				Page
3d	Peer needs-analysis	A2–B2	Students find out about the needs and learning preferences of their classmates, increasing rapport and peer-understanding.	49
3e	'Call my Bluff'	A2–B2	Students work in pairs to create two false definitions for a word. This is followed by a guessing game in groups.	
4	**Teamwork**		Students work in small teams to solve problems, make decisions or complete quizzes.	55
4a	Team problem-solving	B1–C1	Teams work together to solve a problem that requires analysis, evaluation and creativity, then present their answers to classmates.	55
4b	Student teams achievement divisions (STAD)	A1–A2	Teams work together to learn and practise important grammar or vocabulary before taking a quiz on the topic.	59
4c	Peer quizzes	B1–B2	Teams work together to create multiple choice quiz questions, answer them and then provide useful peer-feedback.	62
4d	Reciprocal teaching	B1–B2	Team members work as a group to help each other understand a challenging text in English.	65
4e	Cooperative listening	A2–B1	A listening activity with a difference – teams only get three comprehension questions afterwards!	70
4f	Decision maze	B1–C1	Teams work together to make decisions in this interactive story-creation activity.	73
5	**Jigsaw groupwork**		Students learn something new and then share and synthesise with other group members.	81
5a	Four-text jigsaw reading	A2	Students read one of four texts in expert groups, then share and synthesise their findings in their home group.	81
5b	Grammar jigsaw	B1	Students learn about different areas of grammar in their expert groups then do an activity that draws on their shared knowledge.	85
5c	Internet research jigsaw	B1–B2	Students research different, but related, questions in expert groups using the Internet. They then work together in their home groups to find out how their research links together.	89
	Story jigsaw	B1–B2	Groups get part of a story and are challenged to remember it. Then in their home groups, they share their part of the story to understand the whole.	92
5e	'Spot the difference' texts	B1–B2	Each student gets one of three near-identical texts which they cannot show each other. They must ask questions to find the differences and work out which one is wrong.	95

				Page
6	**Groups to whole class**		Activities where students work in groups first, followed by whole class interaction through presentations, peer assessment and gallery walk activities.	
6a	Expert writers	A2–B1	Students learn from studying an example text in their expert groups, then write a similar text in home groups, followed by peer-assessment.	
6b	Translingual jigsaw	B1–B2	Students compare news stories in different languages in order to improve an English language version.	104
6c	Informed debate	B2–C1	Groups get facts and figures to prepare for a whole class debate and try to come to a conclusion on the issue, rather than 'win' it!	107
7	**Whole class**		Activities where students work together as a whole class to solve a shared problem or complete a task.	112
7a	Line stand	A1–B2	Groups arrange themselves into lines according to differences between each other and then try to guess what the other line represents.	112
7b	'People snap'	A1–B2	Students mingle and find classmates with similarities.	115
7c	Whole-class jigsaw	B1–C1	Students mingle to share information on strips of paper, then home groups try to reconstruct a story, rewrite it and design a poster.	118
7d	'Find everyone who ....'	A2–B1	Students create questions to ask classmates and report back on their findings.	121
8	**Flipped cooperative learning**		Cooperative learning that includes homework research activities, leaving more class time for interaction.	124
8a	Vocab master	C1	Students check the definition of several new words for homework. In the next lesson, groups read a challenging text that includes the words.	124
8b	Flipped jigsaw	B1–B	Students are given different texts to read at home. In class, they compare and synthesise what they learnt.	127
8c	Research and share	B1–C1	Students are given related topics to research for homework. In class, they share and collate their findings for a text or presentation.	131
	References			134
	Lexes			137

All rights reserved

0 Introduction to cooperative learning

Despite the fairly recent origins of cooperative learning in the 1970s, many of the activities associated with it are so widespread in language teaching classrooms in the UK, USA and other parts of the world that they can sometimes be taken for granted as either international norms or products of communicative task based approaches to language teaching. This includes activities such as information gap, jigsaw, 'Spot the Difference', and even personalisation tasks, all of which have been adapted for language learning, but ultimately trace their origins back to the same cooperative learning movement.

Yet underpinning these activities are important principles that are less well-known among today's teachers, leading many to presume the terms 'collaborative learning' and 'cooperative learning' are synonymous, which they are not. By understanding more about the history, principles and practice of cooperative learning we can both evaluate it critically and learn how to make use of its ideas and practices more effectively in our everyday teaching.

This chapter serves as a brief introduction to cooperative learning and is written with the needs of all teachers of English in mind, including both teachers of teens and young learners working in state schools, where classes tend to be larger and learners less motivated, and teachers of adults and teens in private schools or higher education who often have smaller, more motivated classes. Of course, given the significant differences between these two very broad contexts, no one approach is likely to fit all, so the reader is encouraged to evaluate this introduction critically and adapt and appropriate from the ideas and suggestions within.

A brief history of cooperative learning

"It is not the similarity or dissimilarity of individuals that constitutes a group, but interdependence of fate."

Kurt Lewin, 1939

Cooperative learning has its roots in research by two American psychologists, Kurt Lewin and Morton Deutsch. Influenced by Gestalt psychology, Lewin's early work into group dynamics in the 1930s and 1940s established that the essence of a group comes from interdependence established through shared goals. Based on this, Deutsch identified three types of interdependence that may exist between individuals: positive interdependence (when individuals share the same goal), negative interdependence (when one individual's success requires the failure of others) and no interdependence (when there is no link between the success of individuals). Not surprisingly, Deutsch argued that cultivating positive interdependence leads to more productive relationships, recognising the importance of his research for group learning and productivity (Deutsch, 1949), although the application of his observations in mainstream education came later.

> "Cooperative learning, when it includes heterogeneous teams and team-building, is the single most powerful tool this nation has for improving race relations."
>
> Williams, 2006

Perhaps the key catalyst that sparked off the cooperative learning movement in mainstream education in the USA was the desegregation of public schools during the 1960s. The initial challenges experienced in trying to integrate classes of learners with diverse ethnicities and social experiences of education prompted early innovators in cooperative learning to experiment with new strategies, activity types and principles. Many of these were based partly on Deutsch's research and were developed primarily to diffuse tension, increase self-esteem and promote peer-respect within the classrooms. This included Johnson & Johnson's *Learning together* theory (1975), Aronson's *Jigsaw classroom* (Aronson et al., 1978), Slavin's *Student team learning* (e.g., Slavin, 1980), and Kagan's Structures (Kagan, 1989). These authors became the central methodologists of the cooperative learning movement and while there were differences in opinion, each developed similar theories around two key principles of cooperative learning described below. Johnson and Johnson went on to conduct important research into cooperative learning, and Kagan, through his own company, began to promote his version of cooperative learning in materials and workshops for teachers around the world (see: www.kaganonline.com).

Key principles in cooperative learning

> "...the crux of the difference between cooperation and competitiveness in the nature of the goals of the participants in each. The situations are linked in a cooperative situation the goal is defined that everybody 'sinks or swims together, while in the competitive situation if one swims, others must sink."
>
> Deutsch, 1973

Most teachers who are familiar with communicative language teaching and/or task-based language teaching will know something about collaborative learning, but this isn't necessarily the same as cooperative learning. In this book, I will use the term 'collaborative learning' to refer to the general use of pairwork and groupwork: any activities in which learners collaborate. But I will reserve the term 'cooperative learning' for a more specific type of collaboration, in which two key principles are emphasised in the activities that learners do: positive interdependence and individual accountability. While different writers on cooperative learning mention other factors, these two are often emphasised and agreed upon by some of its most influential figures (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Kagan & Kagan, 2009; Slavin, 1995). They also seem to be important to making groupwork effective in ELT classrooms in a range of contexts worldwide (Ghaith & Kawtharani, 2006; Ning, 2010; Panhwar, 2016):

> **Positive interdependence:** For an activity to be truly cooperative, group members must work as a team towards a shared goal, not in competition with each other, so that they sink or swim together.
>
> **Individual accountability:** Group success depends on contributions from all group members, making each learner accountable, both for their own learning and for contributing to the group as required. Success may be measured by completion of a task, solution of a problem, answering of a review question successfully in a class quiz taken individually after the team has prepared together.

When combined, these two principles encourage the group to manage itself, taking responsibility for ensuring that each group member is involved in an activity. Usually it is the design of the task that promotes this combination of positive interdependence and individual accountability. A good example of this is a jigsaw reading activity, something which communicative teachers are familiar with. Not all jigsaw tasks are truly cooperative – many just get learners to read and summarise what they have read. While this may be useful and may work in some classes, it isn't as cooperative as a jigsaw reading activity in which learners have to understand, compare, synthesise, or even evaluate the content of the different texts in order to complete a specific task. Example activities in this book are of this latter, more cooperative type, as in Unit 5a of this unit, after reading one of three texts about the jobs of three different people, group members work together to answer questions that force them to compare and evaluate all three texts, such as *'Who works hardest?'*, *'Who makes the most money?'* and *'Who do you think has the most difficult job? Why?'*. If one group member fails to contribute, the whole group may get the answer wrong, so it becomes the shared responsibility of the group to ensure that they participate. Thus, two of the most commonly cited problems with groupwork – that one or two students dominate or that some don't pull their weight – are less likely to happen when positive interdependence and individual accountability are required. This shared responsibility that cooperative learning cultivates also promotes the development of key social skills discussed below.

All rights reserved

Other theories and principles important to cooperative learning

Sociocultural theory

A number of recent writers on cooperative learning have drawn upon sociocultural theory to pr[illegible] explanations as to why cooperative learning may be effective (e.g., Jacobs et al., 2006; Kagan [illegible] Ka[illegible], 2009; King, 2008). Because of the need for learners to interact with classmates during cooper[illegible] learning, learning becomes dialogic (i.e., it involves conversation) as students are required [illegible] that they are learning. This forces them to express ideas using familiar words and concepts, which [illegible] also likely to be accessible to classmates. As such, they 'peer-scaffold' each other's understand[illegible]ent. Not only does this help to make that content understandable for others, the need to d[illegible]be it in their own words helps each learner to assimilate it personally, to 'own' the content. It is an o[illegible]epeated mantra in learner-centred education that explaining an idea or fact to someone else hel[illegible] to [illegible]mber it. This is especially important in language learning, when dialogue involves the mea[illegible]gf[illegible]se of vocabulary, grammar, speaking and listening skills, and also includes negotiation of mea[illegible] w[illegible] may help to accelerate the language learning process (e.g., Long, 1991).

Heterogenous grouping

Most writers on cooperative learning emphasise the importan[illegible] [illegible]erogenous 'base groups' or '**home groups**'. The word *heterogenous* indicates that each group s[illegible] [illegible]nc[illegible]e the widest possible mix of characteristics such as sex, ability level, ethnicity, age and [illegible] (e.g., Johnson & Johnson, 2002; Kagan & Kagan, 2009). These groups should remain st[illegible] for an extended period of time to allow learners to build bonds and peer understanding. This creates an env[illegible]ent that increases peer support and tutoring, both of which are known to increase learning (Hattie, 2009), especially through peer-explanation, but also through praise and peer-correction. G[illegible]ines for grouping learners according to the principles of cooperative learning are provided below.

Learner autonomy

Cooperative learning encourages le[illegible] to [illegible]sponsibility for their own learning and to work i[illegible] the teacher. As such, it promotes and provides the conditi[illegible] increa[illegible]d learner autonomy (Jacobs & McCafferty, 2006), so[illegible]thing [illegible] is known to have a positive effect on learning (Hattie, [illegible]e 'self-regulated learning'). Learners develop the organisationa[illegible] [illegible] study skills necessary to work independently of [illegible] teache[illegible] [illegible]e, they develop these skills communally, sharing [illegible] and strate[illegible] for autonomous learning. **Peer-needs analy[illegible]** (see [illegible]3d) helps learners to share these skills and become aware of each other's needs, thereby i[illegible]ing rapport, understanding and empathy within both groups and classes (Anderson, 2017).

> *"Peer needs analysis can be defined as the act of raising the students' awareness of the needs of their co-learners in a class. It aims to turn needs analysis into a social event."*
>
> Anderson, 2017

Task-m[illegible]ted differentiation

Di[illegible]tiation, [illegible] called 'differentiated learning/instruction', is an important principle in classrooms where learne[illegible] varying abilities, strengths and preferences – i.e., most classrooms! Differentiation involves [illegible]uring [illegible] what a student learns, how she/he learns it, and how the student demonstrates what she/he [illegible]t is a match for that student's readiness level, interests, and preferred mode of learning" ([illegible]nson, 2004). Recommendations for differentiation often focus on providing different tasks to differ[illegible] individuals or groups, but this is rarely recommended in cooperative learning, where the emphasis is on

All rights reserved