation of meaning.
I.5 Characteristics of Classroom Interaction

Although classroom interactions can not be planned in advances, Ellis (1995, p. 574) proposes some predictable characteristics that include: (1) the structure and general characteristics of classroom discourse, (2) types of language use, (3) turn-taking, and (4) differences between classroom and naturalistic discourse.

I.5.1 Structure and General Characteristics

Classroom discourse can not be identified, however, Mehan (1979, as cited in Ellis, 1995, p. 574) distinguished three phases: (1) an opening phase (i.e. a warming up to introduce the lesson), (2) an instructional phase (i.e. the core of the lesson, and (3) a closing phase (i.e. resuming the main points of the lesson). Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, as cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 574) also ranked the different structures of the lesson as follows: (1) lesson, (2) transaction, (3) exchange, (4) move, and (5) act.

I.5.2 Types of Language Use

Other researchers attempt to describe classroom interaction by distinguishing the different types of language use or interaction in language classrooms. For instance, Allwright (1980, as cited in Ellis, 1995, p. 577) identified three basic elements: (1) samples (i.e., instances of the target language), (2) guidance (i.e., instances of communication), and (3) management activities to ensure the occurrence of (1) and (2). However Ellis (1997, p. 577) assumes that these elements differ according to “their relative proportion, their distribution between teacher and learner, their sequencing, and the language used”. Ellis (1984, as cited in Ellis, 1997, pp. 577-578) developed a framework involving two dimensions: (a) goal (i.e. the purpose of interaction) which can be divided into: core goals, framework goals, and social goals, and (b) address (i.e. the interlocutors). He pointed that interactional situations with core goals limit the learner to a responding role, while interaction situations with framework and social goals give them...
opportunities to initiate discourse and to perform a wide range of language functions. Van Lier (1982, 1988, as cited in Ellis 1997, p. 578), in his turn, identified four basic types of classroom interaction depending on whether the teacher controls the topic and the activity. The first type is when the teacher controls neither topic nor activity, for example the small talk at the beginning of a lesson or peer talk. The second type occurs when the teacher controls the topic but not the activity, such as giving instructions or delivering a lesson. In the third type, the teacher controls both topic and activity, as when eliciting responses in a language drill. In the fourth type, the teacher controls the activity but not the topic, such as in small-group work where the students have to follow specific procedural rules but free to decide on what to talk about. In his later work he added another dimension which is language function.

1.5.3 Turn-taking

Basing on ethno-methodological studies of naturally occurring conversations, Ellis (1997, p. 579) discussed a number of rules which determine turn taking: (1) only one speaker speaks at a time; (2) a speaker can select the next speaker by nominating or by performing the first part of an adjacency pair (for example, asking a question that requires an answer); (3) a speaker can alternatively allow the next speaker to self-select; and (4) competition to take the next turn. Also, McHoul (1978, as cited in Ellis 1997, p. 597) examined the difference of turn taking in natural and classroom situations; he indicated that allocation of turns in classroom discourse is organized and controlled. Similarly, Lorsher (1986, as cited in Ellis 1997, p. 597) investigated turn-taking in English lessons and found that turns are almost allocated by the teacher (i.e. it is up to the teacher to decide for turns). In contrast with McHoul’s claim, Van Lier (1988, as cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 597-598) identified a number of taking-turn behaviors that indicate learners’ initiative participation in classroom discourse:

1- Topic: the turn is off stream (i.e. discontinuing). The learner introduces something new, or denies/disputes a proposition in a previous turn.
2- Self-selection: selection originates from the speaker.

3- Allocation: the turn selects one specific next speaker.

4- Sequence: the turn is independent of sequence.

I.5.4 Difference between Classroom and Naturalistic Discourse

Classroom discourse is different from naturalistic discourse in that the former results from trying to learn a language, while the latter results from trying to communicate (Ellis, 1997). Edmondson (1985, as cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 580) stated: “we seek in the classroom to teach people how to tail when they are not being taught”. There is a co-existing of both discourses in the classroom because the latter provides opportunities to communicate as well as to learn. Kramsch (1985, as cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 580) identified three components that underlie classroom discourse: (1) the roles the participants adopt (2) the nature of learning task, and (3) the kind or targeted knowledge.

I.6 Peer Interaction

The role of the peers, according to the developmentalists (e.g., Hartup, 1996; Newcomb, Bukowski, & Bagwel 1999, as cited in Philp & Duchesne, 2008, p. 86), extends beyond contributing in development to providing contexts for development in the same way the family does. From peers, the child can learn linguistic norms and models for participation. The role of peer interaction is being highlighted in supplying input and constructing meaning on the one hand, and leading to social acceptance on the other hand as illustrated in the following figure:
The figure illustrates how peer interaction, shaped by social goals, can enhance language learning.

Furthermore, Toohey (2000, as cited in Philp & Duchesne, 2008, p. 85) posited that learners’ success is not influenced by only what they do, but also by the opportunities their communities offer for them. In the same vein, Otha (2001, p. 232) notes that while learners move beyond their individual capabilities in optimal peer interaction where peers assists one another, successful peer interaction is characterized by a high level of learner engagement which is largely influenced by the way tasks are designed and implemented. According to him,

Students come to class with different levels of preparation, exhibit different levels of engagement, and have different understandings of tasks. Individuals have their own dispositions toward language learning. Some, such as a learner’s propensity to be active and involved or to avoid participation, may seem relatively stable. Other learner orientations to classroom activities may vary from day to day depending on the pressures impacting the learner. And, different groupings or pairings of students may also have an effect, depending on whether or not a peer interlocutor is engaged in the task. The inactive,
uninvolved student who works with a similar peer may behave differently when paired with a highly engaged interlocutor.

**I.6.1 Perspectives on Peer Interaction and Learning**

Kumpulainen and Wray (2002, p. 17) assert that the role of social interaction in learning has been tackled by different disciples including linguists, sociologists, and anthropologists. This enables the researchers to view the importance of classroom interaction from different perspectives. The two widely researched theories on classroom interaction are the social and contextual dimensions on the one hand and the internal cognitive processes on the other hand.

**I.6.1.1 Cognitive Perspective**

The cognitive perspective on learning, according to Kumpulainen and Wray (2002, p. 19, emphasizes the individual’s mental activity, the development of thinking, cognitive strategies and their application. Learning is regarded as the process of clarifying conflicts and disagreements to reach equilibrium. The cognitive perspective focuses on individuals and their learning, and they view interaction as activating existing knowledge and supporting individual’s knowledge construction after creating cognitive conflicts. Besides this, interaction helps learners become aware about their thinking process while reorganizing knowledge. Although the cognitive perspectives has traditionally emphasized the individual learning processes, more attention recently is being paid to the social context in which learning occurs and its importance in learning and development. Piaget (1932, as cited in Rubin, Burgess, Kennedy, & Stewart, 2003, p. 373) posited that peer interaction is a unique concept for children’s cognitive and social cognitive growth emphasizing the role of disagreements with peers and cognitive conflicts that requires both intra- and interpersonal resolution and negotiation of the problem being discussed, and this permits positive peer exchanges and experiences to occur.
I.6.1.2 Sociocultural Perspective

For Vygotsky (as cited in Lantolf, 2000, p. 53), learning is a social situated activity; what learners accomplish at first in a social setting, they will be able to do independently. The social locus of cognitive and linguistic development is outlined in Vygotsky’s general genetic law of cultural development; any function in the child’s cultural development appears twice or on two planes, first it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category. It goes without saying that internalization transforms the social process itself and changes its structure and functions. Social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships. Moreover, Lantolf (2000, p. 54) claims that language develops into “a cognitive tool” for learners through social processes. According to him: “these planes of functioning are dynamically interrelated, linked by language which mediates social interaction on the interpsychological plane, and mediates thought on the interapsychological plane”.

Ellis (1999, p. 16) reports that advocates of social perspective criticized the predominant metaphor of SLA adopted from Chomskyan linguistics that saw learners as computers in the way they process input and produce output. SLA was seen as an individual activity rather than a social-embedded activity. Sociocultural theorists (as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 17), based on the work of Vygotsky, emphasize the social nature of development. They have also been influenced by sociological theories on the social construction of reality, and by anthropological studies on the relationship between learning and culture. According to Downey, Downey, & Kelly (1986, p.1),

When children come to school, they do not simply learn a given body of knowledge which they carry away in neat packages as though they had been shopping. Rather they learn from other people both teachers and peers, by sharing their knowledge and experience, by
seeing the world through their eyes and by developing an understanding of what others consider important and worthwhile.

That is to say, students do not only develop cognitive abilities but also develop social skills by learning how to communicate with others.

The perspective emphasizes the social and situated nature of knowledge and views cognition as a set of actions constructed with others (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 18). The key concept in this theory is “mediation” that can be realized through interpersonal interaction. The theory holds that language learning takes place in social interaction when biologically determined mental functions evolve into more complex higher order functions (Downey, Downey & Kelly, 1986, pp. 15-16). Thus, social situations are seen as contexts to create knowledge through action with more able members. The development of language as a tool for thinking and the construction of shared meaning are being stressed in social interaction.

I.6.1.3 Contrasting the Perspectives

Both perspectives emphasize the dynamic nature of knowledge construction and hold that knowledge is shaped and created as a result of constructive activity. The difference is that cognitive perspective refers to inner construction, while sociocultural perspective stresses the reciprocal negotiation and meaning making in social interaction. In addition to this, there is a sharp difference between the cognitive and sociocultural perspectives concerning the definition of the relationship between interaction and learning. This raises a range of questions: Is learning social and situated by its nature or do social and contextual features affect learning? Is interaction an aspect of learning or is it something logically independent that has a function on learning? Can learning be explained by the nature of interaction? While Interaction, for the cognitivists, is a factor that affects learning, interaction and context for the sociocultural theorists are not separated from each other (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, pp. 20-21).
I.6.2 Mechanisms of Internalization: Assisted Performance in the Zone of Proximal Development

Although sociocultural theory has provided a broad understanding of the way interaction leads to language acquisition, it acknowledges that this interaction can be facilitated or obstructed by learner-internal factors. This is what Vygotsky refers to by evoking the ZPD. The latter refers to a stage of potential development that lies between the learner’s actual development and the next stage of non-development (Ellis, 1999, pp. 19-20).

The sociocultural perspective holds that learning is a movement from social, interpersonal plane to individual intrapersonal plane of understanding (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 18). The transformation of L2 from interpsychological to intrapsychological functioning occurs in meaningful social interaction. Meaning is constructed in social interaction through a cognitive process (Lantolf, 2000, p. 54). Burgess (1993, as cited in Lantolf, 2000, p. 54) stated that the construction of meaning in social interaction is “an act of mind” that unites the social with the individual, thus, internalization of the language of social interaction from the interpsychological to intrapsychological. That is to say, language acquisition is a cognitive development that occurs moment by moment in the ZPD. Troike (2006, pp. 112-113) states that ZPD occurs in mediation between a learner and an expert. The learner can develop the language being learned within ZPD through the teacher’s or the experts’ scaffolding. The latter, according to Swain & Suzuki (2010, p. 564) refers to verbal guidance provided by an expert to help the learner perform any task, or peer collaborations to accomplish a task that would be difficult if assigned as an individual work. Lantolf & Eljaafreh (1995, as cited in Lantolf, 2000: 54-55) explained:

Determining a learner’s ZPD is an act of negotiated discovery that is realized through dialogic interaction between learner and expert. In other words, the learner and expert engage each other in an attempt to discover precisely what the learner is able to achieve without help, and what the learner can accomplish with assistance (...). Importantly, the
help negotiated between the novice and expert is graduated and contingent in the sense that it moves from more explicit to more implicit, or strategic levels, and is offered only when needed and is withdrawn once the novice shows signs of self-control and ability to function independently.

Peer interaction is an important context in which ZPD emerges in groups or pairs of different competences. In group works, according to Donato (1994, as cited in Lantolf, 2000, p. 55), “the speakers are at the same time individually novices and collectively experts, sources of new orientations for each other, and guides through this complex linguistic problem solving”. Being so, interaction is not only a means that facilitates interlanguage development but also a way to involve learner to contribute to their own development.

I.7 Group Work

I.7.1 History of Group Work

The practice of grouping can be traced back to at least 1867 when educational reformer Harris initiated a plan in St. Louis, Missouri that allowed for the rapid promotion of student through the elementary grades. It was not until the turn of the century, however, that a version of grouping was implemented that mirrored current practice (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001, p. 85). Alport (1954, as cited in Jacobs, McCafferty, & Iddings, 2006, p. 9) worked to facilitate effective group dynamics. He investigated the way people from different racial groups come to live together more harmoniously. This investigation led him to derive three essential conditions for interaction to result in productive relations. According to him, interactors should be of equal status, they should have common goals, and their cooperation must take place with the teacher’s official sanction. The application of these conditions in the classroom by Aronson and his colleagues (as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 9) led to the creation of the well known CL technique, jigsaw. The latter aims at promoting equal status by giving each member of the group unique information that they have to share with the group members to achieve a common goal.
The concept of providing the group mates with unique information has long been popular in L2 and FL teaching. Examples of such activities are: Spot-the-difference tasks, Script Stories, Information gap, and Required Information Exchange are similar tasks to jigsaw in the literature on L2 tasks. In a related concept, the notion of scaffolding was introduced by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976, as cited in Falchikov & Blythman, 2001) but it was soon withdrawn. The support was also removed to students to do the task independently. More recently, the focus was shifted from the role of more expert people on co-constructing ZPDs to the way peers of shared understanding help each other. This perspective on human learning gave emergence to many CL activities such as peer tutoring and cross-age tutoring. (Falchikov & Blythman, 2001).

I.7.2 Interaction in Peer Groups

Researchers of classroom interaction become more interested in the way goals are formed and changed in relation to working with particular people in particular circumstances (Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 10). Also, the teacher’s role has changed from a sanctioner of activities and attitudes to a facilitator. According to Johnson, Johnson, and Smith (1995, p. 8), traditional teaching and norm-referenced assessment result in negative interdependence among the classmates. The aim is to find ways to increase the feeling of positive interdependence among the learning groups. The way learners interact with each other is an important aspect of classroom interaction. Ohta (2001) explains how learners make use of effective strategies while scaffolding each other by giving chance to struggle and produce utterances without assistance. According to Kelly (1978, as cited in Downey, Downey, & Kelly, 1986, pp. 15-16), teachers should be aware about the importance of group work in enhancing learning and the appropriate methods of grouping in their classes.

Social interaction among student groups tends to differ from traditional teacher student interaction in its degree of reciprocity (Forman, 1989, as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 14). While in teacher-learner interaction, the teacher controls the content of interaction and the
speaking turns, peer interaction is characterized by the distribution of these aspects among students (Rommetveit, 1985, as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 14). Similarly, Long et al. (1976, as cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 147) found that pair or group interaction among learners provides more opportunities to negotiate the input than teacher-learner interaction. In addition to getting more turns, students perform a wider range of communication functions with the language.

Having this responsibility for managing their own talk, students learn social skills such as coping with silences, negotiating, taking and giving turns, and assessing the relevance and quality of their talk (Barnes and Todd, 1977, 1995, as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 14). Moreover, peer interaction gives learners options to instruct each other (Forman, 1989, as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 14). These extended opportunities for participating in classroom interactions give access for joint meaning-making and enable learners to construct their own knowledge (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 14). Furthermore, learners become aware of their own thinking processes by sharing views and perspectives with others, thus, approaching the subject from diverse ways. They can also build on each other’s contributions to re-construct new interpretations and views and promote their reflection, planning, and metacognition (Arvaja et al., 2000, as cited in Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 15).

I.7.3 Individual and Group Work

Following the cognitive perspective, interaction studies have long emphasized the individuals’ action in social contexts in which interaction affects their learning. Attention was paid to the individual’s performance on a cognitive task before and after a social interaction. Moreover, the role of small-group is seen from its effectiveness in relation to individual work. Other socio-cognitive studies have paid more attention to the qualitative differences in the individual’s goals and situational definitions of the learning task, and investigated their relation to individual’s participation in social activity. Sociocultural perspective, in turn, concentrates on
the nature of social group activities, describing it and characterizing its features and forms. The primary concern is to investigate how individuals participate in educational activities and how they jointly construct their knowledge, while minor attention was given to the individual as a constructor of joint knowledge (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 23).

1.8 Role of Participation

While Krashen’s philosophy implies that students should not be obliged to speak in the target language until they will be ready for that, Van Patten (1987, as cited in Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 147) argued that verbal interaction is a matter of interlanguage development. That is to say, students should be expected to participate at different stages of development. Ellis (1999, p. 245) distinguishes between input and interaction using a third construct which is “participation”. The provision of input, according to him, does not require learners to actively participate, whereas interaction provides learners with data that involve their contribution through their own participation. Also, the transformation of L2 from social interpersonal plane to individual intrapersonal plane of understanding, according to Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Kumpulainen and Wray, 2002, p. 18), is supported by active participation and assistance provided by others. Through social interaction with more knowledgeable members and actively participating, learners engage in their ZPDs. The sociocultural perspective stresses participation in social activities and view cognitive processes as part of social processes. Crucial to the sociocultural view is the association of participation in interaction with individual’s development. Ellis (1999, p. 246) states that sociocultural theory views interaction that involves participation in co-constructing goals and scaffolding each others as highly important. The construct of scaffolding, that can not take place only through interaction, does not only supply learners with cognitive help but also with affective help.

In a case study with Japanese students, Ellis (1996) found that participation in negotiating meaning does not appear to convey any special advantage comparing with the learners who only
listen to interactionaly modified input. He explains this in terms of special case that returns back to learners’ anxiety that detract their ability to process input while engaging in negotiation. In contrast, those who maintain silence may experience less anxiety. Moreover, he argues that “It is premature to conclude that participation does not facilitate acquisition” (p, 246), and assumes that in a different instructional context where participation is not seen as stressful, it would result in more advantages for acquisition.

I.9 Intervention Strategies for Promoting Classroom Interaction

Carter and Hughes (2009, p. 311-312) highlight a number of effective strategies, illustrated in the following figure, that may help teachers promote opportunities for classroom interaction and participation.

![Interventions for Promoting Social Interaction](image)

**Figure 3**: interventions approaches for promoting social interaction (Adapted from Carter & Hughes, 2009, p. 312).

This framework demonstrates intervention strategies that increase social interactions among students. It first reviews the two main categories of intervention approaches; (1) interventions to promote socially supportive environments and (2) interventions to teach social interaction skills to students. While the first category focuses primarily on classroom
arrangement and school settings mainly relied upon supporting active participation in peer interactions, the second category emphasizes peer relationships.

I.9.1 Interventions to Promote Socially Supportive Environments

Students’ social development and their opportunities for interaction are largely influenced by environmental factors. Carter and Hughes (2009, p. 312) presents five effective intervention strategies to promote school environments that support and increase peer interaction: (1) supporting general education class participation, (2) arranging peer support, (3) assigning roles to general education peers, (4) establishing CL groups, and (5) equipping peers to interact socially with children with disabilities.

I.9.2 Interventions to Teach Social Interaction Skills

According to Carter and Hughes (2009, p. 317), social skills are a key component not only in the success of peer relationships but also in academic success. Thus, they identify four intervention strategies designed to promote students’ social interaction skills: (1) teaching social interaction skills alone, (2) teaching self management skills, (3) teaching leisure skills, and (4) teaching communication system use.

Conclusion

Interaction is a key component in promoting learning. This chapter has been an attempt to overview the main issues and concepts related to interaction. Among these are: the shift from transmissionism to constructivism, peer interaction, group learning, and intervention strategies to promote classroom interaction. The Algerian schools, among many schools in the world, adopt the new teaching and learning paradigm where learners are required to be active constructors of their knowledge largely realized through classroom interaction. However, this requires strategic teaching especially in overcrowded classes, the case of the majority of the Algerian ones, which comprise more than thirty students. Thus, our aim is to diagnose the unrolling of classroom
interaction in one of the Algerian schools through a range of questions that will be dealt with in the practical side of the work. Among these are: how teachers deliver the lesson, distribute participation turns, view peer and group learning, and intervene to promote participation opportunities.

Classroom interaction has been largely studied from different perspectives separately, such as, teacher talk, teacher questions and feedback, learner participation, or interactional modifications. More recently, many researchers emphasized classroom discourse as a whole, that is to say, the way participants are involved in managing classroom interaction (Ellis, 1999). The next chapter is aimed at identifying one of the most effective strategies that involve learners in their learning’ management by providing more opportunities to participate in classroom interactions.
CHAPTER TWO: COOPERATIVE LEARNING

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Introduction

The second chapter tackles the world of CL. the latter is one of the most effective strategies which promotes learners’ participation in class. We are going to spotlight on this very promising and ambitious realm, trying to give a general overview on the key concepts and the focal topics associated with it. First, distinguishing CL from other learning groups seems important. We will also review the major theoretical perspectives, the methods and the elements required to promote interaction and participation opportunities.

II.1 Definition of Cooperative Learning

II.1.1 What is Cooperative Learning?

Due to its ancient pedigree and positive outcomes, CL has been a focus of research in the past century. Researchers have defined CL in different ways. For instance, Wong and Wong (1998, as cited in Killen, 2006, p. 181) pointed that “cooperative learning is not so much learning to cooperate as it is cooperating to learn”. CL, according to Williams (2002, p. 3), is a highly structured teaching strategy that is based on the premise that children learn better in the midst of interaction with their peers. Similarly, Nijhof and Kommers (1985, p. 127) define cooperation as a collective process in which formal and informal knowledge play an important role. Johnson, Johnson, and Holubec (1998, as cited in Williams 2002, p. 3) provided a brief definition of CL and differentiated it from competitive and individualistic learning stating that “Cooperative learning is the instructional use of small groups so that students work together to maximize their own and others’ learning”. Similarly Jacob and Mattson (1995, p. 231) distinguished CL from individualistic and competitive learning by identifying two features in CL: (1) cooperative task structure and (2) cooperative reward structure. According to Slavin (1996, pp. 20-27), cooperative task structure involves students to work together to accomplish the task. This contrasts with independent task structures where mutual assistance is forbidden, cooperative reward structure requires the participation of each member in the group efforts, for the group to
be rewarded. This contrast with competitive reward structures where one’s success is another’s failure and with individualistic reward structures where one’s performance has no impact on others’ rewards. Jacob (1999, p. 13) deems CL to be a powerful instructional innovation based on a profound theory and experimental researches that support it. According to him, “cooperative learning is a diverse group of instructional methods in which small groups of students work together and aid each other in completing academic tasks”. Also, Millis (1996, as cited McInerney & Roberts, 2004, p. 205) stated that CL is a “generic term used to describe a situation where students work together in small groups to help themselves and others to learn”. Slavin (1987, as cited in Williams 2002, p. 3) assumed that CL occurs when instructional methods enable students to work and learn in small, heterogeneous ability groups, this leads students into the social power of learning. In its fullest conception, cooperative learning is a radically different instructional approach and part of the new teaching and learning paradigm.

II.1.1.1 Cooperative Learning versus Other Types of Learning Groups

Allen and Plax (1999, p. 496) distinguish four types of grouping methods in classroom settings: ability grouping, intensive instruction grouping, collaborative learning grouping, and CL grouping. Building on Hamersley’s research findings that student participation in ability and intensive instruction groups was limited to occasional inserts within a teacher’s presentation, and Cohen’s that students in collaborative learning and CL groups operate as interdependent learners, Allen and Plax (1999, p. 498) claim that ability and intensive instruction groups parallel whole-class instruction where communication involves the direct supervision of the teacher over the students, that is to say, group mates communicate mainly with the teacher who serves as a group leader. Whereas, collaborative and CL groups require the teacher to supervise indirectly, so, communication is mainly among group mates.

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6 The new teaching/learning paradigm has been discussed in the first chapter
The difference between CL and collaborative learning has been viewed from different angles; while O’Donnell (2006, p. 781) views CL as one form of peer learning that includes other forms of learning such as collaborative learning, peer tutoring, cross age tutoring…etc., Arendale (2004, as cited in Flippo & Caverly, 2008, p. 364) viewed CL as a subset of collaborative learning. However, McInerney and Roberts (2004, p. 207) argue that although the two terms have different meaning as adjectives, they are often used interchangeably. They maintain that while the term collaborative should be used for learning techniques that emphasize student-to-student interaction in the learning process, the term cooperative should be used where students are to work in small groups under the guidance of the instructor.

Johnson et al. (2000, pp. 207-208) identified five elements of CL groups that differentiate them from other types of learning groups: (1) positive interdependence, (2) face-to-face promotive interaction, (3) individual accountability, (4) interpersonal and small group skills and (5) group processing. In this respect, students are individually accountable for their own work, but also rewarded for their participation in the group work and contribution to others’ learning. In comparison with collaborative learning, group members are individually accountable for their own work, but not rewarded for their participation to other’s work. According to Jolliffe (2007, p. 3), it is the combination of positive interdependence and individual accountability that distinguishes CL groups from other types of classroom groups.

II.1.1.2 Cooperative Learning versus Traditional Group Work

The traditional group work compared to CL group is often highly unstructured. Although small group methods may use cooperative task structure in which students work together to accomplish a task or a project, the reward structure is either competitive or individualistic (Jacob & Mattson, 1995, p. 231). The fact of putting pupils into groups does not mean that they are working cooperatively. Sometimes, only one student in the group does the work. With the absence of a clearly defined task and designated group task, small group work
may flounder. In CL group, the task is clearly structured to ensure that pupils are interdependent and individually accountable. The goals of the task are thoroughly explained (Slavin, 1996, p. 20). CL group is ideal for main streaming: it is more than just putting students in groups and assigning task, but it requires them to work together toward a common goal in which every member of the group is included. This principle encourages mutual helpfulness and the active participation of all members. While CL shifted the focus from individual seat work to group work, it still requires personal responsibility that can be established through positive interdependence among the students and individual accountability (Johnson et al., 2000, p. 207).

The following figure, adapted from Jolliffe (2007, p. 4) illustrates the main elements of CL:

![Cooperative Learning Diagram](image)

**Figure 4**: Elements of CL

To be truly cooperative, learning should consist of these two vital elements which provide a sense of responsibility and an understanding of the importance of cooperation among youngsters. According to (Jolliffe, 2007, p. 4) Group mates should discuss work together and help each other to understand it. This is achieved gradually through a clear teaching program of small group and interpersonal skills in addition to teaching techniques and tasks that stimulate interdependence.
II.1.2 Rationale for Cooperative Learning

CL is an effective strategy because it provides opportunities for peer interaction designed to build caring relationships, thus minimizing social isolation and encouraging individual participation (Smink & Schargel, 2004). Many studies have compared CL to various control methods. For instance, Johnson & Johnson (1985, p. 103) discussed the relative impact of cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning experiences on achievement and relationships among students. Their major focus has been to light up the internal processes within CL that moderate the relationship between (1) cooperation and productivity, and (2) cooperation and interpersonal attraction among students. To make sure that any differences among conditions that they found were not due to differences in curriculum materials, the students studied identical curriculum. The Johnsons found considerable evidence that CL promote higher achievement and greater interpersonal attraction and more positive relationships among students than do competitive and individualistic learning. Similar studies investigated the effectiveness of CL (e.g., Jacob & Mattson, 1995; Slavin et al., 2003; Kagan, 1985; Johnson & Johnson, 1985) and indicate that CL results in significant improvements and can lead to higher levels of achievement.

II.1.2.1 English Proficiency

Jacob and Mattson (1995, p. 233) report that while working cooperatively students increase their English vocabulary usage and become more confident in English. CL promotes spontaneous conversations among them and provides more opportunities in English. Students’ participation to discussions in classes has also increased. CL provides opportunities to-face-to-face interaction among students and increases their participation to discussions in class. Vygotsky (1962, as cited in Falchikov & Blythman, 2001, p. 88) believes that the range of skills developed in peers’ cooperation is more than anything else that can be attained alone. He argues that what children can attain with the assistance of others is “even more indicative of their mental

**II.1.2.2 Academic Achievement**

There is strong evidence that CL raises the academic achievement of students in general (Slavin, 1995, p. 146). Jacob and Mattson (1995, p. 233) report that CL has a positive effect on students’ academic achievement. A higher quality of student learning was observed in addition to greater retention and consolidation of the material learned from each other. Similarly, Kagan (1985, p. 67) points that CL enhances student achievement especially the achievement of minority and low-achieving students.

**II.1.2.3 Psychological Adjustment**

Aside from enhancing simple academic achievement, CL techniques have shown enormous potential to facilitate children’s psychological growth and development (Slavin et al., 2003, p. 179). Kagan (1985, p. 67) claims that CL increases the liking among students for class, school, learning, and self. Jacob and Mattson (1995, p. 233) also highlight the affective benefits of CL, such as, improved motivation, positive attitudes toward classes and school, and increased self-esteem and self-confidence. Slavin (1995, pp. 146-147), in his turn, argued that the most important motivational outcome of CL is the effect on student self-esteem. He identified two components of self-esteem affected by CL, a feeling of being liked by peers, and of academic competence. According to Bandura (1977, as cited in Taylor & Mackenney, 2008, p. 63), the most effective way of creating a sense of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences or various experiences provided by social models.

**II.1.2.4 Social Relations**

Kagan (1985, p. 67) holds that CL promotes positive social relations and prosocial development. Johnson and Johnson (1985, p. 112) also argued that CL promotes greater
interpersonal attraction and more positive relationships among students than do competitive and individualistic learning. Slavin, Madden, and Chambers (2001, p. 19) assume that working cooperatively provides students opportunities to discuss the content with their peers who are very close to their level of understanding.

**II.1.2.5 Giving and Receiving Assistance and Help**

While competitive structures have resulted in individuals refusing to help and share, cooperative structures have enhanced helping and assistance. According to Johnson et al. (1995, p. 13), there is more frequent help in CL than in competitive and individualistic situations, which enhance productivity.

**II.1.2.6 Information Exchange**

In competitive situations, information exchange and stimulation of cognitive processes may not occur. They are either nonexistent or misleading. Furthermore, individual situations are deliberately structured to ensure that individuals do not communicate and exchange information at all. The fear of public speaking is a common feature among adolescents (Motley, 1988, as cited in Johnson et al., 1995, pp. 9-10). However, anxiety can be reduced in CL situations which provide a more comfortable social context and promote learning with understanding and foster conceptual change. This occurs when students engage in situations of dissatisfaction with the existing information which leads to questioning, criticizing, and evaluating of the information. Students are required to explain, elaborate, and defend their position (Brown & Palincsar, 1989, p. 400; Johnson et al., 1995, p. 20)

**II.1.2.7 Active Mutual Involvement in Learning**

CL situations promote a mutual, active oral involvement in learning situations where students are required to discuss the material being learned with one another. There is more active oral involvement in CL than in individualistic learning situations that correlate with achievement
(Johnson & Johnson 1985, p. 117). CL also gives learners opportunities to provide each other with feedback. The latter makes the comparison of actual performance with some standard performance possible (Johnson et al., 1995, p. 15).

II.1.2.8 Mutual Influence

While exchanging information, students share ideas and use each others’ resources and coordinate their efforts to maximize their productivity and achievement. They also benefit from their group mates modeling effective behaviors, skills, and attitudes (Johnson et al., 1995, p. 17). Moreover, Engaging in some ways of elaboration and restructuring of the information leads to conceptual change, and all meaningful conceptual change is self directed learning (Brown & Palincsar, 1989, p. 395)

II.1.2.9 Motivation

The kind of interaction that results from the type of interdependence structured among the students affects achievement. In contrast with competitive and individualistic situations, the motivational system promoted within cooperative situations includes intrinsic motivation based on mutual benefit, continuing interest in achievement, high commitment to achieve, and high persistence. According to Johnson et al. (1995, p. 18), “motivation is most commonly viewed as a combination of the perceived likelihood of success and the perceived incentive for success”. Success is seen as more important in CL than in competitive and individualistic learning situations. Working for mutual benefit results in positive feelings and emotional bonding with group members, and this affects productivity (Johnson et al., 1995).

II.1.2.10 Interpersonal Trust

Trust is a fundamental element for promotive interaction to take place. It tends to be developed and maintained in cooperative situations and absent and destroyed in competitive and
individualistic situations (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1995, p. 19). According to Deutsch (1962, as cited in Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1995, p. 19) trust includes the following elements:

1. Risk, the anticipation of beneficial or harmful consequences.
2. Realization that others have the power to determine the consequences of one’s action.
3. Expectation that the harmful consequences are more serious than are the beneficial consequences.
4. Confidence that the others will behave in ways that ensure beneficial consequences for oneself.

Trust is composed of two sets of behavior; trusting behavior which is the willingness to risk beneficial or harmful consequences by making oneself vulnerable to another person, and trustworthy behavior which is the willingness to respond to a student’s risk-taking in a way that ensures beneficial consequences for that student. In cooperative situations, group members tend to be both trusting and trustworthy. While in competitive situations, students tend to be distrusting and untrustworthy as they use information to increase their own success and others’ failure (Johnson et al, 1995, p. 19).

II.1.2.11 Anxiety and Performance

Anxiety is one of the obstacles of productivity and positive interpersonal relationships; it generally leads to an egocentric preoccupation with oneself, disruption of cognitive reasoning, and avoiding situations that the student fears. These in turn, lead to physiological harm. CL provides a better climate for better learning. It typically produces less anxiety and stress, and provides more effective coping strategies to deal with such situations (Johnson et al., 1995, p. 20).
II.1.2.12 Shared Responsibility for Thinking

Cooperation distributes the thinking load among the members. According to Pontecorvo (1985, as cited in Brown & Palincsar, 1989, p. 400)

What happens at the emotional level is that the group sustains the general emotive tension because it shares out the effort of thinking and reduces the anxiety produced by having to keep the argument going: each person has to think and say only one piece of the discourse, which can be used to construct another. This piece then comes back in more elaborated form in someone else’s statement, and can be used later at a level of greater complexity.

II.1.2.13 Models of Cognitive Processes

Another advantage of learning in social settings identified by Brown and Palinscar (1989, p. 401), in addition to having less of the thinking load placed on students’ shoulders, is that students’ roles are executed overtly. That is to say, students witness others’ enactment of each of the roles that correspond to thinking strategies. According to them, “in the course of group argument and explanation, the individual member is likely to witness a whole variety of epistemic operations, such as defining the problem, isolating important contributing variables, referring to context, past knowledge data or general principles, and evaluating progress”.

II.1.2.14 Internalization

Both the support and conflict aspects of CL can be removed from the social setting to the individual as they are individualized, internalized, and adopted as independent cognition. According to Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Brown & Palinscar, 1989, p. 408), “The greatest change in children’s capacity to use language as a problem solving tool takes place somewhat later in development, when socialized speech is turned inward (…). Language thus takes an intrapersonal function in addition to its interpersonal use”. Piaget (1926, as cited in Brown & Palinscar, 1989, p. 408) also claimed:
The adult, even in his most personal and private occupation, even when he is engaged on an enquiry which is incomprehensible to his fellow-beings, thinks socially, has continually in his mind’s eye his collaborators or opponents, actual or eventual, at any rate members of his own profession to whom sooner or later he will announce the result of his labours. This mental picture pursues him throughout his task. The task itself is henceforth socialized at almost every stage of development…the need for checking and demonstrating calls into being an inner speech addressed throughout to a hypothetical opponent whom the imagination often pictures as one of flesh and blood. When, therefore, the adult is brought face to face with his fellow beings, what he announces to them is something already socially elaborated and therefore roughly adapted to his audience.

II.1.2.15 Ability Levels of Group Members

According to Webb (1989, 1992, as cited in Slavin et al., 2003, p. 184), the students who gain most from CL activities are those who provide elaborated explanations to others. In the same vein, Dansereau (1988, as cited in Slavin et al., 2003, p. 184) found that students who received elaborated explanations learned better than those who worked alone.

II.1.2.16 Psychological Support and Acceptance

CL, in contrast with competitive and individualistic learning, result in stronger beliefs that one is personally liked, supported, and accepted by other students, that students care about how much their group mates learn, and want to help each other to learn. Moreover, CL experiences promote more positive attitudes towards the subject area and the instruction (Johnson & Johnson, 1985, pp. 118-119).

II.1.3 General Theoretical and Philosophical Roots

Many original theories of CL were strongly influenced by cognitive and social psychological principles. Piaget (as cited in Falchikov & Blythman, 2001, p. 86) argued that
traditional education was hampered by the lack of psychological or psych-sociological theories of childhood, and believed that these theories related to the active nature of knowledge would benefit the educator.

II.1.3.1 Developmental Psychology

The cognitive perspective emphasizes psychologically equal interaction while respecting other participants’ perspectives. Reciprocity between individuals gives support to perspective taking and enables learners to see things from different perspectives (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002, p. 20). Rubin, Burgess, Kennedy, and Stewart (2003, p. 375) pointed to the significance of peer interaction in the learner’s self evaluation and understanding in relation to others. Piaget (as cited in Jacobs, McCafferty, & Iddings, 2006, pp. 10-11) has always been supported for the creation of classroom environments that encourage students to play active roles while engaging in realist tasks. Scholars who work in the Piagetian tradition emphasize the importance of social context for arousing productive cognitive conflict. According to Piaget (1971, as cited in Falchikov & Blythman, 2001, p. 3), it is cooperation between peers that encourages real exchange of thought and discussion and leads to cognitive conflicts which is essential for the development of critical attitude of mind.

while Piaget believes that learning can not precede development since the latter is a precoded of our biology, and can not be accelerated through the help of the teacher, Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 11) argued that the development of the child is influenced by the sociocultural context through interaction, and that cooperation between peers encourages real exchange of thought and discussion and leads to cognitive conflicts which is essential for the development of critical attitude of mind. In other words, learning leads development. For him, the cognitive development is helped by actively direct learning. A key concept for this theoretical construct is the ZPD. According to Vygotsky (1978, as cited in
Jacobs et al., 2006, pp. 11-12), ZPD distinguishes between what someone can do cognitively alone or in conjunction with a more capable peer.

The difference between Piaget and Vygotsky’s perspectives is that Piaget’s ideas explain the role of social factors in situations characterized by the occurrence of cognitive conflict; he focused mainly on the development of the individual. Whereas, Vygotsky’s ideas emphasize the cognitive consequences of other social contexts in learning. While Piaget recognized that peers could arouse disequilibrium for each other by means of verbal interaction, Vygotsky believed that higher mental thinking is a result of social interactions. Vygotsky concentrated on the importance of the social interaction of learning. He assumed that the true direction of the development of thinking in children is not from the individual to the social, but from the social to the individual (Berg, 2009; Jones & Carter, 2004; Falchikov & Blythman, 2001).

II.1.3.2 Humanist Psychology

Maslow (1968, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 15) highlighted the importance of interpersonal closeness for growth to take place. Besides this, the need to know and understand, and the need to realize one’s potential and to connect with something beyond oneself are also important. In relation to affective concerns, humanists oppose traditional teaching and one-size-fits-all\(^7\) emphasizing the uniqueness of each individual. Newman and Holtzman (1993, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 12) consider vygotsky’s spacial metaphor as a dynamic view of the ZPD which reduces its transformational powers. For them, the ZPD is better considered as an activity that transforms the thinking of all participants in interaction. This perspective emphasizes the co-constructed nature of interaction and the importance of positive interdependence in CL.

\(^7\)One-size-fits-all is an approach based on the assumption that what to learn can be determined by someone outside the classroom (Kohn, 2000).
Moskowitz (1978, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 16) highlights the importance of learning groups in promoting individual development, the main aim of these learning activities is “to help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring to help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and to be proud of themselves”. The shift of focus from dependence on teacher toward self study (i.e., reliance on oneself and peers) is achieved through CL that aims to get every student to participate and to develop and to share their thinking through interaction with others (Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 16). Puchta and Schratoz (1993, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 16) linked this humanistic language learning with CL as follows:

1- To be successful, students need the skills and attitudes for cooperative interdependence in learning.

2- Because cooperative interdependence takes time for students to develop, teachers must continually be helping students toward this goal.

3- Cooperative interdependence entails the development of empathy and tolerance for others (i.e., the sharing of feelings aids this development)

4- Constructive, nonjudgmental feedback is vital.

5- Students should share power in deciding on instructional matters.

6- The development of collaborative skills should be combined with the development of language skills.

In addition to this, the social learning theory holds that new behaviors are learned or modified or combined into more complete behaviors. This process is accelerated in the presence of direct reinforcement through imitation. The latter, according to Bandura & Walters (1963, as cited in Taylor, Mackenney, 2008, p. 63), is to copy, to follow a model, or to repeat, rehearse, or reproduce. That is, Individuals acquire cognitive representations of behavior by observing models. In addition, sociocultural theories emphasize social participation holding that learners
are social beings that develop competence through participation in valued activities from which meaning can be made (O'Donnell, 2006, p. 787).

II.1.3.3 Global Education

The term global education refers to an area of education which emphasizes the value of helping students to develop not only in subject areas but as active citizens in their school and the world outside (Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 17). According to Dewey (1943, as cited in Tan, Sharan, & Lee, 2006, p. 17), the aim of education is to develop socially responsible citizens in democracy who can work together to solve social problems.

The challenge that Dewey presented in 1930’s, in opposition to traditional education that ignored the capacities and interests of the students, was to provide a structure within which students could have beneficial learning experiences (Kagan, 1985, p. 75). Although Dewey (as cited in Walker, 2002, p. 28) did not use the term constructivism, he planted the seeds that created a soil favorable to the growth of constructivist theory. He assumed that students must learn and make sense of new knowledge together. He saw learning as a social endeavor, and his ideas are illustrated in CL. He held that authentic experiences are essential to learning. That is to say, education should allow students to experience life instead of preparing them for life. He argued that the structures of education should model democracy which is the chief purpose of education. He also believed that the development of the self into a self-directing, inquiring, and reasoning human being was central to education.

One of the crucial achievements for global education is to make students realize the importance of positive interdependence existing along them. One way to put this realization of positive interdependence into action, according to Jacobs et al. (2006, p. 17) is CL which enables students to work together. Tan et al. (2006, p. 17) also claim that children should experience the process of democracy in the classroom through cooperation. They should check the information obtained from different perspectives and discuss its meaning to construct their knowledge. CL
differs from traditional class teaching in that it engages students in the pursuit of knowledge. Students’ participation in decision making and implementation of these decisions help them in directing their lives.

II.1.4 Major Theoretical Perspectives: Evidence of Promotive Participation

Although Research on CL lies in the early days of the last century, The amount and quality of research on this topic greatly accelerated in the early 1970s and continues today (Slavin et al., 2003, p. 179). Studies on the superiority of CL methods over traditional classes have suggested a wide range of theoretical models that fall into two categories: social motivational and cognitive. Slavin et al. (2003) and O’Donnell (2006) identified four major theoretical perspectives: motivational, social cohesion, cognitive developmental and cognitive elaboration perspectives.

II.1.4.1 Social Motivational Perspectives

Building on the theorizing of Deutsch (1949, as cited in Slavin, 1996, p. 27), goal structures can be: (a) cooperative, where each individual’s goal oriented efforts contribute to others’ goal attainment; (b) competitive, where each individuals’s goal-oriented efforts discourage other’s goal attainment; or (c) individualistic, where individual’s goal oriented efforts have no impact on other’s goal attainment. For the motivationalist, the competitive grading in traditional classrooms creates norms that oppose academic efforts, that is to say, one student’s success decreases the opportunities for others to have a similar rank. In contrast, working together toward a shared goal motivates the students and encourage each other’s efforts to learn. Johnson and Johnson (1985, p. 104) claim that “in cooperative goal structure, the goals of the separate individuals are so linked together that there is a positive correlation among their goal attainments (...) an individual can attain his or her goal if and only if the other participants can attain their goals.” Whereas, “In a competitive social situation, the goals of the separate participants are so linked that there is a negative correlation among their goal attainments. An
individual can attain his or her goal if and only if the other participants cannot attain their goals”.
While “In an individualistic situation, there is no correlation among the goal attainments of the participants. Whether an individual accomplishes his or her goal has no influence on whether other individuals achieve their goals”

The motivationalists (as cited in Slavin, 1996, p. 28; Slavin et al., 2003, p. 179) deemed group rewards to be essential to the effectiveness of CL in changing students’ incentives to do academic work. This is based on the individual learning and the participation of all group members. Incentive structures, according to Allen and Plax (1999, p. 508), are seen as the central issue in understanding how instructional practices affect learning outcomes. The motivationalists (as cited in O’Donnell, 2006, p. 782) also view task motivation as the major impact on the learning process that drives other processes such as planning and helping. One characteristic of a social motivational perspective to CL is the use of reward to create positive interdependence among group members. The fact that the whole group will be rewarded motivates the students to work together and help each other.

From a motivational perspective (Slavin, 1995, p. 157), CL structures create a situation in which the only way for the students to attain their own personal goals is by helping their group mates to do whatever helps the group to succeed. CL motivates the students to help their group mates in order to attain the group goal which is based on the individual participation of each group member. According to Slavin et al. (2003, pp. 179-180) the theory of “group contingencies” requires students to engage in behaviors that help the group to be rewarded since their outcomes are dependent on one another’s behaviors. Whereas competitive grading and informal reward system in traditional classrooms create peer norms that oppose academic efforts because one student’s success decreases the chances that others will succeed. However, working together to accomplish a group goal creates norms that favor doing whatever is necessary for the
group to succeed. According to Slavin (1996, pp. 27-28), CL is an activity that gets students ahead in their peer group.

II.1.4.2 Social Cohesion Perspective

Similar to the motivational perspective, the social cohesion perspective emphasizes the motivational explanations, rather than cognitive ones, for the instructional effectiveness of CL. Social cohesion theorists hold that the cohesiveness of the group affects CL achievement. That is to say, promotive interaction among the group mates is determined by the group cohesion. Social cohesion perspective to CL depends on positive interdependence among group mates. If so, Students will help and encourage each others’ efforts to learn (Jhonson, Jhonson, & Smith, 2000, p. 206; Slavin et al., 2003, p. 180). Similarly, Rogers (1979, as cited in Jacobs et al., 2006, p. 15) argued that positive interpersonal relations and empathetic understanding enhance the student psychological growth.

The basic premise of social interdependence, according to Jhonson et al. (2000, p. 206), is that the way social interdependence is structured determines how individual interact, which in turn determines outcomes. That is, Positive interdependence (cooperation) results in promotive interaction as individuals encourage and facilitate each other’s efforts to learn. While Negative interdependence (competition) typically results in oppositional interaction as individuals discourage and obstruct each other’s efforts to achieve. In the absence of a functional interdependence, there is no interaction as individuals work independently without interchange with each other.

However, research on CL methods based only on group cohesion theories provides inconsistent support to the idea that social cohesiveness will enhance achievement. Slavin (2000, p. 538) asserts that “methods which emphasize teambuilding and group process but do not provide specific group rewards based on the learning of all group members are no more effective than traditional instruction in increasing achievement”.
II.1.4.3 Developmental Perspective

While social motivational theories focus primarily on the effects of reward or incentive structure, cognitive theories focus on whether or not groups will achieve a goal by working together. The cognitive perspectives hold that student achievement is highly increased through interaction which affects the mental processing of information and not the motivation. There are several cognitive theories which fall into two major categories: developmental theories and cognitive elaboration theories.

The main assumption of the developmental theorists is that full cognitive development requires social interaction among peers that increases their mastery of critical concepts (Nijhof and Kommers, 1985, p. 128; Slavin et al., 2003, p. 182). Vygotsky (1978, as cited in Slavin et al., 2003, p. 182; Slavin, 2000, p. 539) explained the influence of collaborative activity as follows: “functions are first formed in the collective in the form of relations among children and then become mental functions for the individual (…). Research shows that reflection is spawned from argument”. He also highlighted the importance of peers operating in one another’s ZPD and pointed that what children can attain with the assistance of others is more than what they can attain alone. He defined the ZPD as follows: “the distance between the actual developmental levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978, as cited in Slavin, 1996, p. 28; Brown, Palincsar, 1989, p. 409). When doing so, a stimulating environment awakens a variety of developmental processes within the student, leading to higher level of cognition. Such a stimulating environment can be organized by means of CL (Nijhof and Kommers, 1985, p. 128).

Similarly, Piaget (1926, as cited in Allen & Plax, 1999, p. 499) indicated that certain types of knowledge, including language, can be learned only in interaction with others. Students’ discussion of the content leads to cognitive conflicts and disequilibrium that result in higher
quality of understanding (Slavin et al., 2003, pp. 182-183). In contrast with motivational perspective, Damon (1984, as cited in Slavin et al., 2003, p. 183) refused the use of extrinsic incentives as part of the group learning situation and viewed that the fundamental element in CL activities is the opportunities learners have to discuss, argue, and exchange their viewpoints. He proposed a conceptual foundation for a peer-based plan of education which is an integration of Piagetian, Vygotskian, and Sullivanian perspectives on peer collaboration

1- Through mutual feedback and debate, peers motivate one another to abandon misconceptions and search for better solutions.

2- The experience of peer communication can help a child master social processes, such as participation and argumentation, and cognitive processes, such as verification and criticism.

3- Collaboration between peers can provide a forum for discovery learning and can encourage creative thinking.

4- Peer interaction can introduce children to the process of generating ideas.

Although there is no explicit research that links this considerable theoretical work to classroom practice, the cognitive processes are important mediating variables that can explain the positive outcomes of effective CL methods (Slavin et al., 2003, p. 183).

II.1.4.4 Cognitive Elaboration Perspective

Cognitive elaboration theorists (as cited in O'Donnell, 2006, p. 784) are also concerned with cognitive structuring more than social interaction. Cognitive elaboration approaches to CL are based on information procession theory. The theory holds that processing activities such as encoding, schema activation, rehearsal, metacognition, and retrieval that are performed cooperatively result in deeper processing of the information. Students help each other to understand by providing feedback and check their understanding of the content by providing explanations.
Research in cognitive psychology held that learners must engage in some manners of restructuring and elaborating the new material in order to retain the new information in memory and relate it to an old one (Wittrock, 1986, 1978, as cited in Slavin et al., 2003, p. 183; Allen & Plax, 1999, p. 500). Piaget (as cited in Brown & Palincsar, 1989, p. 395; Falchikov & Blythman, 2001, p. 86) argued that when individuals encounter new information which does not fit into their current knowledge and thought, a contradiction occurs as a result of dissatisfaction with this information seen from different perspectives. This leads to a state “disequilibrium”. A search for a new equilibrium appears through questioning, criticizing, explaining, and evaluating the information. That is, accommodating it and modifying their current understanding. Similarly, Johnson and Johnson (1985, p. 207) claim that “when students are confronted with opposing points of view, uncertainty or conceptual conflicts results, which creates a reconceptualization and an information search, which in turn result in a more refined and thoughtful conclusion”. The following figure illustrates the Controversy Theory developed by the Johnsons.

**Figure 5:** Process of Controversy (adapted from Johnson & Johnson, 1985, p. 131)
The main goal is to reach a consensus on a given issue by seeing it from different perspectives and to create a synthesis to which all sides can agree.

The difference between the developmental approach of Piaget and the information processing approach, according to Taylor and Mackenney (2008, p. 92) is that the former “has primarily been concerned with the characterization of tasks and the sequence in which the child learns to solve these tasks”, while the latter “has been concerned with the processing apparatus necessary to handle even the most elementary forms of cognition”.

II.1.4.5 Contrasting the Perspectives

During 30 years of deep research on CL, there is still disagreement on the relationships among the important variables involved in CL (Slavin et al., 2003, p. 184). One crucial difference between them is the ignorance of rewards or goal structure in CL by the developmentalists. According to Slavin (1995, p. 158), the combination of group rewards and individual accountability is most frequently associated with academic achievement gains. In contrast, the developmentalists argued that intrinsic but not extrinsic rewards are an important component of CL.

In their comparison between the two theoretical models, Melothe and Deering (1994, as cited in Allen and Plax, 1999, p. 500) noted that motivational theories address whether groups perform better than individuals, whereas developmental theories focus on the role of social interaction in learning, and cognitive elaboration theories explain the role of student-student interaction in restructuring or elaboration. These researchers assumed also that the rewards associated with CL lead to effective interdependence among group mates, while cognitive elaboration promotes deep processing of information.

However, these theoretical perspectives can be considered as complementary rather than contradictory. For instance, motivational perspective sees motivation as a stimulus for the
cognitive processes, which in turn produce learning. Accordingly, students can not engage in restructuring their knowledge through cooperative work without enhancing their motivation by designing a goal structure. In the same vein, social cohesion theorists assert that extrinsic motivation comes from the group cohesiveness and the positive interdependence among the group members, which in turn enhance cognitive processes (Slavin et al., 2003. pp, 178-179). Moreover, Taylor and Mackenney (2008, p. 57) view the social cognitive perspective as a reconceptualization of these perspectives. Social cognitive perspective holds that thought and other personal factors, behaviors, and the environment all operate as interacting determinants of human being. This emphasizes Bandura’s claim (2001, as cited Taylor & Mackenney, 2008, p. 57) that social cognitive theory sees human behavior from a natural science perspective by integrating the effects of environment and the role of cognition. He used the term “triadic reciprocality” to describe the social cognitive model. A major assumption of social learning theory is that affective (motivation), cognitive, and behavioral variables interact in the learning process. The following diagram is a model of CL processes.

**Figure 6:** Functional Relationships among the Major Interaction Components of Group Learning (Adapted from in Slavin et al., 2003. p, 179)
The figure represents the main components of a group learning interaction and the functional relationship between the major theoretical perspectives to CL. The diagram starts with a focus on group motivation based on the individual learning of all group members.

II.2 Cooperative Learning Methods

Although Social psychological research on CL dates back to the 1920’s, research on the applications of CL to the classroom did not start until the early 1970s (Slavin, 1996, p. 20). The more widely-researched CL methods include Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD), Team-Games-Tournament (TGT), Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC), Jigsaw and Jigsaw II, the Structural Approach, Learning Together, Complex Instruction, and Group Investigation. These methods can be categorized, as found in Tan, Sharan, Lee (2006), into:

II.2.1 Student Team Learning (STL)

STL methods are developed and researched at Hopkins University. In addition to the common idea shared by all CL methods that students work together to learn and are responsible for their classmates’ learning as well as their own, STL methods emphasize the use of team goals and team success that can be achieved only if all the group members learn the objectives being taught. Slavin (1996, pp. 20-21) state that “in Student Team Learning students’ task is not to do something as a team but to learn something as a team”. He identifies three central concepts to all STL methods: a) team rewards, that is to say the groups may earn a reward if they achieve above a designated criterion, b) individual accountability, this means that the group’s success depends on the individual learning of all members, and c) equal opportunities for success, that is, high, average and low achievers are equally challenged to do the best and participate in the group efforts by improving their own past performance. He also presents five principal STL methods that have been widely developed. Among these, three are general CL methods that can be adapted to most subject and grade level: STAD, TGT, and jigsaw II. The two left CIRC and
Team Accelerated Instruction are comprehensive curricula designed for use in particular subjects.

### II.2.1.1 Student Teams-Achievement Divisions (STAD)

This method involves competition among groups. Students are grouped heterogeneously by ability, gender, race, and ethnicity. Students learn the material in teams and take quizzes as individuals. Individual scores contribute to a group score. The points contributed to the group are based on a student’s improvement over previous quiz performance. The main idea behind STAD divisions, according to Slavin (1996, p. 21), is to motivate students to encourage each other to master the skills presented by the teacher. Although they learn together, they can not help each other with the quizzes; every one must learn the material. It is this individual accountability which motivates students to explain the material to each other, as the only way for the group to succeed is for the group members to master the information or the skills being taught. Kagan (1985, pp. 68-69) presented five elements of STAD:

1. **Class presentation:** the material is initially presented by the teacher or in an audiovisual presentation to the whole class.

2. **Teams:** the teams are composed of four to five heterogeneous students who represent a cross section of the class. The group members work together in a peer-tutoring format to master the material of the learning unit. The group members can also quiz each other to master the information.

3. **Quizzes:** students are evaluated through quizzes that assess individual achievement on the material presented to the class.

4. **Individual improvement scores:** a detailed scoring system allows students to earn points for their groups based on improvement over past performance.

5. **Team recognition:** recognition is provided for individuals of high weekly performance or who are most improved.
II.2.1.2 Team-Games-Tournament (TGT)

TGT has many of the same dynamics as STAD. According to Slavin (1996, p. 22), it was originally developed by David DeVries and Keith Edwards and was the first of John Hopkins CL methods, but it is now widely associated with Slavin. TGT is identical to STAD in that it uses the same teacher presentations and team work, except that quizzes are replaced with academic game tournament, and individual improvement score are replaced with a bumping system. That is, students play academic games at three-person tournament tables that are homogeneous with regard to ability. This keeps the game fair and gives students equal opportunities to earn points for their group. The role of group mates is to help one another by studying together and explaining the material for each other, but until they play the games they should ensure individual accountability because their group mates cannot help each other during the game.

II.2.1.3 Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)

CIRC is a comprehensive program for teaching reading and writing in the upper elementary and middle grades. Students work on materials appropriate to their level. In pairs, within their groups, students work on cognitively engaging activities (e.g., reading to one another, summarizing stories to one another, practicing spelling, etc.). Then, they work with their group members to master comprehension skills. Students later engage in a writer’s workshop (i.e., writing drafts, revising and editing one another’s work …etc). Group rewards and certificates given to the group are based on the average performance of all team members on all reading and writing activities. Students’ contributions to their groups rely on their quiz scores and individual written composition which ensure individual accountability (Slavin, 1996, pp. 23-24).
II.2.1.4 Jigsaw I and Jigsaw II

Jigsaw I is the original version of jigsaw II and jigsaw III. It was developed to place students in extreme interdependence. Each student in a five-member group is given one part of the material, but assessed on how well he masters the whole material. Students form expert group with members of other groups, then return back to their groups to teach each other the part of the material they comprise (Kagan, 1985, p. 70; Tan et al., 2006, p. 9).

Jigsaw II is an adaptation of Aronson’s jigsaw technique. Similar to STAD and TGT, students work in the same four-members, heterogeneous groups. The difference with this method is that students are assigned the same material to read (e.g. Books, chapters …), then, each group member is randomly assigned to research and become an expert on some aspect of the reading material. For example, in a unit of a specific country, one member of each group has to become expert on history, another on economics, a third on geography, and a fourth on culture. Experts from different group meet to discuss their common point and then return to teach their topics to their group members to be assessed and scored in the same way like in STAD (Kagan, 1985, p. 71; Slavin, 1996, p. 22; Tan et al., 2006, p. 9).

II.2.2 Structural Approach

The Structural Approach is a collection of content-free procedures for organizing social interactions among very small groups of students in the classroom. Some of the established structures include Number Heads Together, Roundrobin, and Three-Step Interview which can be used to meet particular academic and social needs. While Numbered Heads Together focuses on mastery of subject matter, both Roundrobin and Three-Step Interview focus on team building. Numbered Heads Together involves the teacher asking a question, students consulting with their group members to make sure that everyone knows the answer, and then one member is called upon to provide the answer. In Roundrobin, students take turns to share something with their
group members. In Three-Step Interview, students take turns interviewing each other in pairs and then share with the class the information they learned (Tan et al., 2006, p. 9).

II.2.3 Learning Together

The Johnsons’ Learning Together models of CL are probably the most widely used of all cooperative methods. It involves students working in four-to-five heterogenous groups. Rewards and praise are based on the group product, that is, how well they are working together as a group (Slavin, 1996, p. 24; Tan et al., 2006, pp. 9-10).

II.2.4 Complex Instruction

Cohen (1986, as cited in Slavin, 1996, p. 24) and her colleagues investigated approaches to Complex Instruction that emphasize the use of discovery-oriented projects in different areas among them social studies. Projects in Complex Instruction require a wide variety of roles and skills; hence, teachers point out how each student is good at something that helps the group to succeed. This brings respect for all students’ abilities. According to Tan et al. (2006, p. 10), there are three components of Complex Instruction: (1) open-ended tasks that require different skills and abilities; (2) a change in the authority structure of the classroom to give students control over their learning; and (3) classroom norms to treat status problems and to give students opportunities for equal participation.

II.2.5 Group Investigation

Quite in contrast with the STAD, TGT, and Jigsaw techniques which are oriented toward student acquisition of predetermined facts and skills, Group Investigation was designed to provide students with very broad and diverse learning experiences (Kagan, 1985, p. 72). Group Investigation is developed by Shlomo and Yeael Sharan at the university of Tel Aviv (as cited in Slavin, 1996, p. 24; Tan et al., 2006, p. 10). In this method, students form their own groups (from two to six). Then select topics from a unit being studied by the whole class, and then, break them
into individual tasks, and carry out the activities to prepare group reports which will be presented to the entire class (Slavin, 1996, p. 24). The method, according to Kagan (1985, p. 72) requires the coordination of four dimensions of classroom life: (1) organizing the classroom into “group of groups”, (2) using divers learning tasks for cooperative group investigation, (3) including multilateral communication among students and active learning skills (4) teacher communication and guidance of the group. The GI method is a form of project method of classroom teaching that encourages students to have control over their learning and to be self directed learning through group-centered decision making that promotes interaction and gives equal opportunities for participation (Slavin, 1996, p. 24).

II.3 Cooperative Learning Elements

CL is characterized by a number of requirements which differentiate it from other learning groups. Kagan’s model (1994, as cited in Foster & Shirly, 2004, p. 198) is structured around four basic principles: positive interdependence, individual accountability, equal participation, and simultaneous interaction. The Johnsons (1995, 2000) agree with Kagan’s four principles for CL and stress two additional conditions of their own. The Johnson’s model comprises positive interdependence, face-to-face promotive interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing. These elements provide the structure for positive learner-to-learner interaction, active involvement in learning, the possibility of higher achievement, and individual reflection.

II.3.1 Positive Interdependence

All for one and one for all. Positive interdependence is a sense of sink or swim together. As students work toward a common goal, team cooperation and fellow success becomes imperative. The gain of one is associated with gains of the other members. That is, each student must perceive that he or she is linked with others in such a way that the student cannot succeed unless the others do. Each student must be responsible for learning the assigned material and for
making sure that all the members of the group do likewise. It is positive interdependence that requires group members to roll up their sleeves and work together to accomplish something beyond individual success. It is positive interdependence that creates the realization that members have two responsibilities: to learn the assigned material and to ensure that all members of their group learn the assigned material. Positive interdependence can be supplemented by adding joint rewards; for instance, if all members of a group score a certain high percentage correct or better on the test, each receives bonus points (Johnson et al., 2000, pp. 207-208; Kagan, 1994, as cited in Foster & Shirly, 2004, p. 200).

II.3.2 Equal Participation

Placing students in groups and expecting them to work together will not increasingly promote CL. According to Gillies (2003, p. 37), “Some children will defer to the more able children in the group who may take over the important roles in ways that benefit them at the expense of other group members. Similarly, others will be inclined to leave the work to others while they exercise only token commitment to the task”. Equal participation refers to the fact that no student should be allowed to dominate a group, either socially or academically, and that no student should be allowed to loaf or hitchhike. When positive interdependence is understood, it highlights the fact that each group member’s efforts are required and indispensable for group success (i.e., there can be no free riders) and each group member has to participate with his unique contribution to the joint efforts (i.e., there can be no social loafing) (Kagan, 1994, as cited in Foster & Shirly, 2004, p. 201).

II.3.3 Face-to-face Promotive Interaction

Promotive interaction involves individuals encouraging and facilitating each other’s efforts as they work together on the group task. Team members are strategically seated in order to encourage eye-to-eye, knee-to-knee interaction. Through team building activities, promotive behavior is facilitated. Face-to-face promotive interaction give way to helping, assisting,
supporting, encouraging, and praising one another’s efforts to learn and facilitates one another’s success. These, in turn, promote cognitive processes such as explaining how to solve a problem, teaching one’s knowledge to a classmate, and connecting present with past learning. Promotive interaction also leads to interpersonal processes such as challenging one another’s reasoning, modeling and facilitating efforts to learn. It also encourages and facilitates each other’s efforts by providing explanations and information to assist understanding and constructivist feedback, and to improve performance with a task and access to the needed materials and resources (Johnson et al., 2000, p. 208).

The main characteristics of promotive interaction are: (a) providing each other with effective and efficient help and assistance, (b) exchanging needed resources and processing information more efficiently and effectively, (c) providing each other with feedback to improve their performance, (d) challenging each other’s reasoning to promote higher quality decision making and greater insights into the problem (e) influencing each other’s efforts to learn (f) acting in trusting and trustworthy ways, (g) motivation to strive for mutual benefit, and (h) feeling less anxiety and stress (Johnson & Johnson, 1989a, as cited in Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1995, p. 13).

II.3.4 Individual Accountability

Another key variable mediating the effectiveness of cooperation is a sense of personal responsibility to participate and contribute one’s efforts to accomplish the task. This involves completing one’s part of the work, and facilitating the work of other group members. The sense of commitment to each other due to positive interdependence and promotive interaction helps children to be accountable for their efforts. The more students perceive they are linked together, the more they participate in the group efforts. Individual accountability is structured through the accession of the participation of each student by a) giving an individual test to each student, b) having each student explain what he or she has learned to a classmate, or c) observing each
group and documenting the contributions of each member (Johnson et al., 2000, p. 208). The purpose is to make students learning together and performing better as individuals.

II.3.5 Interpersonal and Small Group Skills

We are not born instinctively knowing how to interact effectively with others. Simply placing socially unskilled students in a group and telling them to cooperate does not guarantee that they are able to do so effectively. Interpersonal and small-group skills do not magically appear when they are needed. Students must be taught the social skills and must be motivated to use them if cooperative groups are to be productive. This includes leadership, decision making, trust building, communication, and conflict-management skills. According to Gillies (2003, p. 38), the interpersonal skills that facilitate interaction include:

1- Actively listening to each other during group discussions;
2- Considering the other person’s perspective on issues;
3- Stating ideas freely without fear of derogatory comments;
4- Being responsible for one’s own behavior; and
5- Constructively critiquing the ideas presented.

II.3.6 Group Processing

Group processing means that the group must regularly examine their function, the use of appropriate social skills and the identification of ways to improve the processes to maximize each member’s learning; for instance, describing what member actions were helpful and less helpful in ensuring effective working relationships, making decisions about what behaviors to keep or change. Johnson, Johnson and Holubec, (1993a, cited in Jacob, 1999, p. 20) identified five steps involved in group processing: (1) the teacher or students assess the quality of students’ interactions; (2) each learning group receives feedback; (3) groups set goals for improving their
effectiveness; (4) the whole class processes how it is functioning; and (5) groups and whole class celebrate their successes. According to Gillies (2003, p. 39), the small group skills that facilitate participation in CL include:

1- Taking turns to present ideas and share resources;
2- Sharing tasks equitably among group members;
3- Resolving differences of opinion and conflict; and
4- Ensuring decisions that affect the group are decided democratically.

II.4 Cooperative Learning Pitfalls

Slavin (1996, p. 30) highlights some important pitfalls that must be avoided for CL to be successful. These are “the free rider effect”, “the diffusion of responsibility”, and “task specialization”. The free rider effect happens if CL is not properly constructed. In this case some group members do all or most of the task while others go along for a ride. It is most likely to appear when the group has a single task such as handing a single report or completing a single worksheet. Besides this, students who are perceived to be less skillful are ignored by the group members and this creates the problem of diffusion of responsibility. For instance, if a group’s assignment is to write about a specific topic, the students’ participation which is believed to be inefficient could be ignored, and there is little incentive for the more active participants to explain what they are doing to the less able students. This can be eliminated, according to Slavin (1996), in two principal ways: the first is to make each group responsible for a special part of the group assignment (the case in jigsaw and group investigation methods and other related methods, however, this in turn creates the problem of task specialization making students learning a great deal of the part of the task they worked on but less about the rest of the task. the second is through having students be individually accountable for their learning such as in STL methods where group reward is based on the sum of the individual quiz score or performance of each
member. In this way, each member has to make sure that he has learned the content as well as the other group members.

**Conclusion**

This chapter introduces the world of CL, especially in terms of theoretical knowledge, without which grasping the practical side of the work would be difficult. CL is based on a profound strategic theory and practice, seeking to provide learners with equal participation opportunities. CL methods engage learners in groups’ interaction and involve each member’s participation; however, this can not be achieved unless the essential elements are applied. Through this review of CL definition, methods, and elements, a sharp difference between CL and traditional group work is marked upon which our diagnosis will be built; we will try to find about the extent to which CL strategies are utilized to implement group tasks and how teachers define and perceive group work. Also, what methods the teachers follow to implement it and what instructional procedures they use to assign such tasks. We aim along our examination to identify group work pitfalls that may cause its failure in promoting learners’ opportunities to participate by referring to the learner’ perception of their levels which we believe may determine their interaction and participation in groups as explained by Slavin (1996). Also, a list of recommendations will be set to help teachers to better implement group work activities.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN

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Introduction

“In its most basic and simplest form, research is a way of finding out answers to questions” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 1). Thus, our task is to explore the research questions, and provide some solutions or at least explanations. This can be done with a range of methods and tools explained in this chapter.

III.1 Selecting Methods

To deal with issues in educational research, we need to consider the following questions: a) what makes one method of investigation more useful than another in a research? And b) how does the nature of the topic affect the kind of the research undertaken? To answer these questions, it is argued that any kind of research can be as good as any other provided that it can withstand the objectives of the study. according to Wright and Fowler (1986, p. 6), “your choice of research strategy should ideally be governed by the specific aims and considerations pertaining to your particular investigation, and not simply by your discipline or that adopted by other workers in your area of research”. Our study seeks to describe an educational phenomenon by delineating its features. The descriptive approach best withstands the nature of the issue, the type of the data needed, and the objectives of the study.

As we knew a little about the teaching/learning conditions, and since few decisions regarding the research questions were made before the research begins, we first opted for a heuristic approach which justifies our research undertaking. We wanted to have a holistic view on the difficulties teachers and learners encounter in English foreign languages classes. After we had decided on one particular aspect which is pupils’ minimal participation during group tasks, we opted for a descriptive approach to answer the research questions aimed understanding the teachers and pupils’ attitudes towards group work, their behaviors during group tasks, and the factors that impact learners’ interaction and participation in groups. Besides this, in order to get a
more in-depth understanding of the learners’ perception of their level we opted for an exploratory approach.

**III.2 Data Collection Procedures**

To have a holistic view on the teaching/learning situation we designed two pre-questionnaires, for both the teachers and the pupils, which involve different issues related to the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. The descriptive approach took the form of questionnaires designed also for both the teachers and the pupils and which seek to describe their’ attitudes and behaviors during group tasks, and to find out the factors that affect the learners’ interaction and participation in groups. Questionnaires, according to, Brown (2001, as cited in Dornyei 2003, p. 6), are “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing their answers or selecting from among existing answers”. Finally, we have opted for the Focus-Group Interview to explore how learners perceive their levels. Beck, Trombetta, and Share (1986, as cited in Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996, p. 4) describe the focus group interview as “an informal discussion among selected individuals about specific topics relevant to the situation at hand”.

**III.3 Identifying Target Population**

The target population consists of second year pupils of Soumani Mehmoud secondary school, Kherrata. They represent a total number of two hundred thirty seven (237) pupils, and four English teachers as the whole number of English teachers. We deliberately decided to conduct our research with second year secondary school pupils because at this stage pupils wishing to major in English or other languages choose the literature or languages stream. We assume that teaching learners the social skills at early stages of their language specialization is important.
III.4 Selecting the Sample

The selection of the sample is purposive. This means “handpicking supposedly typical or interesting cases” (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, 2006, p. 163). In addition to the accessibility of the sample, the participants possess some key characteristics that are related to the purpose of the study (Aiken, 1997, as cited in Dorney, 2003). The sample is representative of the total population (it is more than one fifth of the population), and also involves some criteria which are considered important in our study. Our sample consists of sixty five pupils from languages and literature classes. As the number of English teachers is small, therefore, we took all of them (i.e., four).

III.5 Teachers and Learners’ Questionnaires

To answer the research questions, we have designed two questionnaires, one for the teachers and the other for the pupils. The learners’ questionnaire seeks to know about their attitudes towards group work, their perception of the group tasks assignment, and their activity during group tasks. The teachers’ questionnaire is designed to know about their positions towards CL and how these affect its implementation. The questionnaires share many common points to understand the teaching/learning situation from both perspectives, and involve both close and open-ended questions to obtain quantitative and qualitative data. The aim from adopting a qualitative method is to “seek insight rather than statistical analysis” (Bell, 1987, p. 4). It is much more concerned with the teachers’ positions and practices in the classroom.

III.5.1 Description and Administration of Learners’ Questionnaire

The present study uses a questionnaire intended to two classes out of seven (i.e., sixty 65 pupils out of 237), enrolled at Soumani Mehmoud secondary school, Kherrata. The questionnaire was first piloted on another second year class of thirty three (33) pupils mainly to detect points of misunderstanding as far as the wording and the structure of the questions are concerned. The
final version of the questionnaires, translated into the learners’ first language (Arabic) to ensure that the pupils understand the items and answer appropriately, was handed to the selected sample. Before giving the questionnaires, the learners were explained the topic to ensure their understanding and proper answers. The questionnaires were completed in half an hour with our presence and with the absence of the teacher, and given back all answered.

The questionnaire contains nineteen questions designed to gather information about the learners’ marks, their attitudes towards group work, and their position towards the group tasks’ assignment, and their activity during these tasks. It consists of close-ended questions where the students were asked to tick the right answers that best correspond to their positions.

- **Section I**: General Information (Question 1)

  This section of the questionnaire is intended to find out how the learners perceive their level (i.e., not necessarily the actual one) which may correlate with their positions in the following sections.

- **Section II**: learners’ Attitudes towards Cooperative Learning (Questions 2 to 5)

  In this section, the learners are asked to identify the way they prefer to work to accomplish the assigned tasks whether individually, cooperatively, or competitively (Q 2), and whether they prefer to interact with their teacher, classmates, both, or none of them (Q3).

  In Questions 4 and 5, the learners are required to express their positions towards giving help and receiving help; whether it up sets them when asking for help or giving help. The learners are asked to tick the answer that correspond to their position (i.e., strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, or undecided)
• **Section III**: Learners Activity during Collaborative Work (Questions 6 to 13)

In this section, the learners are required to report the way they accomplish group work; their interaction (Q6) and participation (Q7). Moreover, the learners are asked to identify the factors that may limit their participation (Q8 & Q9)

In Question 10, the learners are asked how often they feel responsible and accountable during group work; whether always, sometimes, rarely, or never. They are also required to express their commitment to the success of the group and their group mates as well (Q11).

In question 12, they are asked about the group processing, that is to say, whether they evaluate the way they have been working together. Question 13, requires them to identify their goals while working together, whether to succeed as individuals or a group.

• **Section IV**: Learners Position towards the Teacher’s Implementation of Group Work (Questions 14 to 19)

In this section, the learners deal with the group tasks’ assignment. They are asked to report the way their teachers assign these tasks and evaluate them. The learners are asked how often their teachers assign group tasks (Q14), whether very often, often, rarely, or never. They are also required to say how often the teachers encourage individual participation (Q15) and group interaction to accomplish the group tasks (Q16), whether always, sometimes, rarely, or never. Question 17 requires the learners to say whether their teachers intervene to help them during their collaboration.

The two last questions deal with the group tasks assessment and reward. The learners are asked to say whether they are rewarded when working in groups or not (Q18). The next question (Q19) is directed to those who would answer “yes” to report the way their teachers evaluate their efforts. That is to say, whether the teachers assess individual performance, group product, both of them, or may be otherwise which the learners are asked to specify.
III.5.2 Description and Administration of Teachers’ Questionnaire

Teachers may decide to use various ways of implementing group tasks. Their decision, in turn, may be affected by many factors. Thus, the questionnaire includes two main sections that deal with teachers’ positions and standpoints towards group work and their teaching practices during the unrolling of such tasks. In addition, the questionnaire constitutes of a short section devoted for background information. The questionnaire involves close ended questions where the teachers are required to tick one of the answers provided, and open ended questions where the teachers are asked to provide their own answers. The teachers’ questionnaire was handed to four teachers; they were all explained the purpose of the questionnaire and assured that their answers will remain confidential. Hence, all the teachers returned the questionnaires answered.

- **Section 1: Professional Views on Group Work (Questions 1 to 20)**

  This section deals with the teachers’ position towards group learning. First, they were required to identify the way they deliver the lesson, whether by explaining the material, helping the students to deduce it, or otherwise which they are asked to specify (Q1). They are also asked how they distribute participation turns, whether by giving the turn for one pupil at a time, setting competition for turns, deciding on the next turn, or otherwise (Q2). In the next question (Q3) the teachers are required to say how they intervene to promote learners’ participation in class.

  In Question 4, the teachers are required to give their opinions on the new teaching/learning paradigm, and the shift emphasis from the teacher to the learner. Also, they are asked to give their view points concerning competitive learning and learners’ achievement (Q5), peer interaction (Q6), and group learning (Q7).

  The remaining questions of this section deal with some factors that may impact teachers implementation of group tasks. For instance, teacher are asked to evaluate their learners’ social abilities (Q8), learners’ participation (Q9), learners’ domination of the group (Q10), learners’
loafing (Q11), learners motivation to work in groups (Q12), learners understanding and abilities to accomplish group tasks (Q13), good learners’ achievement (Q14), the time required to prepare the learners for group work (Q15), the physical set up of the classroom (Q16), the teachers’ training on group work implementation (Q17), and other difficulties that the teachers encounter when assigning group tasks (Q18). Question 19 requires the teachers to mention other difficulties they encounter, beyond the ones suggested previously. Question 20 is aimed to find how often the teachers assign group tasks.

- **Section II:** General Information (Questions 21 and 22)

  In this section, the teachers are asked how long they have been teaching English (Q21), and how long they have been implementing group work (Q22).

- **Section III:** Teaching Practices (Questions 23 to 32)

  In this section, the teachers are asked about their conception of group work (Q23). In Question 24, the teachers are asked which of the suggested methods they follow to implement group tasks, whether Group Investigation, Learning Together, Complex Instruction, STL, Jigsaw, Structural Approach, or another one which they are asked to identify.

  Also, the teachers are asked to what extent they structure positive interdependence among the group mates (Q25), encourage individual participation (Q26), insist on individuals’ accountability (Q27), and highlight interpersonal and social skills (Q28).

  In Question 29, the teachers are asked how often they intervene to provide the groups with help, whether always, often, rarely, or never. Also, they are required to identify the goals they set for group tasks whether subject matter or communicative goals (Q30).

  The two last questions deal with the reward structure of group tasks. The teachers are asked whether they reward students’ cooperation (Q31), and how they do so; whether by
rewarding individual performance, the group products, both of these, or otherwise which they are
required to identify (Q32).

III.6 Learners’ Focus Group Interview

The focus group interview is intended to provide understanding of the learners’ perception of
their levels. While quantitative research can be representative of the target population because it is based on statistical sampling, the results of focus group interview as a qualitative research are not necessarily representative (Edmunds, 2000, p. 2). Thus, we decided to take all the participants selected (i.e., the sixty five pupils). The participations were divided into groups of ten to twelve in order to have more effective interactions and to control the discussions easily. The data was gathered in a form of note-taking, and after all the focus groups are completed, a decision was made on the learners’ perception of their level.

Conclusion

It is of capital importance by way of concluding this chapter with the following claim: “whichever method of information gathering is selected, the aim is to obtain answers to the same questions from a large number of individuals to enable the researchers not only to describe but also to compare, to relate one characteristic to another and to demonstrate that certain features exist in certain categories” (Bell, 1987, p. 9). Still, the information provided in this chapter are just hints which will be better clarified through the next chapter.
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSES AND DISCUSSION

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Introduction

This chapter describes teachers and learners’ behaviors and attitudes during group work tasks. We also see the necessity to include their viewpoints and positions towards this learning strategy. The data presented in this chapter are collected in a form of questionnaires administered to both of the selected teachers and learners. The primary concern of this chapter is to present a less or more detailed description, analysis, and interpretation of the results obtained.

IV.1 Analyses of Learners’ Questionnaire

IV.1.1 General Information about the Learners
Q1: What’s your average mark in English?

In fact, this question does not attempt to identify the subjects’ actual level; otherwise, a placement test would be more appropriate. Instead, we are much more interested on how these learners perceive their levels. The focus group interview results in the following categories displayed in the graph below:

- 00/20 - 9.5/20: poor level
- 10/20 - 14/20: average level
- 14.5/20 - 20/20: good level

The majority of the pupils are perceived as average level learners (67.70%). The good learners represent (10.77%), while the poor level learners represent (21.53%). We believe that the learners’ perception of their levels may affect the way they get along together to accomplish group work tasks as pointed by Slavin (1996, p. 30) and Johnson, Johnson and Smith (1995, p. 32).
IV.1.2 Learners’ Attitudes towards Group Work

**Q2:** I prefer to work: individually, cooperatively, or competitively.

**Graph 2:** Learners’ Attitudes towards Cooperative Learning

Most of the learners favor working in collaboration with their classmates than working individually or competitively. Among them are a high number of average level learners, some poor level learners, and few good learners. When working cooperatively, the learners’ goals are linked, so that, each one’s attempt to learn facilitates and encourages the others’. Another category of the pupils are those who prefer to work individually; they represent (21.52%). Among them are some average level learners and few poor and good learners. The reason for this can be due to the absence of interdependence among them, or to psychological factors (i.e., being lonely students). The last category indicates that those pupils prefer to work in competition with each others; they are mainly average and good learners. This may be due to the negative interdependence between them and their classmates aroused from norm-referenced or criterion
referenced evaluation. As a matter of fact, working competitively obstructs each others’ attempt to learn and achieve, because each one’s success prevents another one to have a similar rank. In other words, each one’s success is another’s failure.

Q 3: I prefer to discuss the task with: the teacher, the classmates, both of them, or none of them.

Graph 3: Classroom Interaction

A high proportion of the pupils prefer to discuss the task with their classmates. This category includes pupils of all levels: good, average, and poor. This may be due to learners’ anxiety and fear to commit mistakes. Another category of students are those who prefer interacting with the teacher. Those pupils are mainly good and average level learners. This category of students may consider their classmates as low achievers, so there is a little incentive to interact with them. The third category shows that only good pupils interact with both the teacher and the classmates. Those pupils are less anxious to interact with the teacher and more motivated to work with their classmates. While in the last category, many poor level learners and
a few average and good learners are likely to avoid classroom interaction with both the teacher and their classmates which may be due to the lack of motivation.

**Q4:** It bothers me to help my classmates.

**Graph 4:** learners’ Positions towards Giving Help

More than half of the subjects do not mind to help their classmates. Among them are good, average, and poor level learners who may be positively interdependent. While, some other pupils feel bothered when giving help. This may be due to the negative interdependence among them, which can be aroused as a result of norm-referenced evaluation.
Q5: It bothers me to ask my classmates for help.

This figure shows that few pupils avoid asking help from their classmates. This category of pupils is either less motivated or resistant to work cooperatively. While, the majority of the subjects claim that asking for help does not upset them. As a matter of fact, giving and receiving help is an important element of CL and an interpersonal and social skill. Interpersonal closeness is very important for the psychological growth to take place. The learners need to build rapport and cohesiveness by giving and receiving help. Social cohesiveness largely depends on positive interdependence structured among the learners.
IV.1.3 Learners’ Activity during Group Tasks

**Q6:** How often do you interact with your group mates to accomplish the task?

![Graph 6: Group Interaction](image)

The data show that some pupils always or sometimes interact with their group mates to accomplish the task. Among them are nearly all the good learners, some average level learners, and few poor level learners as well. However, the remaining columns that represent the rest of the average level learners and the majority of poor level learners, show that they are rarely or never included in the group interaction. From these data, it seems that interaction is mostly confined to higher level learners. This may be because the excluded pupils are less motivated to interact with their group mates, or have less opportunity to do so, perceived as less able and less efficient learners. Group interaction is determined by the type of interdependence among the group mates and the reward structure used to motivate them.
Q7: How often do you participate in the group to accomplish the group work?

The figure shows that many poor level pupils and some average level pupils are rarely, or even never, involved in the group work, which may affect their learning and achievement. The exclusion can be due to the lack of motivation (This is what Slavin (1996, p. 30) referred to by the free-rider effect). That is to say, those learners rely on their group mates to accomplish the work. Active participation is characterized by the fact that no one is allowed to loaf or rely on the others to do the task. It can be realized by structuring positive interdependence among the group mates and encouraging individual accountability by evaluating individual contributions.
Q8: Group work is generally accomplished by: all the members, some members, or none of them.

**Graph 8: Group Work Accomplishment.**

Similarly, this figure shows that the majority of the learners agree that group work is accomplished by only some members. Only some pupils claimed that group work is accomplished by all the members equally. While the previous figure indicates that students’ minimal participation can be due to the free rider effect, this one shows that the exclusion of some members may also be due to the monopolization of the work by some members who regard the others as less active and efficient, so a little desire to involve them in work. Slavin (1996, p. 30) refers to this situation by “the diffusion of responsibility effect”. The latter may take place when the group mates’ goals are not linked. To promote equal participation, no one should be allowed to dominate the group and monopolized the work. The group mates’ goals are to be linked, and this can be achieved by rewarding them on the basis of their average contributions. A
few other pupils said that group work is not done by any one in the group. Those pupils are likely to be less motivated to accomplish the task which may be due to the task structure or to the reward structure

**Q9:** Group work is monopolized by the more able members in the group.

![Graph 9: Learners’ Position towards Group Work accomplishment](image)

Also, the data obtained here reveal that learners’ exclusion can be either intended or unintended. While some pupils agree that group work is monopolized by the more able members, others claim that it is not the case. According to the first category, the members’ exclusion from taking part in the group work may be caused by the diffusion of responsibility. Whereas, the second category of the respondents indicates that the pupils’ exclusion from taking part in the group work may be due to the lack of motivation and the free rider effect.
**Q10:** If feel responsible during the group work.

The majority of the respondents show their accountability during group work tasks. These are nearly all good learners, many average level learners, and few poor level learners. Whereas, a high proportion of poor level learners and few average level learners are rarely or never accountable during group tasks. Those pupils may be less motivated to accomplish the task and prefer to take a free ride than working with their group mates. Individual accountability involves the completion of each one’s part of the work and active contribution to the group efforts. Individual accountability may be impacted by the way the group mates are rewarded.

**Graph 10:** Learners’ Accountability During Group work
Q11: I feel committed to the success of every one in the group.

**Graph 11: Learners’ Commitment to the Success of the Group**

While almost half of the respondents are committed to the success of their group mates, the other half are less interested. Both categories include good, average, and poor level learners. This can be due to the type of interdependence structured among them. That is to say, the pupils of the No column are negatively interdependent and work in competition with their group mates. The sense of commitment can be largely determined by the way the group mates perceive their goals, whether linked or separate. And this, in turn, is influenced by the way they are rewarded for their group work.
Q 12: After the group work, my group mates and I discuss the way we have been working together.

**Graph 12: Group Processing**

The data obtained here reveal that nearly all the respondents, of all levels, do not engage in evaluating their work. Only some good learners and a few average level learners do so. Through their discussion, the students can examine the group’s function, its strengths and weaknesses, and what functions were more or less helpful to ensure effective working relationships and maximum participation for next work. Doing so, the learners become closed to each other and positively interdependent.
Q13: My goal during the group work is to succeed as: a group, or and individual.

**Graph 13: Learners’ Goals during Group Work**

As the figure shows, many learners responded that their goal during group work is to succeed as groups, while the others’ goals are to succeed as individuals. This may be due to the type of interdependence structured among them. That is to say, the learners of the *group* column are positively interdependent with their group mates and view their goals linked to each other, while the learners of the *individual* column may be negatively interdependent, or even not interdependent at all with their group mates, and feel that their goals are separate. Negative interdependence obstructs each others’ attempts to learn, because learners compete for rank. Therefore, learners’ interaction will be limited. Hence learners’ promotive interaction and facilitative interaction is influenced by their goals, whether to succeed as individuals or groups.
This is, in turn, determined by the type of interdependence structured among them as a result of the task reward.

**IV.1.4 Learners’ Position towards the Group Tasks’ Assignment**

**Q14:** How often does the teacher assign group work?

**Graph 14:** Group Work assignment

Although the subjects here are learners from only two classes, they could not reach a consensus as far as this question is concerned. Pupils of all levels disagree on how often the teacher assigns group work. Their answers vary from *always* to *never*. This may mean that the tasks were not clearly defined and properly assigned. With the absence of clearly defined task
and designated group, the task may flounder. That is, the learners may not perceive the task as group work.

**Q 15**: How often does the teacher encourage individual participation?

![Graph 15: Teacher’s Encouragement of Individual participation](image)

While some learners admit that their teachers rarely or never encourages individual participation, a higher percentage of the learners said that their teacher usually do. Despite this, Question 7 of the learners’ questionnaire revealed that some of the learners do no participate
during these learning groups. Being so, we may say that the teacher’s encouragement seems to be inefficient. The learners need to be extrinsically motivated to participate and take part in the group by rewarding each one’s contribution.

**Q16**: How often does the teacher encourage group interaction?

![Graph 16: Teacher’s Encouragement of Group Interaction](image)

The figure shows that the majority of the subjects claimed that their teachers usually encourage group interaction to accomplish the task. Only few pupils said their teachers rarely or never do so. However, the results obtained from Question 6 of the learners’ questionnaire indicate that the majority of the pupils do not engage in group interaction. Accordingly, the kind
of encouragement the learners receive seems less effective to promote their interaction. In fact, group interaction is determined by the group cohesion, and can be promoted by linking the learners’ goals.

Q 17: does the teacher intervene to help the group?

The majority of the subjects report that the teacher does not intervene to help them. This may explain why they are not clear about how to go through a group activity. In fact, working cooperatively is not so easy. Only putting the learners into groups and asking them to work together does not mean that they are really working cooperatively. The members are not born
instinctively knowing how to interact effectively, therefore, they need to be guided and explained how to successfully work in groups.

**Q18:** Does the teacher reward you when working together?

![Graph 18: Extrinsic Motivation](image)

The majority of the respondents claim that the teachers reward them, while the rest claim that they do not. This difference in position may be due to the fact the reward structure is not clearly defined. Accordingly, the teachers may tend to use the traditional group work which is highly unstructured compared with CL. Reward is a vital element in increasing learners’ motivation and promoting participation opportunities, however, it does not ensure equal participation unless it is properly structured. This is what the next question seeks to find.
Q19: If yes, does he assess: individual performance, group product, both of them, or other.

Out of the respondents who claimed that the teachers reward them, many of them are not clear about how they are rewarded. For many pupils, the teacher either rewards each one’s contribution or the group product as a whole. The others think that teacher rewards both of them. Apparently, the teachers do not explain how the learners will be rewarded, and this impacts the learners’ participation and interaction. That is, only rewarding individuals’ performance may push the members to make their own contributions, but may also lead to negative or absent interdependence among the group mates who may never interact with each other. Moreover, the more able members may monopolize the work and exclude the others from taking part. This creates negative norms towards the school and towards learning in general. On the other hand, rewarding the work as a whole does not involve each member’s participation and may make some members relying on the others to accomplish the work. In both cases the learners’ goals are
separate. Reward should be based on the average contribution of all members to ensure that every one participates and cares about the others’ contributions.

IV.2 Analyses of Teachers’ Questionnaire

IV.2.1 Professional Views on Cooperative Learning

Q1: How do you deliver the lesson? Do you: explain the material; help the learners deduce the material; or other?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Explain the material</th>
<th>Help the learners deduce it</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Implicit and Explicit Teaching

Examination of this question reveals that all the teachers deliver the lesson by helping the learners to deduce the material. It seems that all the teachers approach the new teaching/learning paradigm. Doing so, the learners may have more opportunities to construct their knowledge and actively participate in their learning process. However, this can not be realized easily, especially in classes of more than thirty students, and requires strategic management of the classroom interaction to ensure equal turn-taking. This is what the subsequent questions seek to find.

Q2: How are participation turns distributed? One learner takes a turn at the time; learners compete for turns; the teacher decides on the next turn; or other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>One learner takes a turn at the time</th>
<th>Learners compete for turns</th>
<th>The teacher decides on the next turn</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Turn-taking
The majority of the teachers admitted that the learners compete for turns. As a result, turn-taking may be confined to only some pupils with the least anxiety and the most ability to speak, preventing those who may take a longer time to respond from taking part and offering their ideas. On the other hand, one teacher reports that it is up to him to distribute turns. Yet again, managing classroom interaction in overloaded classes requires some intervention strategies.

**Q3: How do you intervene to promote classroom participation?**

The data obtained from this question reveal that the respondents use different intervention strategies to provide as much participation opportunities as possible, though, for some teacher getting all the learners to participate remains one of the challenging aspects of teaching English. This goes without saying that these teachers do not make any attempt to involve the maximum of learners, by constantly evaluating their participation for instance. According to one teacher, “getting all the students to participate is not an easy matter, however, constant evaluation motivates them to participate”. However, this may make learners compete for turns, especially high achievers, and monopolize classroom participation preventing low achievers from taking part. Another teacher claimed that “participation can be promoted by controlling turns”. Yet again, this can not ensure equal participation in overloaded classes. The two other respondents agree that working in groups promote classroom participation. One teacher claimed that “working in pairs or groups actively engages the students in classroom interaction”, while the other said “I allow the students to work with their classmates, so they all participate”. In fact, working in groups provides more opportunities for participation, however, learners with the least motivation and desire to learn may loaf and prefer to sit back and take a free ride. Thus, the learners should not only be allowed, but encouraged and motivated to work in groups.
Q4: The new teaching/learning paradigm puts too much load on learners’ shoulders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>00.00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: The New Teaching/Learning Paradigm**

The majority of the teachers (75%) agree that the new teaching and learning approach gives too much responsibility to the learners, while (25%) disagree. Recently the emphasis was shifted from traditional classrooms to CL. Learners are now required to construct their own knowledge in collaboration with their classmates. Thus, considering this responsibility as too much load may lead the teachers to stick on traditional teaching methods over following the new one. This can be one of the reasons that prevent the teachers from using CL.

Q5: Learners achieve better when they work in competition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>00.00%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Types of Interdependence**

All the teachers agree that learners achieve better when working competitively. In fact, learners may achieve when competing for ranks, however, this creates negative norms among them because each one’s achievement is another’s failure. That is to say, each learner’s success decreases the opportunities for another one to have a similar rank. Instead, learners can work in cooperation with their group mates and in competition with other groups. Among the respondents, two teachers strongly agree with this claim. Those teachers may set a competitive atmosphere in there classrooms, and this may explain the learners’ negative interdependence.
Q 6: Peer interaction helps learners understand better.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5: Peer Interaction**

As far as this question is concerned, all the teachers agree that peer interaction helps learners understand better the material. It is worth noting that peers play an important role in each others’ learning by acting in each others’ ZPD. Their interaction helps them process better the information and elaborate it. It also helps them to develop emotionally and socially. However, successful peer interaction is characterized by the learners’ active participation and engagement largely determined by classroom management.

Q 7: Group work is a valuable instructional approach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
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<td>00.00%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
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<td>100%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Table 6: Group Learning**

Similarly, this question reveals that all the teachers (100%) agree that group work is a valuable instructional approach. While working together, learners may have more turns and more opportunities to communicate than teacher-learner interaction. Successful group work requires a mastery of interpersonal and social skills and an understanding of the goals set. However, the data obtained from the learners’ questionnaire indicate that many of them are not clear about
how to go through a group task. The next question aims to solicit the teachers’ opinions about this point.

**Q 8:** My pupils are not skillful enough to work in groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Table 7: Learners’ Social Abilities.**

Not surprisingly, all the teachers agree that their students are not skillful enough to work in groups. This is evident, because social skills cannot magically appear, especially when the learners are used to be taught in traditional classrooms. The learners need to learn how to be self-constructors of their knowledge, and how to share this knowledge with their peers in order to elaborate it and process it. To achieve this, they need to acquire the interpersonal and small-group skills required for successful group work, and to be motivated to use them in order to promote interaction and participation opportunities.

**Q 9:** Group work is accomplished by: all the members equally, some members only, or none of them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>All the members</th>
<th>Some members</th>
<th>None of them</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 8: Group Work Accomplishment**

The data obtained from this question shows the agreement of all the teachers that group work is generally accomplished by only some members. The pupils’ minimal participation can be due to the free-rider effect or the diffusion of responsibility, which in turn, may be aroused
from the task and the reward structures. That is to say, if the group task is not clearly designated and if the learners are not properly rewarded, learners’ participation may decrease either by being less motivated and relying on the others to do the task, or by having fewer opportunities to make their own contributions.

Q 10: If I use group work, good learners dominate the work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>%</td>
<td>50%</td>
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<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Diffusion of Responsibility

As the table shows, all the teachers agree that group work would be monopolized by the more able members in the group. This domination may exclude some learners from the work as revealed from Questions 8 and 9 of the learners’ questionnaire. This is likely to appear when the group mates have a single task (e.g., handing a single report or completing a single worksheet), and especially when they are rewarded only for their own contributions. Hence, this competitive way of evaluating separates the group mates’ goals, and may make some members careless about their group mates learning and achievement.

Q 11: If I use group work, some members rely on the others to do the task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
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<td>%</td>
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<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: Learners’ Loafing during Group Work

The data obtained from this question also show the teachers’ discomfort about the learners’ participation during group tasks. All the teachers report that some members would rely
on the others to accomplish the task. This is likely to appear when the learners are less motivated and especially if they are rewarded for their hitchhiking in the groups, that is to say, when the teacher evaluates the group product as a whole. This unfair evaluation creates negative norms and attitudes towards each other and such kind of tasks.

**Q 12:** Some pupils are uninterested to work in groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>False</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 11: Learners’ Attitude towards Group Work**

Not surprisingly, half of the teachers have noticed that some of their pupils are uninterested to work in groups, while the others disagree with the assumption. The reason for the pupils’ aversion may be due to the reward structure based on the group product which makes other members, who are less motivated to contribute, benefit from their efforts. Or, it can be due to psychological factors. Hence, working cooperatively is a matter of motivation and the type of interdependence structured among the group mates which largely depends on the reward structure.

**Q 13:** Many pupils are not clear about how to go through group tasks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>True</th>
<th>False</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 12: Learners’ Abilities during Group Work**
The majority of the teachers (75%) agree that the learners do not know how to properly accomplish group tasks. In fact, successful group work is not easily achieved, especially when the learners are novices in the new learning paradigm; therefore, the learners need to be guided along their work. Throughout it, the task should to be clearly defined, the objectives are to be explained, and the roles are to be assigned.

Q14: If I use group work, good learners’ achievement is held back.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: Impact of Group work on Good Learners’ Achievement

The results indicate that the majority of the teachers disagree with the assumption. Being so, their decision on implementing group work could not have been affected by this reason. Whereas, (25%) of teachers think that group work holds good students achievement back. This belief may affect their decision on whether to implement group work or not. As a matter of fact, group work does not hold the learners’ achievement back, especially that of the good ones, because those learners restructure and process better the material when explaining it to someone else. According to Webb (1989, 1992, as cited in Slavin et al, 2003, p .184), the students who gain most from these activities are those who provide elaborated explanations.

Q 15: We do not have the time available for preparing the learners to work cooperatively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>0.00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: Required Time to Implement Group Work
Another reason that may affect the teachers’ decision is the allocated time. The majority of the teachers here agree that the required time for preparing the learners to work cooperatively is limited. While (25%) of them disagree. For successful group work, the learners need to master the communicative and social skills needed for promotive interaction and participation in the group. Therefore, the teachers should not only emphasize the subject matter goals, but also the communicative and social goals as well.

Q16: The physical set up of the classroom obstacles group work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 15: Physical Set Up of the Classroom**

This assumption according to the majority of the teachers is not true. Those teachers disagree with the idea that group work can be hindered by the physical set up of the classroom, while one teacher agrees. This can affect his/her decision on implementing group work. Successful group work requires strategic seating: eye-to-eye and knee-to-knee, to promote the group interaction and facilitate each one’s participation.

Q 17: Did you receive an efficient training on how to implement cooperative learning?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 16: Teachers’ Training on Group Work Implementation**

All the respondents admit that they have not received any training, or at least no efficient one, concerning cooperative learning implementation. Successful group work does not only
involve putting the students into groups, but it requires a deep understanding of CL methods and elements that better engage learners to work together. Moreover, CL methods compared with traditional group work are highly structured and can not be implemented successfully unless the teachers are sufficiently trained.

**Q 18**: If I use group work: I loose control over the class; the classroom becomes too noisy; the students veer off the task; or something else happens.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I loose control over the class</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>The classroom becomes too noisy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>Students veer off the task</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>Something else happens</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Tables 17**: Other Factors that Affect Teachers’ Decisions

As far as this question is concerned, the teachers are required to identify the difficulties they encounter, or will encounter, when implementing group work tasks. The data obtained indicate that the majority of the teachers agree that the classroom becomes too much noisy when assigning group work. This can be another reason that impacts these teachers’ decisions on using group work. In fact, getting all the pupils to offer their ideas at the same time may make the classroom noisier than teacher-learner interaction in traditional classrooms. However, the latter does not provide as much opportunities to participate and negotiate as the former. Whereas, one other teacher claimed that “A more relaxing atmosphere is created in class” during group work tasks. CL provides a better climate for learning; it produces less anxiety and stress, and provides more participation opportunities.

**Q 19**: What are the other factors that affect your implementation of group work?

Concerning this question, the teachers are asked to identify the factors that affect their decisions on implementing group work beyond the ones suggested above. This question, and for
unknown reasons, was left unanswered by half of the teachers. Out of the respondents, one teacher claimed that “the text book is not well designed”. The other teacher stated that “second year English program is over loaded and the rush to complete it makes us neglecting some tasks”. We assume that the responses provided above affect, in a way or in another, the teachers’ decision on whether to implement group or not, and how often to do so. This is what the next question seeks to answer.

Q 20: How often do you assign group work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18: Frequency of Assigning Group Work

For this question, 25% of the teachers said that they often assign group work. While the majority of the teachers (75%) said that they rarely assign group work tasks. The reason four this may be associated with their views already discussed above.

IV.2.2 General Information

Q 21: How many years have you been teaching?

Q 22: How many years have you been implementing group work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General information</th>
<th>Teacher 1</th>
<th>Teacher 2</th>
<th>Teacher 3</th>
<th>Teacher 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q 20</td>
<td>30 years</td>
<td>18 years</td>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q 21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 years</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td>5 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19: Teaching Experience
To comment on these questions, we may say that the teachers’ vary in their teaching experiences from 5 years to 30 years of teaching. Apparently, some teachers have experienced the traditional teaching paradigm as the only alternative before. However, some ancient teachers are likely to stick on this old way of teaching for a long time compared with the fresh ones. This difference leads us to think that ancient teachers favored using familiar traditional teaching methods over using new ones.

IV.2.3 Teaching Practices

Q23: how do you conceive group learning?

This question was answered by half of the teachers, while the others, for unknown reasons, preferred to leave it unanswered. Out of the respondents, one teacher views group learning as “setting out pair or group activities and letting the learners work the way they want and with any one in the classroom”. In this case, the learners are free to work individually or collaboratively. Whereas, the other teacher assigns such tasks by “dividing the students into groups of four or five and asking them to do the task together”. However, this does not ensure that the learners are really working together. From the data, it is apparent that the teachers use traditional group work where the learners receive a little or no guidance from the teacher. Equal participation can not be ensured unless some instructional procedures are taken. This is what the next questions seek to answer.

Q 24: Which of the following methods do you follow to implement group work tasks?

a. Learners work on one part of the unit, then present group reports to the class.

b. Learners work in groups then rewarded for the product.

c. Each member is assigned a role depending on how good the members are at something.

d. Setting competition between the groups.

e. Giving the members different part of the material, then evaluating their mastery of the whole material.
f. Asking questions and calling upon one member of each group to provide an answer.

g. None of these.

h. Other, please specify.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
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<th>b.</th>
<th>c.</th>
<th>d.</th>
<th>e.</th>
<th>f.</th>
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</thead>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>%</td>
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<td>00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>00%</td>
<td>00%</td>
<td>00%</td>
<td>00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20: Cooperative Learning Methods

As far as this question is concerned, the majority of the teachers tend to use GI method, by assigning the learners to work on one part of the unit and to prepare group reports to be presented to the whole class. While one teacher use both GI method and STL methods, exactly the STAD. The latter refers to competition between the groups. In fact, both GI and STL methods provide equal opportunities for equal participation, unless they are not well structured. The reason why the implemented methods fail in involving all the members to participate and interact in the group will be tackled through the subsequent questions.

Q 25: To what extent do you structure positive interdependence among the group mates?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Entirely</th>
<th>Largely</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Slightly</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21: Learners’ Interdependence

According to the results shown in the above table, the majority of the teachers (75%) slightly structure positive interdependence among the group mates, while one teacher largely did. This, in fact, determines their interaction and participation in the group. Positive interdependence has numerous effects on learners’ motivation and productivity. If the learners are only placed into groups and not positively interdependent, the learning situation is not cooperative; it is either
competitive or individualistic. Positive interdependence can be supplemented by adding joint reward, or assessing group mates’ average performance.

**Q 26:** To what extent do you encourage individual participation in the group?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Entirely</th>
<th>Largely</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Slightly</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
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<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 22: Teachers’ Encouragement of Individual Participation**

According to the responses, all the teachers claim that they largely encourage individual participation. However, this contradicts with the learners’ position in Question 15 where many pupils claimed that the teachers rarely encourage them to participate. Moreover, it seems that the teachers’ encouragement is less effective because some of the subjects rarely or never participate and take part in the group work (as revealed from Question 7 of the learners’ questionnaire). Individual participation is determined by the type of interdependence structured among the members and the way they are rewarded.

**Q 27:** To what extent do you insist on each member’s responsibility in the group?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Entirely</th>
<th>Largely</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Slightly</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>50%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 23: Teachers’ Encouragement of Individual Accountability**

The results show that half of the teachers largely insist on each one’s responsibility the groups, while the other half somewhat do so. However, the students’ standpoints shown through Question 10 of the learners’ questionnaire indicate that some of them are rarely or never
responsible for their work in the group, thus, the type of encouragement may be inefficient. The sense responsibility can be increased by structuring positive interdependence and assessing the learners’ contributions.

**Q 28:** To what extent do you highlight interpersonal and social skills during group tasks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Entirely</th>
<th>Largely</th>
<th>Somewhat</th>
<th>Slightly</th>
<th>Not at all</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>25%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 24: Teaching Interpersonal and Social Skill**

The data indicate that 25% of the teachers somewhat teach these skills, while 25% slightly do. In the meantime, half of the teachers never insist on interpersonal and social skills needed to go through group work tasks. Working cooperatively requires a mastery of interpersonal and social skills that leads to interpersonal closeness and social cohesiveness, and facilitates the group mates’ interaction and participation. As a matter of fact, the learners are not born socially skillful, thus, they must be taught the social skills and be motivated to use them.

**Q29:** How often do you intervene to help the groups?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>0</td>
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</tr>
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<td>50%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 25: Guidance**

According to the results, half of the teachers (50%) often intervene to help the groups, while the others never do. This is consistent with what the learners claimed in Question 17. The groups need to be supervised and guided to ensure that all the members participate and interact
together. Without this, the group work may flounder and the work might be monopolized by some members limiting the others’ opportunities to participate.

Q 30: What goals do you set for group tasks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Subject matter</th>
<th>Communicative</th>
<th>Both</th>
<th>Other</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>00.00%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 26: Group Work Objectives**

The results, illustrated in the table above, show that the majority of the teachers largely assign group work tasks to master the subject matter. Only one teacher sets both subject matter and social goals. The latter determines the way the group mates interact with each other and participate to accomplish the task. Being so, the group work should be assigned to master the subject matter as well as to improve the interpersonal and social skills.

Q31: Do you reward the group mates’ work?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>00.00%</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 27: Group Work Reward**

The results indicate that all the teachers reward the groups. This is extremely important in motivating the students and increasing the learners’ accountability, participation, and their interaction. However the way the students are rewarded determines to what extent this is true.
Q32: if yes, do you assess: individual performance, group product, both of them, or other?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Individual performance</th>
<th>Group product</th>
<th>Both of them</th>
<th>Other</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
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<td>25%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 28: Reward Structure

The question reveals that the majority of the teachers reward the group mates’ individual performance. This may encourage the members to make their own contributions but not necessarily to interact with their group mates. Hence, the learners may not care about their group mates learning. Moreover, some of them may dominate the work and exclude the others from taking part. Whereas, one other teacher evaluates the group product as a whole. This may make some members relying on the others to accomplish the work. The reward structure in both cases does not involve the learners to equally participate and willingly interact. Reward should be based on the sum contributions of all the group mates. Consequently, the learners will care about their own leaning and their group mates learning. This in turn, ensures their equal participation in the group.

Conclusion

This chapter is an attempt to describe the unrolling of group work. Throughout it, we sought to identify some of the factors that affect learners’ participation during such tasks. The questionnaires revealed insightful information about the students’ attitudes and activity as well as the teachers’ standpoints and implementation of this learning strategy. The data obtained indicate that learners’ limited participation is due to the free rider effect and the diffusion of responsibility mainly caused by the lack of motivation and the negative interdependence structured among the group mates. On the other hand, the teachers’ positions towards this learning strategy and their limited understanding of CL methods and elements determine group
tasks’ implementation and affect learners’ attitudes and behaviors. The lack of motivation and the negative interdependence among the group mates are caused by the reward structure which is either individual or competitive. Accordingly, the teachers are likely to use the traditional group work which is highly unstructured and which does not involve all the group mates’ participation.
CHAPTER FIVE: PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

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Introduction

The data obtained from the teachers and learners’ questionnaires reveal important information on what goes well or wrong within the target population. Based on the findings discussed, pedagogical implications and guidelines of implementing CL are thus proposed for teachers interested in innovating their current teaching practices. Of course, what we propose should not be understood as a rule, but suggestive in nature. The limitations of the present study and suggestions for further research are also included in this chapter.

V.1 CL Requirements

The results obtained from the analyses of the teachers and the learners’ questionnaires have shown that there are many factors which impact learners’ participation and which are largely determined by the teachers’ management. Hence, one of the implications arising from this research is that teachers should care about learners’ participation by adopting CL methods. CL is viewed as one of the highly structured methods that put the new teaching/learning paradigm into practice. This promising and effective learning strategy does not only promote participation opportunities, but also enhance learning in general. In our research, the main deriving factors that limit the learners’ participation during group work are the lack of motivation and the negative interdependence structured among the group mates. Therefore teachers are held responsible to create a better climate for promotive participation to take place by caring about the following aspects:

V.1.2 Task Motivation

Language achievements and motivation are closely correlated. Motivation is defined by Brown (1999, p. 52) as “probably the most frequently used catch of all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task.” It is viewed as an inner drive, impulse, or
desire that incites one to perform a particular action. Moreover, motivation is viewed as the major impact on the learning process that drives other process such as planning and helping (O’Donnell, 2006, p. 783). In contrast with competitive and individualistic situations, the motivational system promoted within cooperative situations includes intrinsic motivation based on mutual benefit, continuing interest in achievement, high commitment to achieve, and high persistence. According to Johnson et al. (1995, p. 18), “motivation is most commonly viewed as a combination of the perceived likelihood of success and the perceived incentive for success”.

The data obtained from Questions 3, 7 and 10 of the learners’ questionnaire show that some learners rarely or never participate in the group interactions. Being so, the teacher is held responsible for motivating the learners to actively participate and take part during these promising learning situations. CL can achieve the positive effects in language acquisition as well as enhancing motivation toward learning English. In order to produce a learning climate oriented to arousing motivation, Dornyei and Schmidt (2001, p. 43) propose to integrate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in the class. Intrinsic motivation is related to internal rewards like self-satisfaction at performing a task. It is aimed at arousing natural curiosity and interest by setting optimal challenges in class, providing rich sources of stimulation, and developing students’ autonomy. Whereas, extrinsic motivation was related to obtaining extrinsic rewards like marks and prizes. Reward should be based on the sum contributions of all the group mates. Consequently, the learners will care about their own leaning and their group mates learning. This in turn, ensures their equal participation in the group. in the same vein, Slavin (2000, p. 538) asserts that “methods which emphasize teambuilding and group process but do not provide specific group rewards based on the learning of all group members are no more effective than traditional instruction in increasing achievement”. It only with ongoing motivation to learn can the language achievements be sustained, and only with undying motivation to learn can life-long education be realized.
V.1.3 Group Cohesion

Group cohesiveness and interpersonal closeness are very important in promoting interaction and facilitating the group mates’ participation. Learners’ attitudes towards group work may be positive or negative. The latter may arouse from the negative interdependence structured among the group mates, who may favor working individually or competitively than working together because of the reward structure. Some learners, as revealed by Questions 4, 5, and 11 of the learners’ questionnaire, are resistant to give or ask for help. Also, the data obtained from Questions 6, 7, 8, and 9 of the learners questionnaire indicate that many learners are rarely or never included in the group interaction. Therefore, the teacher should reduce learners’ resistance to work with their group mates by structuring positive interdependence among them and linking their goals. The group mates should work toward a common goal where no one could succeed unless the others do. The learners should understand that both low and high-achievers benefit from CL by receiving and providing elaborated explanation. Hence, Each student must be responsible for learning the assigned material and for making sure that all members of the group do likewise. It is positive interdependence which, according to Johnson, Johnson and Smith (2000, p. 206), creates this kind of commitment to each others and the group’s success. Positive interdependence can be supplemented by adding joint reward, for instance, if all the members of a group score a certain high percentage each receives bonus points, or by rewarding the group mates on the basis of their average contributions.

V.2 Guidelines for Increasing Learners’ Motivation and Group Cohesion

V.2.1 Teachers’ Guidance

Successful group work involves active guidance from the teacher. The group task should be highly structured and clearly assigned. It also requires a wide range of interpersonal and
social skills that the learners need to acquire throughout their cooperation. Questions 15, 16, and 17 of the learners’ questionnaire point to the fact the learners receive a little guidance from the teachers which affect the way they go through group tasks. Thus, the teacher is required to intervene to help the learners establish and build their groups, mainly by structuring positive interdependence and individual accountability of each student so that the problem of the free rider and the diffusion of responsibly effects are reduced. The teacher role is summarized in the following points:

- Reducing learner’s resistance to work in groups.
- Making a number of preinstructional decisions such as the size of the group, the method of assigning students to groups, the roles of the students, the materials needed and the arrangement of the class.
- Encouraging individual responsibility by assessing how much each member contribute in the group.
- Linking the group mates goals by rewarding their joint efforts.
- Explaining how the group should work and how it will be graded.
- Making sure that learners facilitate one another participation and interact face-to-face.
- Contributing in assigning group members and roles (e.g., recorder, summarizer, checker…).
- Specifying and explaining the instructional objectives both subject matter and social communicative skills.
- Intervening when necessary to help the learners complete the task accurately and work together effectively.
- Encouraging the group mates to engage in group processing and helping them assessing how effectively they have been working together.
- After that the group members assume their roles and responsibilities, the teacher adopts roles like feedback giver, encourager, and facilitator.
V.2.2 Suggested Methods; Task and Reward Structures

Activities that can be incorporated in the Algerian classes to maximize learners’ participation and increase their motivation and the group cohesion are:

V.2.2.1 Student Teams-Achievement Divisions

STAD method involves competition among groups. In STAD method, students learn the material in teams and take quizzes as individuals. Individual scores contribute to a group score. The points contributed to the group are based on a student’s improvement over previous quiz performance.

V.2.2.2 Cooperative Integrated Reading and Composition (CIRC)

In CIRC method, students work on cognitively engaging activities (e.g., reading to one another, summarizing stories to one another, practicing spelling, etc.). Then, they work with their group members to master comprehension skills. Then, students engage in a writer’s workshop. Group rewards and certificates given to the group are based on the average performance of all team members on all reading and writing activities. Students’ contributions to their groups rely on their quiz scores and individual written composition which ensures individual accountability.

V.2.2.3 Jigsaw Activities

In Jigsaw activities, each member from each group is given one part of the material, then, students form expert groups with members of other groups, and then return back to their groups to teach each other the part of the material they comprise. The group mates are rewarded on how well he masters the whole material. However, this method may create the problem of task specialization making pupils learning a great deal of the part of the task they worked on but less about the rest of the task.
Conclusion

Throughout the discussion above, the teacher role is extended beyond providing cognitive support to concentrating on social and socio-emotional processes too. The role of the teacher in CL can be shown as a facilitator rather than prompter, a supervisor rather than instructor. The teacher’s role is to guide and support students to build or reconstruct their knowledge, that is, to be a guide on the side rather than a sage on the stage.

- Limitations of the Study

Our research is based on teachers and learners’ opinions. Thus, when dealing with human being as subjects, it is hard to judge the truthfulness and reliability of their responses. In addition, the generalization of any research requires a great deal of validity. As far as our work is concerned, the results can not be valid and the findings can not be generalized unless found in a similar case to the one we have studied. Moreover, the size of the subjects was limited to one school consisting of 64 out of 237 students, thus, the generalization of our findings requires other studies with a larger number from other schools to confirm or disconfirm the tentative results found in this study. Hence, the results remain restricted to this particular group of second year students of Soumani Mehmoud secondary school.

- Directions for Further Research

This study spots light on two main issues: cooperative learning and classroom participation, which deserve interest for future research. It would be more interesting to deal with the acquisition of special skills during this kind of learning groups. For instance, how to promote the group mates participation in cooperative reading or writing tasks. Hence, if any of these questions is investigated, more benefit could be derived from the present study.
The aim of the study carried out in this research is to answer the questions raised in the introduction. These are: what limits learner’s participation? What impacts teachers’ decision to implement group tasks? What implementation factors appear to hinder participation opportunities during group work? Our aim is to find out the factors that determine learners’ participation during group tasks and suggest some recommendations that may help teachers to better implement these tasks.

At the theoretical level, we have attempted to illuminate the role of interaction and participation in enhancing learning in general. The move from teacher to learner-centered approach highlights the role learners play in constructing their knowledge by being active participants in the process of learning. Active participation and engagement are largely realized through classroom interaction highly determined by the teacher’s management, that is to say, the way tasks are implemented and assigned. Moreover, active participation involves strategic teaching and interventions to promote socially supportive environment especially in overloaded classes, the case of the Algerian classes, which comprise more than thirty students.

Among the most effective strategies that provide equal participation is CL. The second theoretical chapter spots light on this ambitious and promising realm by reviewing recent theories and research findings. CL builds on learners’ diverse abilities and promotes opportunities for equal participation. CL methods and elements are designed to engage learners in face-to-face promotive interaction, and involve active participation and individual accountability. CL, compared with traditional group work, is highly structured. The second chapter draws the boundaries between CL and traditional group work and lights up the pitfalls that limits learners’ participation in groups. It is on this basis that we have tried to identify the
factors that limit learners’ participation in group tasks, and suggest some recommendations that may help teachers better implement this kind of tasks.

At the practical level, we sought to identify some of the factors that affect learners’ interaction participation in group tasks. Our examination has been upon three features; attitudes and positions towards this learning strategy, teachers’ practices, and learners’ activity during group work. For this purpose, we opted for two questionnaires: the first is to solicit the learners’ attitudes and their activity during group work in relation to the teacher’s implementation. The second is aimed at finding the factors that may affect the teacher’s implementation of group work tasks and how it determines the learners’ interaction and participation in turn.

The data emerging from the students responses reveal important information. We have found that many learners are not involved in group work tasks. This exclusion, either intended or unintended, is due to the lack of motivation and the negative interdependence among the learners caused by the reward structure used by the teachers. Moreover, the teachers’ positions towards this learning strategy affected by their limited understanding and mastery of its requirements determines group tasks’ implementation, and therefore, impact the learners’ attitudes and behaviors during group tasks. Hence, the results indicate that the type of group work the teachers use is the traditional one which can not promote as much participation opportunities as CL since it is highly unstructured. Although the traditional group work may use cooperative task structure in which students work together to accomplish the task, the reward structure is either competitive or individualistic.

Learners’ interdependence, interaction, and participation in group work are largely determined by the way the learners are rewarded. Learners need to be intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to work with their group mates; otherwise, the group task may flounder. Only placing the learners into groups and asking them to work together may result in some pitfalls, such us, the diffusion of responsibility and the free rider effect. These factors limit the
participation opportunities and exclude some members from taking part in the work. The two major elements of CL that need to be properly defined and clearly explained are the task and the reward structures. We mean by the task structure that teachers should clearly explain the assignment and the objectives both the subject matter and social ones. He should also structure positive interdependence among the group members that determines the way they get along together to accomplish the task, and encourage individual accountability. To achieve this, the learners should be rewarded for their individual contributions as well as the way they have been working together as a group. That is to say, the reward structure should be based on the average performance of all the members of the group to ensure that the learners care about their own learning as well as their group mates learning; this makes them working towards a common goal and increases their closeness and commitment to the success of the group and every one in the group as well. The result is promotive interaction and facilitative participation.
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SECOND YEAR PUPILS OF ENGLISH

Thank you for taking a few minutes to provide us with feedback about your group work experience. We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions. This is not a test so there is no "right" or "wrong" answer and you don't even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinions. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Please tick the answer that best corresponds to your position.
SECTION I: General Information

1- What is your average mark in English?
   a- Good
   b- Average
   c- Poor

SECTION II: Learners’ Attitudes towards Group Work

2- I prefer to work
   a- Individually
   b- cooperatively
   c- competitively

3- Prefer to discuss the task with
   a- the teacher
   b- your classmate
   c- both of them
   d- none of them

4- It bothers me to explain the task to a classmate
   a- strongly agree
   b- agree
   c- disagree
   d- strongly disagree
   e- undecided

5- It bothers me to ask my classmate for help
   a- strongly agree
   b- agree
   c- disagree
   d- strongly disagree
   e- undecided

SECTION III: Learners’ Activity during Group Tasks

6- How often do you interact with your classmates to accomplish the task?
   a- Always
   b- Sometimes
   c- Rarely
   d- Never
7- How often do you participate in the group to accomplish the group work?
   a- Always
   b- Sometimes
   c- Rarely
   d- Never

8- Group work is generally accomplish by:
   a- All the members
   b- Some members
   c- None of them

9- Group work is monopolized by the more able members in the group.
   a- Yes
   b- No

10- I feel responsible during the group work.
    a- Always
    b- Sometimes
    c- Rarely
    d- Never

11- If feel committed to the success of every one in the group.
    a- yes
    b- no

12- After the group work, my group mates and I discuss the way we have been working together.
    a- Yes
    b- No

13- My goal during the group work is to succeed as:
    a- A group
    b- An individual

SECTION IV: Learners’ Position towards the Group Tasks’ Assignment

14- How often does the teacher assign group work?
    a- Very often
    b- Often
    c- Rarely
    d- Never

15- How often does the teacher encourage individual participation?
    a- Always
    b- Sometimes
    c- Rarely
    d- Never
16- How often does the teacher encourage group interaction?
   a- Always  
   b- Sometimes  
   c- Rarely  
   d- Never  

17- Does the teacher intervene to help the group?
   a- Yes  
   b- No  

18- Does the teacher reward you when working together?
   a- Yes  
   b- No  

19- If yes, does he assess:
   a- Individual performance  
   b- Group product  
   c- Both of them  
   d- Other, please specify  

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR COOPERATION
APPENDIX II: LEARNERS’ FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

Q1: How do you conceive your level?
Q2: How do you range good marks?
Q3: How do you range average marks?
Q4: How do you range poor marks?
Dear Colleague,

We would greatly appreciate your taking the time to complete our questionnaire. As teachers, you make use of a variety of teaching strategies. The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn about the reasons why you choose to implement or not to implement one of these strategies group work, and how you implement it. Your individual responses and your school's combined results will remain confidential. Please, tick the answer that best corresponds with your opinion.

Miss: HABI Linda
SECTION I: Professional Views on Cooperative Learning

1- How do you deliver the lesson? do you
   a- explain the material
   b- help the learners deduce the material
   c- Other, please specify

2- How are participation turns distributed?
   a. one learner takes a turn at a time
   b. learners compete for turns
   c. the teacher decides on the next turn
   d. other, please specify

3- How do you intervene to promote classroom participation?

4- The new teaching approach put too much load on learners’ shoulders.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Undecided
   d. Disagree
   e. Strongly disagree

5- Learners achieve better when they work in competition.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Undecided
   d. Disagree
   e. Strongly disagree

6- Peer interaction helps learners understand better.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Undecided
   d. Disagree
   e. Strongly disagree

7- Group work is a valuable instructional approach.
   a. Strongly agree
   b. Agree
   c. Undecided
   d. Disagree
   e. Strongly disagree

8- My pupils are not skillful enough to work in groups.
   a. True
   b. False

9- Group work is accomplished by:
   a. All the members equally
   b. Some members only
   c. None of them
10- If I use group work, good learners dominate the work.
   a. Strongly agree ☐
   b. Agree ☐
   c. Undecided ☐
   d. Disagree ☐
   e. Strongly disagree ☐

11- If I use group work, some members rely on each other to do the task.
   a. Strongly agree ☐
   b. Agree ☐
   c. Undecided ☐
   d. Disagree ☐
   e. Strongly disagree ☐

12- Some pupils are uninterested to work in groups.
   a. True ☐
   b. False ☐

13- Many pupils are not clear about how to go through a group tasks.
   a. True ☐
   b. False ☐

14- If I use group work, good students’ achievement is held back.
   a. Strongly agree ☐
   b. Agree ☐
   c. Undecided ☐
   d. Disagree ☐
   e. Strongly disagree ☐

15- We don’t have the time available for preparing the learners to work cooperatively.
   a. Strongly agree ☐
   b. Agree ☐
   c. Undecided ☐
   d. Disagree ☐
   e. Strongly disagree ☐

16- The physical set-up of the class obstacles group work.
   a. Strongly agree ☐
   b. Agree ☐
   c. Undecided ☐
   d. Disagree ☐
   e. Strongly disagree ☐

17- Did you receive an efficient training on how to implement cooperative learning?
   a- Yes ☐
   b- No ☐

18- If I use group work:
   a. I loose control over the class ☐
   b. The classroom becomes too noisy ☐
   c. Students veer off the task ☐
   d. Something else happens, please specify ☐
   ........................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................

19- What are the other factors that affect your implementation of group work?
   ........................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................
   ........................................................................................................................................
20- How often do you assign group works?
   a- Very often
   b- Often
   c- Rarely
   d- Never

SECTION II: General Information
21- How many years have you been teaching? □
22- How many years have you been implementing group work? □

- If you do not use group work please stop here.
We welcome your feedback. Please include additional comments or suggestions in the space
provided on the back of the answer sheet. Thank you very much for your participation in this study.

SECTION III: Teaching Practices
23- How do you conceive group work?
……………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………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26- To what extent do you encourage individual participation in the group?
   a- Entirely  
   b- Largely  
   c- Somewhat  
   d- Slightly  
   e- Not at all  

27- To what extent do you insist on each member’s responsibility in the group?
   a- Entirely  
   b- Largely  
   c- Somewhat  
   d- Slightly  
   e- Not at all  

28- To what extent do you highlight interpersonal and social skills during group tasks?
   a- Entirely  
   b- Largely  
   c- Somewhat  
   d- Slightly  
   e- Not at all  

29- How often do you intervene to help the groups?
   a- Always  
   b- Often  
   c- Rarely  
   d- Never  

30- What goals do you set for group tasks?
   a- Subject matter goals  
   b- Communicative goals  
   c- Both  
   d- Others, please specify  

31- Do you reward the group mates’ work?
   a- Yes  
   b- No  

32- If yes, do you assess:
   a- Individual performance  
   b- Group product  
   c- Both of them  
   d- Other, please specify  

We welcome your feedback. Please write any suggestions or comments in the space provided on the back of the answer sheet. Thank you very much for your participation in this study.
APPENDIX IV: LEARNER’S PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking a few minutes to provide feedback about your group work experience. We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you don't even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Please tick the answer that best corresponds to your position.

1- Which of the following skills you find difficult in English:
   a- Speaking  
   b- Reading  
   c- Listening  
   d- Writing

2- I prefer expressing my ideas via:
   a- Speaking  
   b- Writing

3- The lack of practice in English obstacles my understanding.
   a- Strongly agree  
   b- Agree  
   c- Disagree  
   d- Strongly disagree

4- The fear of committing mistakes prevents me from speaking English.
   a- Strongly agree  
   b- Agree  
   c- Disagree  
   d- Strongly disagree
5- The fear of committing mistakes prevents me from participating in the class.
   a- Strongly agree
   b- Agree
   c- Disagree
   d- Strongly disagree

6- How often do you participate in English class?
   a- Very often
   b- Often
   c- Rarely
   d- Never

7- Do you think that the allotted speaking time is monopolized by the teacher?
   a- Yes
   b- No

8- Classroom participation is monopolized by the more able students.
   a- Strongly agree
   b- Agree
   c- Disagree
   d- Strongly disagree

9- How often does your teacher assign group work?
   a- Always
   b- Sometimes
   c- Rarely
   d- Never

10- How often do you participate to accomplish the group work?
    a- Always
    b- Sometimes
    c- Rarely
    d- Never
11- How often do your group mates interact with each other to accomplish the group work?

a- Always ☐
b- Sometimes ☐
c- Rarely ☐
d- Never ☐

12- Group work is generally accomplished by

a- All the members equally ☐
b- Only some members ☐
c- None of them ☐

Thank you for your cooperation.
APPENDIX V: TEACHERS’ PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for taking a few minutes to provide us with feedback about your teaching experience. This questionnaire is designed to help us identify some of the problems you encounter while teaching English as a foreign language. We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions. Please, put a cross (X) on the answer that best corresponds with your opinion.

1. **The most difficult skill to teach is**
   - a- Speaking
   - b- Reading
   - c- Writing
   - d- Listening

2. **Students better express their ideas through**
   - a- Speaking
   - b- Writing

3. **The lack of practice is an obstacle for students’ learning**
   - a- Strongly agree
   - b- Agree
   - c- Disagree
   - d- Strongly Disagree
   - e- Undecided

4. **The time allocated for students talk is**
   - a- 25% of the lesson
   - b- 50% of the lesson
   - c- 75% of the lesson

5. **The time allocated for students talk is confined to the more able students**
   - a- Strongly agree
   - b- Agree
   - c- Disagree
   - d- Strongly Disagree
   - e- Undecided

6. **The most challenging aspect of teaching English is getting all students to participate**
   - a- Strongly agree
   - b- Agree
   - c- Disagree
   - d- Strongly Disagree
   - e- Undecided

7. **Classroom participation is monopolized by the more able students**
   - a- Strongly agree
   - b- Agree
   - c- Disagree
   - d- Strongly Disagree
   - e- Undecided
8- Anxiety is likely to prevent students from participating
   a- Strongly agree
   b- Agree
   c- Disagree
   d- Strongly Disagree
   e- Undecided

9- I assign group tasks
   a- Very often
   b- Sometimes
   c- Rarely
   d- Never

10- Group tasks are generally accomplished by
   a- All the members equally
   b- Only some members
   c- None of them

All Respondents:

We welcome your feedback. Please write any suggestions or comments in the space provided. Thank you very much for your participation in this study.
استمارة معلومات

نشكركم لمنتحنا بعض من وقتكم لإفادتنا بمعلومات خاصة بالوظائف الجماعية. إن الأسئلة التي بحوزتكم ليست امتحاناً لذلك ليس هناك جواب صحيح أو خاطئ. كما أنكم ستمجرئون على التعريف بهونيكم نحن مهتمون بأرائكم الشخصية فقط لذلك نطلب منكم الإجابة بنزاهة لضمان نجاح البحث.

ضع علامة (X) في الجواب الذي يتوافق مع موقفك:

الجزء I:

ما هو معدلك في الانجليزية؟

الجزء II:

أفضل إنجاز وظيفي:

- فردية
- بالتعاون مع زملائي
- بالتنافس ضد زملائي

أفضل مناقشة الدرس مع:

- الأستاذ
- زملائي
- آخر، عدد من

الجزء III:

كم مرة تتفاعل مع أعضاء مجموعة لإنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية؟

- دائماً
- أحياناً
- نادراً
- أبدًا
7. كم مرة تشارك في إنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية؟
- دائمًا
- أحيانًا
- نادراً
- أبداً

8. يتم إنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية من طرف:
- جمع الأعضاء بالتساوي
- بعض الأعضاء فقط
- لا أحد

9. يتم احتكار الوظيفة الجماعية من طرف الأعضاء الأعلى مستوى:
- دائمًا
- أحيانًا
- نادراً
- أبداً

10. أنا مسؤول عن عملي الخاص خلال الوظيفة الجماعية.
- دائمًا
- أحيانًا
- نادراً
- أبداً

11. أشعر أنني مسؤول عن نجاح كل فرد في المجموعة.
- نعم
- لا

12. بعد العمل الجماعي يقيم أعضاء مجموعتي عملية إنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية.
- دائمًا
- أحيانًا
- نادراً
- أبداً

13. هدفي من العمل الجماعي هو:
- النجاح الفردي
- نجاح مجموعتي
- آخر، حدد من قصتك...

الجزء VI:
14. كم مرة يعطي الأستاذ وظائف جماعية؟
- دائمًا
- أحيانًا
- نادراً
- أبداً
- يشجع الأستاذ المشاركة الفردية لإنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية.
  - دائمًا
  - أحيانًا
  - نادراً
  - أبداً

- يشجع الأستاذ النقاش الجماعي لإنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية.
  - دائمًا
  - أحيانًا
  - نادراً
  - أبداً

17- هل يتدخل الأستاذ لتقديم العون خلال الوظيفة الجماعية؟
  - نعم
  - لا

18- هل هل يقيم الأستاذ العمل الجماعي؟
  - نعم
  - لا

19- في حالة نعم، هل يقيم:
  - فردية
  - جماعية
  - فردية وجماعة
  - آخر، حدّد من فضلك
ن تشكيككم لمن تحنا بعضنا في وتقكم لإفادتنا يرآيكيفما بخص تعلكم اللغة الإنجليزية. إن الأسالة التي بحوزكم ليست استحانا، لذلك ليس هناك جواب صحيح أو خاطئ. كما نك لنكم مجريين على التعريف بهويتك، نحن مهتمون بأرائكم الشخصية فقط، لذلك نطلب منكم الإجابنة بزاحية لضمان نجاح البحث.

ضع علامة (x) في الجواب الذي يتوافق مع موقفك:

1- أي من هذه المهارات تجدها صعبة في الإنجليزية:
- التكلم
- القراءة
- الفهم
- الكتابة

2- أفضل التعبير عن أفكارتي بالإنجليزية عن طريق:
- الكتابة
- الكلام

3- نقص التطبيق يمنعني من فهم الإنجليزية:
-وافق
-افق جدا
-أعارض
-أعارض جدا

4- الخوف من ارتكب الأخطاء يمنعني من التكلم بالإنجليزية:
-وافق
-افق جدا
-أعارض
-أعارض جدا

5- الخوف من ارتكب الأخطاء يعيق مشاركتي في القسم:
-وافق
-افق جدا
-أعارض
-أعارض جدا
6-أشارك في حصة الإنجليزية:
- دائمًا  
- أحيانًا  
- نادرا  
- أبدا

7-هل تعتقد أن الوقت المخصص للكلام محترق من طرف الأستاذ؟
- نعم  
- لا

8-المشاركة في القسم محتركة من طرف التلاميذ الأعلى مستوى:
- أافق  
- أافق جدا  
- أعارض  
- أعارض جدا

9-كم مرة يعطي الأستاذ وظائف جماعية:
- دائمًا  
- أحيانًا  
- نادرا  
- أبدا

10-أشارك في إنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية:
- دائمًا  
- أحيانًا  
- نادرا  
- أبدا

11-يتناقش أعضاء مجموعتي لإتمام الوظيفة الجماعية:
- دائمًا  
- أحيانًا  
- نادرا  
- أبدا
12 - يتم إنجاز الوظيفة الجماعية من طرف:

☐ كل أعضاء مجموعتي
☐ بعض أعضاء المجموعة فقط
☐ لا أحد
ملخص:

إن التعلم مسألة اجتماعية. لقد أصبح الدور الذي يلعبه الأفراد المتقاربة الأعمار في تطوير علم بعضها البعض أمرًا مهمًا ومركز تسليط البحث للضوء لقد حاولنا من خلال دراستنا فهم الأسباب التي تتيح أو تعيق فرص التلاميذ في الانضمام إلى التفاعلات الاجتماعية المتمثلة في الوظائف المدرسية الجماعية. لقد سعينا من خلال تقنية الاستمارة إلى معرفة مواصفات الأستاذة والتلاميذ ضد سواء اتجاه العمل الجماعي. ولقد أظهرت النتائج أن الفهم الخاطئ من طرف بعض الأساتذة يؤدى إلى مواقف سلبية تجاه العمل الجماعي من طرف بعض التلاميذ. كما أخطأ أن بعض الإجراءات الخاطئة المتغيرة من طرف الأساتذة لتطبيق هذا النوع من الوظائف المدرسية تحد من مشاركة التلاميذ. وأخيراً، فإنه يرجى من الأساتذة الأخذ بين الاعتبار مشاركة التلاميذ خلال الوظائف الجماعية بالتركيز على طريقة تطبيق الوظيفة وتقييمها لتشجيع التلاميذ للمشاركة والتفاعل مع أعضاء المجموعة.

Résumé:

L'apprentissage est un fait social. En effet, la vie en société est une école où nous acquérons beaucoup de connaissances. D'ailleurs, l’influence mutuelle des différents membres d’un groupe du même âge sur leurs stratégies d’apprentissage devient un centre proéminent de la recherche. Notre modeste recherche vise à découvrir ce qui pouvait promouvoir ou empêcher la prise de parole dans les interactions pédagogiques par les apprenants dans les travaux de groupe.

Via la technique du questionnaire, nous avons tenté de cerner les attitudes des apprenants et le point de vue des enseignants vis-à-vis de l’apprentissage en groupe. Les résultats obtenus indiquent que les enseignants se sont faits de fausses idées sur les travaux de groupe, ce qui a négativement influencé certains apprenants. Nous avons également remarqué que les procédés des enseignants sont inappropriés, de part les tâches assignées ainsi que l’évaluation pratiquée lors de ces travaux de groupe, ce qui a considérablement nuit et affecté les interactions et la participation des apprenants au sein de groupe.

Par conséquent, il serait judicieux que les enseignants prênt davantage attention à la participation des apprenants et à leurs interactions pendant le déroulement des travaux de groupe en insistant sur la tâche assignée ainsi que sur la façon d’évaluer et récompenser les membres du groupe afin de les motiver et les encourager à participer volontiers et à interagir entre eux.