



**INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR
THE STUDY OF COOPERATION IN EDUCATION**
<http://www.iasce.net>
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Dear IASCE Members,

IASCE is pleased to bring you this issue of our member newsletter. This is our final newsletter for 2003 and, once again, our Newsletter presents a varied and thought-provoking compilation of recent work in the field. As I reviewed the abstracts, I was delighted to learn about studies with subjects ranging from very young children to graduate students. Some of these studies focus on content-area learning such as math, biology, physics, technology, family law, and second language acquisition. The breadth of content areas, coupled with the wide-ranging cultural contexts, reminds us that cooperative learning continues to be a vital and flexible tool for teaching and learning. Many studies develop the concepts of learning how to cooperate and the affective benefits of learning in cooperative contexts. These studies include a) one that examines how young children learn "togetherness"; b) an article that reminds readers that social-skill deficits have debilitating effects on a child's daily life; and c) many studies that measure improved attitudes and confidence levels of students in subjects as varied as assessment, math, social studies, science, and technology.

A third cluster of studies describes projects in teacher education. These studies, coupled with this issue's contribution by IASCE Forum member Claudia Finkbeiner, remind us how critically important it is to educate teachers about the potential and power of cooperation for teaching and learning. As many of you know, teacher education for cooperative learning is a priority focus for IASCE. We are delighted to announce that the IASCE-supported publication **Teaching Cooperative Learning: The Challenge for Teacher Education** will be published in December 2003 by State University of New York Press. This volume, edited by IASCE Co-President Celeste Brody and former board members Elizabeth Cohen and Mara Sapon-Shevin, explores practices in teacher education programs that consciously teach and promote cooperative learning strategies. The ten chapters describe programs from ten institutions in three countries. These chapters, along with four analytical commentaries, provide support for educators who are undertaking the challenge of preparing teachers to implement sophisticated instructional strategies such as cooperative learning. We are very excited about this project, and we thank the IASCE membership for the support that has helped to make this publication possible. Please visit www.sunypress.edu to order a copy.

In our last newsletter, Richard Dawson provided us with a dynamic description of our upcoming conference in Singapore. The local planning group (special thanks to IASCE board member Christine Lee), IASCE, and the National Institute of Education have been working tirelessly and creatively to make this conference a significant event for educators in Asia, for IASCE members and supporters everywhere, and for cooperative learning. In this issue of the newsletter, we provide you with more details of the conference (updates are available through www.iasce.net) and with the important reminder that proposals for presentations are due December 31st. We hope to hear from all of you in November and we look forward to seeing you in Singapore. Remember the dates—June 21-24, 2004 and the theme—*Cooperation and Collaboration: Diversity of Practice, Cultural Contexts, and Creative Innovations*. This conference marks IASCE's 25th birthday and we plan to celebrate!

Please help us "spread the word."

Cooperatively yours,
Lynda

Lynda Baloché
IASCE Co-President

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Recent Dissertations Related to Cooperative Learning

Cruz, H. T. (2002). *The effects of multimedia cooperative learning instructional materials on teacher use and student satisfaction with cooperative learning*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota.

This field study project determined the impact of utilizing Multimedia Cooperative Learning Instructional Materials (MCLIM) in the teacher training process. Teacher use of cooperative learning strategies and student satisfaction with cooperative learning experiences were investigated. The following research questions were the focus of this study: (1) Does the use of MCLIM in the teacher training process enhance the use of cooperative learning in post-secondary vocational classrooms? (2) Does the use of MCLIM in the teacher training process reduce teachers' level of concern with using cooperative learning strategies in the classroom? (3) Does the use of MCLIM in the teacher training process, and by teachers using cooperative learning strategies, result in higher student satisfaction levels with the cooperative learning instruction they receive? The significance of this study is the translation of theoretical concepts and framework related to cooperative learning into daily practice facilitating group learning in vocational classrooms. This study tested the value of instructional materials that were developed as a direct result of knowledge gained in the researcher's doctoral program and through professional use of cooperating learning of the researcher. The methodology for this study consisted of quantitative research methods. Its primary design was quasi-experimental. This design was used because of the researcher's lack of complete control over the variables in the study. The best design for this study would have been experimental design. A pretest-posttest control group design was used because of the nature of the study. An analysis of covariance in which the posttest means are compared using pretest scores as a covariant were used as a method of controlling pre test bias. Both groups were pre and post tested using the Stages of Concern questionnaire and Levels of Use questionnaire. The Classroom Life Measures was given to the students in focus classes. In an effort to answer the research questions posed by this study, the researcher taught two one-credit (10 hour) seminars on cooperative learning at Milwaukee Area Technical College (MATC) in Milwaukee, Wisconsin. Thirty vocational educators from the site and a nearby technical college were recruited to participate in the seminars. They self-selected into a control and experimental group. The control group received the traditional method of instruction without MCLIM, and the experimental group was instructed with the use of MCLIM.

Gilliam, J. H. (2002). *The impact of cooperative learning and course learning environment factors on learning outcomes and overall excellence in the community college classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, North Carolina State University.

This quantitative study explored the impact of the cooperative learning instructional method on 12 course learning environment factors, learning outcomes, and overall excellence of instruction and courses in a small rural comprehensive community college. This study also investigated the relationship of the 12 course learning environment factors on learning outcomes and overall excellence of instruction and courses. The IDEA Center student rating form (IDEA Center, 1998b) was used to measure these variables. The Questionnaire on the Use of Cooperative Learning (Cooperative Learning Center, 1991) was used to identify courses integrating cooperative learning and those not integrating cooperative learning for comparison on several variables. All students enrolled in courses in regular schedule academic credit courses were used in the study. Over 3000 student ratings were collected for analysis. A quasi-experimental representative design proposed that an experimental group (students in courses taught cooperatively) and a comparison group (students in courses not taught cooperatively) be compared on course learning environment factors, learning outcomes and overall excellence of instruction and courses. Students in courses taught cooperatively rated the course and instruction significantly higher than in courses not taught cooperatively on 10 of 12 course learning environment factors and learning outcomes. The impact of cooperative learning

on the overall excellence of instruction and courses was also statistically significant but marginal. The findings of the impact of course learning environment factors on learning outcomes and overall excellence of instruction and courses were very significant. Correlation and multiple regression statistical procedures were used to analyze the data. This study was significant not only because of the depth and scope of the study on cooperative learning in a community college, but also because of the investigation of how course learning environment factors impacted student ratings of learning outcomes and the overall excellence of instruction and courses.

Gwynn Paquette, C. (2002). *Construction of competency with cooperative learning by pre-service teachers as observed in supervisory conversations*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Universite de Sherbrooke.

In this qualitative study, using a socio-constructivist framework, I explored an aspect of learning to teach, describing the process by which a group of pre-service teachers construct their understanding of and develop ease with an unfamiliar teaching approach during student teaching. The research design included elements of ethnographic study in that the study involved prolonged contact with the participants. In addition I took a heuristic outlook in that as researcher/supervisor, I also participated actively in the process of learning and in the analysis of what occurred. I both acted as informant about the new teaching approach as well as coach for planning and for activity adjustment after in-class observation. As a result, I was able to highlight those elements of the learning environment and the mechanisms and relationships which contribute to or hinder the learning process. The cooperative learning approach was selected for the study since it seemed to provide an opportunity for varied activities which would respond to different student needs, it is recommended in present School Reform documents and it is not widely used in the high schools in the study area. The participants in the study had to build their knowledge of the approach from scratch for they had not been exposed to cooperative learning during their high school years and their university program barely touched on it. Nonetheless, the participants were able to develop their competence with the approach by using support and ideas from many sources: Their students proved to be the touchstone for their persistence with cooperative learning. Supervisory conversations were occasions for construction of knowledge, for shared reflection and for solution finding. Peers modelled successful activities, shared ideas and problem solved together. The cooperating teachers provided knowledge of their students and management suggestions. Thus the construction process was mastered by the learner who called upon all available resources to help him build his understanding and bolster his endeavours.

Knight-Giuliani, L. F. (2002). *The benefits of student-student interaction among adult students in the English as a second language classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Rutgers The State University of New Jersey.

Much of the literature on classroom interaction in the adult English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom has focused on the teacher-student relationship and, specifically, on how the teacher can promote learning. Although studies of teacher designed cooperative learning groups have shown that learning occurs when students work together in small groups, there are few studies that have looked at student-initiated student-student interactions that are not structured by the teacher. In focusing on the student-initiated student-student interactions that occurred in two university-level ESL classrooms, and the helping behaviors they represented, this study began to address the gap in the second language learning literature. To investigate the student-initiated helping behaviors that occurred in the two ESL classrooms observed, the researcher used an ethnographic approach, observing both classes as a passive observer. Any interactions among students that were not governed by the teacher and appeared to represent helping behaviors were noted and later analyzed. In addition, both informal and formal interviews were conducted with those students who volunteered. Three kinds of helping behaviors used among the students in both classes were identified in the field notes. In the analysis stage, these categories were described and

labeled as language helping behaviors, cultural helping behaviors, and general helping behaviors. For each kind of behavior, examples of student dialogues and vignettes were presented. Using the data obtained from the informal and formal interviews, it was hypothesized that student learning did result from student-initiated student-student interactions that contained helping behaviors. However, learning could not be proven to have occurred and was hypothesized to have occurred based on the students' own interpretations of their helping interactions. As a result, the main contribution of this study was in providing a set of categorizations of the helping behaviors that adult ESL students use to help each other while they are in class. In conclusion, by provoking thinking, this study offers innovative suggestions for ESL teachers who wish to promote positive student-student interactions in their own classrooms. In addition, this study has provided a foundation on which to base future research on student-initiated student-student interactions.

Sadler, K. C. (2002). *The effectiveness of cooperative learning as an instructional strategy to increase biological literacy and academic achievement in a large, non-majors college biology class*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Tennessee State University.

Cooperative learning may be defined as an active learning strategy in which students work together to create their knowledge interdependently to maximize their own and each other's learning (Aronson, Blaney, Stephens, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978; Johnson & Johnson, 1978; Kagan, 1988; Sharan & Sharan, 1976; Slavin, 1977). Six non-majors biology lecture classes (N = 349) at a moderate sized southern university in the Fall 2002 semester participated in the study. One lecture class integrated daily cooperative group learning strategies throughout the semester; the other five classes were a continuum of direct lecture instructional practices. The data collected to ascertain biological literacy was obtained using the Biology Self-Efficacy Scale (BSES) and the Texas high school Biology-End-of-Course Exam (BECE, Spring 2001) administered in a pre- and posttest design. The data on student achievement was determined by the final course grade as reported by the lecture instructor. Differential means were analyzed with a One-Way ANOVA. Comparing the cooperative with the direct lecture classes, there was a significant difference between the differential means of BSES Factor 3, application of biological concepts and BECE overall knowledge. There was no significant difference between BSES Factor 1, methods of biology, and Factor 2, generalization to other sciences or BECE process and content questions. There was no significant difference in academic achievement. Although the cooperative lecture class reported greater confidence in applying biology to other areas and overall biology knowledge, this study's results were not consistent with primary through postsecondary research related to cooperative learning, biological literacy, and academic achievement.

Wicklund, D. M. (2002). *Individual learning versus cooperative learning in a university spreadsheet applications class*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota.

This study investigated whether individual learners or cooperative learners perform more effectively and efficiently in a university spreadsheet applications class. Even though there is documented evidence that cooperative learning may produce positive results across a wide range of students and curriculums, there is little research documenting cooperative learning at the college level (Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991b). Further, there was no research documenting cooperative learning with spreadsheet applications with university or college students. The major questions the study sought to answer were four research hypotheses: (1) there is a difference in individual learners and cooperative learners performances, (2) there is a difference in the teacher assistance time required for individual learners and cooperative learners, (3) there is a difference in the computer time required to complete assignments for individual learners and cooperative learners, and (4) there is a difference in the documentation study time used by individual learners and cooperative learners. This study used a design that compared the posttest and self-reported data of an experimental group, which used a cooperative learning method to learn spreadsheet

applications, with the data for the control group, which used an individualized method to learn spreadsheet applications. The treatment was randomly assigned to intact classes. The SAM test was used for the performance measurement. There was significant difference between the experimental section and the control section for student time spent on the computer completing assignments. The cooperative group of students spent less time on the computer. The results of this study suggest one can expect a cooperative learning approach will reduce students' time on the computer compared to traditional individual focused classes. This is consistent with Olivas' (1991) results.



From the Journals

* Indicates that the abstract was specially written for this compilation

** Indicates that the abstract is from ERIC - askeric.org

Sluijsmans, D. M. A., Brand-Gruwel, S., van Merriënboer, J. J. G., & Bastiaens, T. J. (2003). The training of peer assessment skills to promote the development of reflection skills in teacher education. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 29*, 23-42.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of a training in assessment skills. 110 student teachers were trained in peer assessment skills within three courses on mathematics. After each course, students wrote a reflection paper, which was assessed by a peer. Students were allowed to improve their first reflection paper after the second and third course, based on peer feedback. The teacher assessed the final paper two weeks after the third course. Based on analysis of the written assessments and grades of the reflection papers, it appeared that the training led to a progress in students' skill to assess and an increase of the quality of the reflection papers. The results of a questionnaire show that students' views on assessment changed positively.

Shumway, S., Saunders, W., Stewardson, G. & Reeve, E. (2001). A comparison of classroom interpersonal goal structures and their effect on group problem-solving performance and student attitudes toward their learning environment. *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, 38*(3), 6-24.

** High school technology education students were assigned to groups with either a cooperative-competitive (n=65) or cooperative-cooperative (n=64) goal structure. All cooperative-cooperative groups had to achieve a certain level for groups to get a top score. Students in the cooperative-cooperative environment had more positive attitudes and performed as well as, but did not outperform, the cooperative-competitive groups.

Emmer, E. T., & Gerwels, M. C. (2002). Cooperative learning in elementary classrooms: Teaching practices and lesson characteristics. *Elementary School Journal, 103*(1), 75-91.

** Investigated characteristics of cooperative learning (CL) lessons among experienced elementary school teachers. Found considerable variation in the extent to which lessons incorporated major features of CL. Lesson success based on student engagement, performance, and cooperation was associated with higher levels of individual or group accountability, teacher monitoring, feedback, and the use of manipulative materials in group work.

Piercy, M., Wilton, K., & Townsend, M. (2002). Promoting the social acceptance of young children with moderate-severe intellectual disabilities using cooperative-learning techniques. *American Journal on Mental Retardation, 107*, 352-60.

** The effects of a cooperative learning program on the social acceptance of 51 children (ages 6-7) with moderate to severe mental retardation by children without disabilities were examined. Children without disabilities in the cooperative learning program gave the children with disabilities higher peer acceptance ratings, greater popularity indices, and lower social distance ratings.

Kramarski, B., Mevarech, Z. R., & Lieberman, A. (2001). Effects of multilevel versus unilevel metacognitive training on mathematical reasoning. *Journal of Educational Research, 94*, 292-300.

** Investigated the effects, on 7th graders' mathematical reasoning, of: cooperative learning embedded within multilevel metacognitive training (MMT), cooperative learning embedded within unilevel metacognitive training (UMT), and whole-class learning with no metacognitive training. Students exposed to MMT significantly outperformed students exposed to UMT, who significantly outperformed controls. Effects of MMT were observed as students solved mathematical problems.

Tsai, M-J. (2002). Do male students often perform better than female students when learning computers? A study of Taiwanese eighth graders' computer education through strategic and cooperative learning. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 26*, 67-85.

** This study of Taiwanese eight graders investigated the impacts of strategic learning, cooperative learning, and their combination on junior high school students' computer achievement, attitudes, and anxiety. Highlights include the interaction between gender and learning context; higher computer anxiety among boys; and the role of the culture of socialization involving computers.

McMaster, K. N., & Fuchs, D. (2002). Effects of cooperative learning on the academic achievement of students with learning disabilities: An update of Tateyama-Sniezek's review. *Learning Disabilities: Research & Practice, 17*(2), 107-117.

** This article reviews 15 research studies published from 1990 to 2000 examining effects of cooperative learning strategies on the academic achievement of students with learning disabilities. Despite design problems, the review finds that cooperative learning strategies that incorporate individual accountability and group rewards are likely to improve achievement.

Mueller, A., & Fleming, T. (2001). Cooperative learning: Listening to how children work at school. *Journal of Educational Research, 94*(5) 259-265.

** Examined the effectiveness of 6th and 7th graders' cooperative learning groups, recording student work sessions and conducting student interviews and self-evaluations. When working cooperatively, students required some unstructured time to organize themselves and learn to work together toward a mutual goal. Students liked this type of learning more than textbooks and worksheets. All groups successfully completed their projects.

Alley, L. R., & Jansak, K. E. (2001). The ten keys to quality assurance and assessment in online learning. *Journal of Interactive Instruction Development, 13*(3), 3-18.

** Describes how the core principles of learning science lead to associated best practices in instructional design and how to translate those into practical applications in Web-based online courses. Topics include knowledge construction; student motivation; higher order learning; learning styles; experiential learning; cooperative and collaborative learning; prior learning; and spiral learning.

Sonnier-York, C., & Stanford, P. (2002). Learning to cooperate: A teacher's perspective. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 34(6), 40-44.

** Discussion of applying strategies of cooperative learning offers five principles and reflections of one teacher. The principles are: (1) teach what you preach; (2) accountability counts; (3) mediation versus aggravation; (4) publish or perish; and (5) create or satiate. Suggestions for evaluation include encouraging student feedback and moving toward integrating cooperative learning across the curriculum.

Siciliano, J. I. (2001). How to incorporate cooperative learning principles in the classroom: It's more than just putting students in teams. *Journal of Management Education*, 25(1), 8-20.

** Presents a technique for structuring cooperative learning that enables teams to work together meaningfully on in-class exercises. Includes incentives for students to assist one another, team role survey, skills and duties of team members, and a description of the exercises and the cooperative learning principles they are designed to develop.

van Oers, B., & Hannikainen, M. Some thoughts about togetherness: An introduction. *International Journal of Early Years Education*, 9(2), 101-108.

** Discusses the need to study the social interactive dimension of learning, attempting to formulate a definition of togetherness on a theoretical basis. Explores processes in early childhood that relate to understanding how children learn to maintain togetherness in their group activities, and how a strategy for togetherness may prepare children for later collaborative learning. [Part of a special issue on Togetherness and Play]

Jensen, M., Moore, R., & Hatch, J. (2002). Cooperative learning--Part I: Cooperative quizzes. *American Biology Teacher*, 64(1), 29-34.

** Lists and discusses the functions that cooperative quizzes can serve if structured correctly. The quizzes can facilitate a greater understanding of the subject, promote better test-taking skills, and be used as a mechanism to foster cooperative groups.

Yu, F-Y. (2001). Competition within computer-assisted cooperative learning environments: Cognitive, affective, and social outcomes. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 24(2), 99-117.

** Examines the effects and implications of embedding the element of competition in computer-assisted cooperative learning situations on student cognitive, affective, and social outcomes. Results of statistical analyses of Taiwanese fifth graders show that cooperation without inter-group competition engendered better attitudes and promoted more positive inter-personal relationships.

Cox, A. J., & Junkin, W. F., III. (2002). Enhanced student learning in the introductory physics laboratory. *Physics Education*, 37(1), 37-44.

** Describes taking laboratory experiments, modifying them to include aspects of peer instruction and collaborative learning, and using pre- and post-tests to measure student learning gains in two of these labs. Data indicates that this modification substantially increases student learning-it increases the average student learning gain from pre- to post-test by 50-100%.

Quarstein, V. A.; & Peterson, P. A. (2001). Assessment of cooperative learning: A goal-criterion approach. *Innovative Higher Education*, 26(1), 59-77.

** Developed and evaluated a model to assess group learning; the model required balanced representation among multiple learning criteria arranged in six goal-criterion sets drawn from the literature on group learning. Administered a test instrument to students and found imbalances among criteria in the six sets which helped identify and correct weaknesses in course design and methods of instruction.

Speece, M. (2002). Experiential learning methods in Asian cultures: A Singapore Case study. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 65(3), 106-121.

** Describes the implementation of an experiential learning approach in Singapore. Notes that individual-based discussion in Singapore rarely works well. Focuses on small groups as the basis for case discussion and small projects. Concludes that the objectives of experiential learning were accomplished through the small group format to make the methodology fit better with the cultural and educational system.

Strom, P. S. & Strom, R. D. (2002). Overcoming limitations of cooperative learning among community college students. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 26, 315-331.

** Analyzes two limitations associated with cooperative learning: how to evaluate the teamwork skills that students demonstrate during group work, and how to provide tasks that enable students to practice these teamwork skills. Discusses a new model of learning and instruction called Collaboration-Integration Theory (CIT), which ensures that students move from a passive to an active role.

Cracolice, M. S., & Deming, J. C. (2001). Peer-led team learning. *Science Teacher*, 68(1), 20-24.

** Introduces the Peer-Led Team Learning (PLTL) model as an alternative to traditional cooperative learning. Discusses the difficulties of PLTL based curriculum which include finding the peer leaders, selecting the right materials for implementation, and training techniques for peer leaders.

Krank, H. M., & Moon, C. E. (2001). Can a combined mastery/cooperative learning environment positively impact undergraduate academic and affective outcomes? *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 31(2), 195-208.

** Applies instructional strategies derived from the concept of mastery learning and cooperative learning to 104 undergraduate social science students enrolled in three sections of a required course. Finds significant effects for the combined mastery/cooperative learning condition, showing greater change in self-concept and higher achievement compared to either mastery learning alone or cooperative learning alone.

Gilbert, N. J. & Driscoll, M. P. (2002). Collaborative knowledge building: A case study. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 50(1), 59-79.

** Investigates collaborative knowledge building in a graduate level course designed to incorporate specific constructivist learning principles. Results indicated the instructional strategies promoted collaborative knowledge building and the acquisition of key concepts through self-directed learning strategies. Results also indicated types of technological support required to implement a community of learners.

Nath, L. R., & Ross, S. M. (2001). The influence of a peer-tutoring training model for implementing cooperative groupings with elementary students. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 49(2), 41-56.

** Examines the effects of peer-tutoring training on elementary school student communication and collaboration skills when used in conjunction with cooperative learning. Within six classes in an inner-city school, cooperative learning pairs were randomly assigned to two groups (control and training). Findings showed that, in general, the training group surpassed the control group in both communication and collaboration skills.

Wallace, J., & Chou, C-Y. (2001). Similarity and difference: Student cooperation in Taiwanese and Australian science classrooms. *Science Education*, 85, 694-711.

** Examines the way in which students cooperate in Taiwanese and Australian science classrooms. Concludes that students from Taiwan and Australia have a range of understandings and interpretations about what it means to cooperate in science classrooms. There are complex connections between cooperative behavior, student academic ability, sex, and nationality which are best understood in socio-cultural terms.

Gut, D. M., & Safran, S. P. (2002). Cooperative learning and social stories: Effective social skills strategies for reading teachers. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, 18(1), 87-91.

** Suggests that few teachers understand the debilitating effect that social skill deficits have on a child's daily life. Notes that instructional strategies such as cooperative learning groups and social stories can help children improve their social behavior. Encourages all educators not only to emphasize academics, but also to seize any opportunity to help develop social skills.

Dyson, B., & Grineski, S. (2001). *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation & Dance*, 72(2), 28-31.

** Research has determined that cooperative learning has positive effects in physical education. This article presents five important components of cooperative learning to help physical educators maximize learning (team formation, positive interdependence, individual accountability, positive social interaction, and group processing), describing five cooperative learning structures: think-share-perform; pairs-check-perform; jigsaw perform; co-op play; and learning teams.

Fetsch, R. J. [Email: fetsch@CAHS.Colostate.edu], & Yang, R. K. (2002, June). The effect of competitive and cooperative learning preferences on children's self-perceptions: A comparison of 4-H and non-4-H members. *Journal of Extension*, 40(3). Available at <http://www.joe.org/joe/2002june/a5.html>.

** A study of third- through fifth-graders (n=1,253, 53% 4-H members) indicated a preference for both cooperation and competition; members and nonmembers had similar scores on unconditional parental support and cooperative learning orientation; nonmembers scored higher on competitive learning. Children who preferred cooperative learning scored higher on behavioral conduct, physical appearance, scholastic competence, athletic competence, and social acceptance.

Hertz-Lazarowitz, R., & Bar-Natan, I. (2002). Writing development of Arab and Jewish students using cooperative learning (CL) and computer-mediated communication (CMC). *Computers & Education*, 39(1), 19-36.

** Investigated Israeli Jewish and Arab fifth- and sixth-grade student perceptions of and attitudes to writing in three learning environments: cooperative learning, computer-mediated communication (CMC), and a combination of the two. Concludes that the power of peer interaction in cooperative learning with CMC was greater than each learning environment by itself.

Kramarski, B., Mevarech, Z. R., & Arami, M. (2002). The effects of metacognitive instruction on solving mathematical authentic tasks. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 49(2), 225-250.

** Investigates the differential effects of cooperative learning with or without metacognitive instruction on lower and higher achievers' solutions of mathematical authentic tasks. Results indicate that students exposed to metacognitive instruction within cooperative learning (COOP+META) significantly outperformed their counterparts exposed to cooperative learning with no metacognitive instruction (COOP). The positive effects of COOP+META were observed on both authentic and standard tasks.

Phipps, M., Phipps, C., Kask, S., & Higgins, S. (2001). University students' perceptions of cooperative learning: Implications for administrators and instructors. *Journal of Experiential Education*, 24(1), 14-21.

** A study examining student perceptions of cooperative learning surveyed 210 college students. Results were contradictory, with positive evaluations of some specific techniques and less than positive evaluations of cooperative learning in general. Less than half perceived it to affect motivation positively. Colleges

should promote a shift in student expectations of college learning by encouraging active learning techniques.

Trempey, J. E., Skinner, M. M., & Siebold, W. A. (2002). Learning microbiology through cooperation: Designing cooperative learning activities that promote interdependence, interaction, and accountability. *Microbiology Education*, 3(1), 26-36.

** Describes the course "The World According to Microbes" which puts science, mathematics, engineering, and technology majors into teams of students charged with problem solving activities that are microbial in origin. Describes the development of learning activities that utilize key components of cooperative learning including positive interdependence, promotive interaction, individual accountability, teamwork skills, and group processing.

Vaughan, W. (2002). Effects of cooperative learning on achievement and attitude among students of color. *Journal of Educational Research*, 95, 359-364.

** Investigated the effects of cooperative learning on achievement in and attitudes toward mathematics among fifth graders of color in a culture different from that of the United States (Bermuda). Participants completed parts of the California Achievement Test and Penelope Peterson's Attitude Toward Mathematics Scale. Pre-test and post-test data indicated that participants made positive gains in mathematics attitudes and achievement.

Jensen, M., Moore, R., & Hatch, J. (2002). Cooperative learning-Part II. Cooperative group activities for the first week of class: Setting the tone with group web pages. *American Biology Teacher*, 64(2). 118-120.

** Presents three science activities for the first week of class that use the cooperative learning approach and computers. Requires students to create a web page to introduce group members.

Kagan, S., & High, J. (2002, Jul-Aug). Kagan structures for English language learners. *ESL Magazine*, 5(4), 10-12.

** Highlights Kagan Structures, easy-to-learn, easy-to-use cooperative learning instructional strategies that promote second language learning. In classrooms where these strategies are used, students for whom English is a second language learn both English and academic content far more quickly and thoroughly than when traditional strategies are used. Discusses the advantages of using Kagan Structures for teaching English language learners, and adapting Kagan Structures for levels of language development.

Bassano, S. (2003). Helping ESL students remember to speak English during group work. *TESOL Journal*, 12 (1), 35-36.

* This article presents ideas for encouraging students to, when appropriate, use their second language (target language or L2) rather than their native language (mother tongue) when working in groups. To prepare students their L2 in groups, teachers need to:

1. consider if students have sufficient language skills to do the task at hand
2. model and explain the task
3. help student know the roles they are to play in their groups
4. inform students of the criteria for successful work
5. help students know how to work together
6. provide topics that are relevant, personalized, and meaningful.

With that preparation in place, strategies suggested by the author for promoting L2 use in the groups include:

1. appoint a group member to monitor L2 use
2. give students tickets - when students use the L1, take back tickets - give rewards for groups with the most remaining tickets
3. distribute play money to students who use the L2
4. write contracts for L2 use and encourage students to sign the contracts
5. allow students to use the L1 in a designated corner of the classroom
6. seek student suggestions on how best to remind them to use their L2.

Sotillo, S. M. (2002). Constructivist and collaborative learning in a wireless environment. *TESOL Journal*, 11(3), 16-20.

* This article describes and discusses a wireless learning environment designed by the author for use by five English as a Second Language graduate students at a U.S. university. Limitations included the time needed to learn to use the hardware and software and the limits to the number of students who could use the environment at the same time due to scheduling conflicts and software capabilities. Advantages included more authentic communication, the ability to interact face-to-face and online, increased critical thinking, and greater productivity due to ubiquitous access to the Internet provided by the wireless technology.

Ma, R. (2003). A review of research on cooperative learning. *Teaching English in China*, 26, 24-26, 12.

Cooperative learning methodology has been seldom employed by English teachers in China. This paper reviews the research on cooperative learning in various areas, including three cooperative learning techniques, task-based interaction in cooperative learning and characteristics of cooperative learning. This paper argues that the essence of cooperative learning is that it can achieve task-based interactions favourable for Second Language Acquisition. In addition, cooperative learning has a positive effect of student achievement. Accordingly, it is hoped that cooperative learning methodology will be widely applied in China.

Liang, X. [xliang@csulb.edu], & Mohan, B. (2003). Dilemmas of cooperative learning and academic proficiency in two languages. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 35-51.

This study examines cooperative learning in relation to goals for L2 development, L1 maintenance, and content learning. It investigates how Chinese immigrant students perceive these goals, and how they use L1 and L2 to acquire content knowledge during cooperative learning activities. An analysis of interviews with the students indicates that they had contradictory feelings about cooperative learning goals, in particular the goals of L1 maintenance and L2 development. A functional analysis of the students' interaction during cooperative learning sessions reveals differences between the L1 and L2 discourse they produced. Taken together, these findings indicate that the ideal goals that are claimed for cooperative learning may involve dilemmas between L1 maintenance and L2 development, between the use of L1 and L2 in academic discourse, and between the use of the L1 and L2 for the learning of content. Bilingual academic language proficiency is also shown to be a complex matter, involving the translation of meaning systems, not just labels.

Bunch, G., Lotan, R. A., & Valdes, G. (2001). Beyond sheltered instruction. *TESOL Journal*, 10(2/3), 28-33.

This article describes the efforts of one university-sponsored project in process in which researchers, teacher educators, classroom teachers, and other school personnel worked together to reform mainstream middle school social studies classrooms to meet the needs of transitional English language learners. The

authors place the project in the context of ongoing discussions among educators as to conditions under which linguistically diverse students can develop the language necessary for academic success. Four conditions are proposed: (1) appropriate preparation and support for teachers, (2) learning tasks which promote using language to negotiate a rigorous, grade-appropriate curriculum, (3) equal status participation in small groups, with opportunities for English learners to have access to mainstream peers who can serve as linguistic and academic resources, and (4) an explicit focus on academic language development. The authors discuss the ways in which the project is seeking to meet these conditions, including examples from the curriculum, which centered on four Complex Instruction units.

Henderson, T. L., & Martin, K. J. (2002). Cooperative learning as one approach to teaching family law. *Family Relations, 51*, 351-360.

We identified appropriate family law content and a pedagogical vehicle to support instructors interested in teaching family law to students of family studies and human development programs. Additionally, we provide instructors with an overview of a family law course, a detailed model syllabus, strategies, and model assignments for using cooperative learning as the core pedagogy. We review the pedagogical value of cooperative learning in general and give specific cooperative assignments for our readers. The course model is designed to improve students' critical thinking, team building, and problem-solving skills toward understanding the intersection of families and the law.

Donohue, K. M. [Email: kathdonohue@aol.com], Perry, K. E., & Weinstein, R. S. (2003). Teachers' classroom practices and children's rejection by their peers. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 24*(1), 91-118.

Using a classroom-level, prospective design, we examined the role of classroom context in children's peer relationships, specifically, whether learner-centered practices used by teachers predicted less peer rejection by children, as well as more positive attitudes and behaviors hypothesized to lead to rejection. Learner-centered practices involve individualization of instruction, encouragement of child autonomy, and focus on positive relationships in the classroom. Observers, teachers, and children reported on learner-centered qualities of the instructional environment in 14 first-grade classrooms. After controlling for between-classroom differences in children's interpersonal behavior problems at school entry, greater use of learner-centered practices was predictive of (1) children's report of less anger and more empathy toward a hypothetical disruptive peer, (2) fewer children with interpersonal behavior problems in the spring, and (3) lower classroom rates of peer rejection in the spring. Further, children's behavior problems in the spring partially mediated the relationship between observed teacher practices in the fall and rejection by peers in the spring.

Jacobs, G. M. (2003). Cooperative learning to promote human rights. *Human Rights Education in Asian Schools, 6*, 119-129. Available online at <http://www.hurights.or.jp/hreas/index.html>.

* To successfully teach human rights, the medium must match the message, i.e., the way we teach should be consistent with the ideas of human rights that we are teaching as content. Many human rights friendly teaching methods exist. This article describes one of them: cooperative learning. First, an overview of cooperative learning will be presented including history, research support, and theoretical foundations. Then, in the main part of the article, principles of cooperative learning will be explained, with examples of how these principles can be enacted in the classroom, and with connections between the principles and key concepts in human rights.

IASCE Forum

This is the latest in the series of Forum members' "calling cards" that describe the development of cooperative learning in their respective countries. Forum coordinators are IASCE Board members Yael Sharan (yaelshar@zahav.net.il) and Kathryn Markovchick (kathrynm@maine.edu).

Cooperative Learning and Teaching in Germany Claudia Finkbeiner

This survey article focuses on the status quo as well as the historical development of cooperative and collaborative learning in Germany. Due to the growing social, cultural and ethnic diversity in Germany, cooperation and communication are overall goals in all official curricula and are considered as key qualifications (Finkbeiner, 1995) for a successful school and job career in a highly diverse society. For instance, the recent PISA study (Program for International Students' Assessment) put major emphasis on the research of cooperative and communicative skills (Stanat & Kunter, 2001).

Socialization and individualization are seen as complementary processes supporting each other. Cooperative behavior is seen as a conglomeration of complex personal characteristics that include various linguistic, social and cognitive skills as well as attitudinal and affective factors (Stanat & Kunter 2001). In specific regard to multi-literacy, the area in which I work, proficiency in several languages is valued as a pre-condition for creating equity in cooperative settings (Cohen & Lotan 1997; Finkbeiner 2001). This includes proficiency in the mother tongue, German as an official classroom language, English as *lingua franca* and possibly the language of one of Germany's nine neighboring countries and/or a language of other countries (Finkbeiner & Fehling, in press). This is true both for school, university and labor and market settings.

Historical perspective

Even though there is a long historical tradition of cooperative learning and "Gruppenarbeit" (group learning) in Germany, there still is a major focus on teacher-oriented lessons (Huber, 1997; Nuhn, 2000). Historically speaking, the term 'group work' was not used in German educational terminology before the end of the 19th century. However, the idea of student-student cooperation had already been developed in medieval times. At the time of the Reformation, the so-called 'Helfersystem' emerged in which older students taught the younger ones to assist the teacher in managing a huge class.

Later, in the early 20th century, several reform pedagogues deployed forms of cooperative learning and teaching to meet the challenges and consequences of a changing society. It was extremely contradictory to the underlying idea and devastating for educational development in Germany that the "Reformpädagogik"-movement in Germany was abused by the Nazi regime and, as a consequence, came to a complete standstill. Together with the ideas of the "Reformpädagogik"-movement, the concept of cooperative learning and teaching were rediscovered in the 1970s and were channeled into a holistic, action-oriented, humanistic approach with a high focus on autonomous and student-centered learning (Finkbeiner, 1995; 2002).

Cooperative learning has remained at the center of interest to this very day (Huber, 1997, 2001; Finkbeiner, 1995; Meyer, 1975; Jank & Meyer, 1991). Yet, classroom research in the 1960s as well as in the 1980s showed that only rarely would forms of cooperative learning and teaching be used in German schools (Huber, 1997). Teachers often argued that this was due to a number of organizational obstacles that they had to deal with, such as the arrangement of tables in the classroom. This was particularly awkward if not all teachers wanted to conduct forms of cooperative learning and teaching. Teachers to this very day are

often preoccupied with organizational matters and sometimes lose sight of the students' activities. This is why it is important to integrate cooperative principles directly into teacher qualification programs, such as indicated below in the LMR plus model.

Terminology of Cooperation

The German terminology focuses on the organizational form (*Gruppenarbeit* = group work, team work), whereas, internationally, the emphasis is put on the process of group activities, such as cooperation and collaboration. Huber (1997) points out that the keyword 'Kooperation' (cooperation) hardly appears in established German handbooks of school education (*Schulpaedagogik*). Similarly, a database search in the FIS Bildung Literaturdatenbank, a comprehensive database of educational publications in German, resulted in 79 hits for the key phrase 'kooperatives_Lernen' ('cooperative_learning') as opposed to 653 hits for the keyword 'Gruppenarbeit' (I thank Eva Wilden, University of Kassel, for help with the data base research.). That might be due to the fact that the term 'cooperation' goes together with 'collaboration,' and the latter term carries a secondary, negative connotation. Thus, 'collaboration' is not used as frequently as 'cooperation.' This is somehow a pity, as originally the two terms highlighted two important ends of group dynamics: a) cooperation focuses on the "opus," the product, and b) collaboration focuses on the "labor," the process.

Today, different models have been developed in order to make cooperative learning and teaching proficiency a basic and fundamental skill all learners can share and build on. The challenge lies in the fact that cooperative learning cannot really be taught: cooperative learning is learned through cooperative learning. The LMR Plus model I have developed at the University of Kassel elucidates how this is done (Finkbeiner, 2001). All classes on EFL teaching and on foreign language research at the University of Kassel are based on the LMR Plus model. My work has been highly influenced by Elizabeth Cohen, Celeste Brody, and Patricia Ruggiano Schmidt, all three from the U.S., Yael Sharan from Israel, and Ernst Meyer and Guenter Huber of Germany.

The LMR Plus model

The LMR Plus model is employed at the university level, mainly with teachers training to be EFL instructors. L stands for learner, M stands for moderator or teacher and R stands for researcher. The LMR Plus focuses on cooperation and collaboration among the changing and interchangeable roles of teacher and learner, as well as both of them as researchers (Finkbeiner, in press). As there are three different roles, students must acquire at least three different sets of competencies: a) L as in learner: as a learner one needs to develop learning strategies, learning techniques, and learning awareness. b) M as in moderator: as a moderator, one needs organizational skills, as well as strategies for presentation and moderation. Organizational skills include giving task and learner orientations and developing criteria for the appropriateness of tasks and topics. A meta-cognitive awareness of these strategies allows the individuals to revise their theories on moderating and teaching groups. c) R as in researcher: as a researcher one develops an elaborate diagnostic competence, the ability to develop and use tests, and respect for specific standards of reliability and validity in tests and research results. For example, in this role, a teacher needs to make sure that test objectives are carefully defined. In using peer assessment, the researcher-teacher needs to make sure that peers know how to assess one another in particular situations. d) The Plus in the model refers to the use of the foreign language as a vehicle for classroom communication. Using a foreign language involves knowledge about a different culture (Finkbeiner & Koplín, 2002; Schmidt & Finkbeiner, in press), empathy for others, the capacity to change perspectives and see the world through the other person's eyes, and the power to negotiate and give critical yet constructive feedback to peers.

The application of cooperative principles is so important because what we do not care about in teacher education today will not be cared about by teachers who educate children tomorrow.

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New Book!

Teaching Cooperative Learning: The Challenge for Teacher Education

Edited by IASCE Co-President Celeste Brody and former board members Elizabeth Cohen and Mara Sapon-Shevin

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Supplemental Instruction: Cooperative Learning and Embedded Learning Strategies

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Former National Project Director for Supplemental Instruction

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An Overview of Supplemental Instruction (SI)

The Supplemental Instruction (SI) model of academic enrichment helps students in historically difficult classes master content while they develop learning and study strategies. SI program outcomes include: (1) improved student grades in targeted courses; (2) reduced attrition rates within those courses; and (3) increased persistence rates. All students in a targeted course are urged to attend the optional SI sessions which are held outside of class, and students with varying ability levels participate. Historically-difficult classes typically have rates of 30% or more of low marks (*D, F, or course withdrawal*). There is no stigma attached to SI since historically difficult courses rather than high risk students are targeted. Since SI is scalable, it can be implemented in one or more courses each term. SI was one of the first cooperative learning community models widely adopted in U.S. higher education (Arendale, 2002).

SI was created at the University of Missouri-Kansas City in 1973. After a rigorous review process in 1981, SI was designated by the U.S. Department of Education as the first of only two programs as improving both academic achievement and graduation rates. Faculty and staff from more than 1,000 institutions in 13 countries have received training to implement SI. Around the world, each academic term approximately 250,000 students participate in SI (Arendale, 2003).

Key Persons Involved in SI

There are four key persons involved with SI. The first is the SI supervisor, a college staff or faculty person who: identifies the historically-difficult targeted courses; gains faculty support; selects, trains, and monitors SI leaders, and evaluates the program.

The second key person for SI is the faculty member who teaches one of the identified courses. SI is only offered in courses in which the faculty member invites and supports SI. Faculty members screen SI leaders for content competency and approve selections. They generally meet with the SI leader periodically throughout the academic term to discuss SI session strategies and providing anonymous feedback.

The third key person is the SI leader. They are students who are course competent, approved by the course instructor, and trained in proactive cooperative learning and study strategies. The SI leader is considered a "near peer" (Whitman, 1988). SI leaders attend course lectures, take notes, read all assigned materials, and conduct three to five out-of-class SI sessions a week. The SI leader is the "*model student*," a facilitator who helps students to integrate course content and learning/study strategies. SI leaders generally receive a modest stipend and/or academic credit for their work.

The fourth key member of the SI program are the participating students. Through use of cooperative learning activities during the SI sessions, students are actively engaged in course review and practice use of learning strategies with the course content (Donelan & Wallace, 1997; Van Der Karr, 2001). Immediate integration of "how to learn" with "what to learn" is a distinctive SI feature. Rather than requiring some students to enroll in prerequisite developmental education courses due to skill deficits, all students in a historically difficult course are invited to concurrently develop needed learning strategies while mastering difficult academic content material.

Essential Use of Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is an essential component of SI sessions for improving student outcomes. One reason why cooperative learning is essential lies in the typical passiveness of many students who want the SI leader to provide answers to questions rather than engaging in active learning activities. Careful use of a wide variety of cooperative learning activities, such as *think-pair-share*, *jigsaw*, and *structured controversy*, help SI leaders maintain their role as facilitators of the discussion rather than becoming the designated answer-givers.

A second reason for the use of cooperative learning strategies is to create a learning community that provides good role models for the students to adopt. Research is clear that students change their behavior in the direction of the dominant orientation of their peer group. Careful management of these peer group learning environments is essential. It is the biggest factor that affects college student outcomes (Astin, 1993).

The third reason that cooperative learning groups are so essential is that they provide ". . . an arena for conversation and to sustain us while we learn the language, mores, and values of the community we are trying to join" (Bruffee, 1993, p. 20). Too often just a few new students are "adopted" by the course professor or by other knowledgeable advanced students to receive informal or formal mentoring on how to join the campus culture and to engage the academic discipline. Often the first-generation college students are left alone and bewildered by the campus environment. SI provides an opportunity for all students in the class to join the academic community at a deeper level within a supportive learning environment.

To Learn More about SI

For more information about SI, visit the author's web site at <http://arendale.org> and the National Center for SI at <http://www.umkc.edu/cad/si/>. At these sites there are more than 100 documents authored by fellow educators from countries around the world that describe the use and modifications of the SI model.

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From the Web

1. This recent issue of the newsletter of a subgroup of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is devoted to CL.

2. You can find it at: http://www.jalt.org/teach/articles/Newsletter_files/Summer2003.pdf.

Here are the details:

JALT Teacher Education SIG. (2003, Summer). *Explorations in Teacher Education Newsletter: Special issue on cooperative learning, 11(2)*.

Articles:

- a. Kagan Structures for Active Learning and Educational Equity (pp. 2-9) by Jane Joritz-Nakagawa
- b. You can do it, too! Cooperative Learning in a Japanese Junior High School (pp. 10-20) by Toshiko Suzuki
- c. The "Three C's of Communication": Applications in the EFL Classroom (pp. 21-25) by Jane Lightburn
- d. *Cooperative Language Learning: A Teacher's Resource Book*. Kessler, C. (Ed.) (pp. 26-28) by Robert Croker

2. Richard Felder and his colleagues have done a lot of work on the use of CL in engineering. One of their most recent efforts deals with designing and teaching courses to address the (relatively) new outcome-based engineering program accreditation system in the U.S. They describe how judicious use of both cooperative learning and problem-based learning can facilitate development of both the "hard skills" and the "soft skills" specified as required attributes of engineering graduates. You can find the paper (note in particular Appendices D and E) at: [http://www.ncsu.edu/felder-public/Papers/ABET_Paper_\(JEE\).pdf](http://www.ncsu.edu/felder-public/Papers/ABET_Paper_(JEE).pdf)

3. Elizabeth Cohen will be a keynote speaker at the 2004 IASCE conference in Singapore. Along with Rachel Lotan and her other colleagues at Stanford's Center for Complex Instruction, Liz has long been a leader in viewing CL from a sociological perspective. Recently, the Center launched a new Complex Instruction web site. There is a public page at www.complexinstruction.org that has been available for some years. In addition, they have now revised and expanded their Membership section, so that people with a wide range of interests and knowledge can participate. Newcomers can profit from access to questions and discussion of students and the responses from more experienced complex instruction teachers as well as experts.

Another feature is the Curriculum Warehouse which will have two sections. One is for "tried and true" curricula. These are curricula that have been extensively field-tested and have undergone revision in response to those tests. Members will be able to download the activity cards, resource cards, and any accompanying artwork or audiotapes. The other section of the Warehouse will be for new curricula, presently under development. There is an automated procedure for members to provide information about their curriculum (age group, subject matter etc.) along with directions for uploading in PDF format.

Also on the Complex Instruction website are two papers honoring Liz at the time of her retirement:

- [Reflection on Cohen's contributions to Sociology of the Classroom](#) by Dr. Morris (Buzz) Zelditch
- [Reflections on Cohen's contributions to Sociology of the Classroom](#) by Marlaine Lockheed.

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