SPRINGCON:
A collaborative teaching material package for EFL teaching in grades 7-9

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Yhteistoiminnallisuus on alati läsnä arjessamme, niin työssä, koulussa, kuin vapaa-ajallakin. Yhteistyökykyisyys onkin yksi tärkeimmistä taidoista, tämän päivän yhteiskunnassamme. Siksi on tärkeää, että tätä taitoa harjoitetaan jo kouluikäisenä, mistä kertookin Perusopetuksen opetussuunnitelman perusteiden (POPS 2014) lukuisat maininnat vuorovaikutustaitojen ja yhteistyön merkityksestä, muun muassa laaja-alaisen osaamisen tavoitteissa. Pedagogisten suuntausten laajassa kirjossa on yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen (eng. *collaborative learning*) varteenotettava vaihtoehto näiden taitojen edistämiseksi perusopetuksessa, myöskin kieltenopetuksessa. Koska yhteistoiminnallisen oppimisen periaatteiden mukaisia aktiviteetteja on peruskouluissamme käytössä olevissa englannin kielen oppikirjoissa varsin niukasti, on tämä materiaalipaketti suunniteltu avuksi englannin opettajille, jotka haluavat soveltaa yhteistoiminnallisuutta omaan yläkoulun luokkahuoneeseensa.

Tämän materiaalipaketin peruspilarina on, kuten mainittua, yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen. Lisäksi siinä hyödynnetään elementtejä projektioppimisesta (*project-based learning*), sekä *content-based instruction* –menetelmää. Materiaalipaketti on tarkoitettu käytettäväksi yläkoulun A1-englannin opetuksessa. Tehtävien teemana on pelit, ja se vie oppilaat matkalle kohti kevään huipennusta, *SpringCon* –pelitapahtumaa, jossa oppilaat esittelevät tämän tehtäväkokonaisuuden myötä itse suunnittelemiaan ja toteuttamiaan pelejä. Materiaalipaketin kehittämisessä hyödynnettiin opetuskokeilua, jossa kaikkia pakettiin sisältyviä kuutta päätehtävää testattiin normaalia Perusopetuksen opetussuunnitelmaa noudattavan suomalaisen peruskoulun 8. luokan englannin tunneilla toukokuussa 2017.

Materiaalipaketin keväinen nimi viittaa vuodenaikaan, jota varten tämä materiaalipaketti on erityisesti suunniteltu; kun kevään kokeet ja loppuarvioinnit on saatettu päätökseen, on monella opettajalla monesti vaikeuksia keksiä oppilailleen järkevää ohjelmaa lukuvuoden viimeisille viikoille. *SpringCon* tarjoaa niin oppilaille kuin opettajillekin mukavaa tekemistä ennen kesälaitumille kirmaamista.

Asiasanat – Keywords: collaborative learning, EFL teaching, material package

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1 INTRODUCTION

"Alone we can do so little; together we can do so much," said Helen Keller, the American author, about the significance of teamwork. It is one of the many inspirational quotes that celebrate collaboration between people, and not in vain; great victories and revolutionary innovations have been achieved through the history of human kind as the result of a mutual effort. The power of collaboration has not lost its value over the years, and it is, in fact, considered an important 21st century skill, as working together is more the norm than a peculiarity in both the academia as well as in the working life.

Therefore, collaborative learning has earned its place as a widely use approach in education in various subjects and proficiency levels. Although collaborative learning is said to be a combination of various different pedagogical trends, the original idea for it lies in the belief that learning takes place in social interaction between the participants (Gerlach 1994: 8). The principles of this pedagogical approach stem from the ideas presented in the constructivist learning theory, inspired by the work of some of the most influential educationalists, such as Lev Vygotsky and John Dewey. This theory emphasizes the role of our daily interactions with other people in the construction of new knowledge (Burr 2003: 4). What is meant by the specific term 'collaborative learning' is a more complicated issue and has received much debate. In general, the 'collaborativeness' of learning is defined by the nature of the interactions, the processes, the situation and the effect of learning (Dillenbourg 1999: 17). Likewise, the inconsistencies of the use of the terms 'collaborative learning' and 'cooperative learning' adds to the confusion of what the term entails. While several researchers swear by keeping the two terms separate, Smith and MacGregor (1992), supported by Barkley, Major, and Cross (2014), view collaborative learning as a general concept for all kinds of pedagogical procedures that are collaborative in nature, including collaborative learning. In language education, which is the context of the present study, collaborative learning is understood as a form of communicative language learning, where language learning situations are made motivating and naturalistic through interactive activities (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 245).

The Finnish national core curriculum for basic education (POPS 2014) has reacted to the ever-increasing tendency for collaboration by emphasizing the value of communication, social skills, and teamwork in various chapters, for instance in the seven points of transversal competence (Finnish *laaja-alainen osaaminen*). However, according to a study I conducted for my Bachelor's Thesis (Holm 2016), in which I examined what kinds of collaborative activities there were in Finnish EFL activity books, there is a shortage of collaborative activities in the official teaching materials for English teaching in Finnish comprehensive schools. A few material packages for collaborative learning have been developed prior to the present one, but collaborative material packages targeted at the lower levels of Finnish comprehensive school (grades 7-9) are, according to my knowledge, in a considerable minority in this sense.

This lack of collaborative teaching materials for teenage EFL learners was a major motivator for the creation of the teaching material presented in this study. With this material package, I wanted to support the implementation of collaborative learning methods in English language teaching on this level by introducing both the learners and the teachers to the central principles of collaborative learning via a set of activities that apply some of the traditional collaborative learning activities. Although the material package is intended to be used in language teaching, it does not, however, focus on any given language skill. Instead, it is designed to support language learning via content-based instruction, which was chosen as the instructional method for the tasks. As the material package aims at providing practical learning tasks, it was piloted in a teaching experiment in May 2017. In this experiment, all the activities (excluding the optional extra tasks) were tested in English classes in grade 8 in a Finnish comprehensive school. The theme of the material package is 'games', and it is structured, according to the key conception of project-based learning, as a small-scale project, which end products are the games the learner groups have developed by the end of the project, culminating in a gaming convention held in class by students. The material package is not tied to a specific course; however, it is intended to be used in the latter half of May, in the final weeks of the academic year that in Finnish basic education usually ends late May or early June, to provide pupils and, of course, teachers, something productive to do in EFL class before the summer holidays begin. Many teachers may find

the “post-assessment” period in the very end of the academic school challenging in terms of lesson planning and classroom control, for which the present material package attempts to offer relief. The name of the material package – *SpringCon* – was inspired by the season (spring) and the theme (a gaming convention) surrounding the material package.

The theoretical framework of the current study extends to three chapters. In chapter 2, I discuss collaborative learning, introducing some of the central definitions, the theoretical background, and the basic features of collaborative learning on which I based the development of the activities in the present material package. Furthermore, some of the most well-known variations of collaborative learning are discussed. As the material package is designed for EFL teaching, the use of collaborative learning in terms of language education is also illustrated, as well as the justifications for its use defined in the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education (POPS 2014). Finally, related studies and previous material packages with similar themes are briefly presented.

Chapter 3 deals with project-based learning, which is the other core approach behind the present material package. As with collaborative learning in chapter 2, chapter 3 begins with overviews of the definitions, origins, and central characteristics of project-based learning. Then, its connections to language education and collaborative learning are illustrated. Chapter 4 covers construct-based instruction, giving an overall picture of the theoretical background of the instructional method. Moreover, its compatibility with the other pedagogical approaches used in this study is demonstrated.

Chapter 5 discusses teenage language learners as the target group of the material package. This is done from two viewpoints: firstly, some major considerations regarding teaching teenagers are presented, and, secondly, the central issues in developing teaching materials for this target group are pointed out.

In chapter 6, the teaching material package itself is introduced. The chapter includes descriptions of the process of developing the materials, of its aims and target audiences and explanations of the activities. Furthermore, I discuss how assessment and differentiation

are taken into account in the material package and offer suggestions for how the activities could be modified. Then, the aims, methods and results of the teaching experiment and the feedback questionnaire are presented.

Finally, in chapter 7, discuss the material package and the results of the teaching experiment and of the feedback questionnaire. Based on the feedback the material package received from the participants as well as on my findings during the teaching experiment, I evaluate the extent to which the material package supports the intended pedagogical approaches.

2 COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

In this chapter, I discuss collaborative learning as a pedagogical framework. I identify the definitions and characteristics of the term on which the conception of collaborative learning in this study is based, while also recognizing other common characterisations of the approach. In doing so, I wish to emphasise that among the numerous varying ideas of what collaborative learning is and what it entails, there are no "right" nor "wrong" viewpoints on this subject. In the later sections of this chapter, I build connections to the context in which the current material package takes place; EFL education in the Finnish comprehensive school, with teenage learners as the primary target group.

2.1 Collaborative learning: definitions

The term *collaborative learning* may sound unambiguous, but there is, nevertheless, uncertainty of what is the official or at least the generally accepted definition of the term, if there is one. This ambiguity is mostly due to the multiple perceptions of collaborative learning presented by researchers and educationalists that, while mostly dealing with the same central ideas, approach the issue from slightly different viewpoints. A cursory definition, often based on the meaning of the word *collaborative*, describes the term as "working in a group of two or more to achieve a common goal" (McInnerney and Roberts 2003: 205) or "a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together" (Dillenbourg (1999: 2). However, Dillenbourg (1999) criticises this vague usage

of the term, insisting it is double-edged as it fails to specify the appropriate size of collaborative learning groups as well as what is meant by "learning something" and "together". Each of these factors can be understood in various ways; "two or more" can, in principle, mean anything between two and an infinite number of learners, and the conceptions of "learning" and "together" may vary depending on the context or speaker as well. A stricter definition for *collaboration*, and one with which Dillenbourg (1999: 17) agrees, is provided by Roschelle and Teasley (1995: 70):

> *Collaboration is a coordinated, synchronous activity that is the result of a continued attempt to construct and maintain a shared conception of a problem.*

While this explanation does not offer concrete restrictions for the use of the term *collaborative learning*, it is remarkably more elaborated than the ones discussed earlier. Here, the nature of "learning something together" is described with the adjectives "coordinated" and "synchronous", while the phrase "continued attempt to construct and maintain" refers to the process of "learning", and "a shared conception of a problem" is the "something" that needs to be learnt. Dillenbourg (1999: 17) identifies these as three of the four the aspects he discusses regarding collaborative learning: *interactions*, *processes*, and *effect*. Collaboration can, according to Dillenbourg, (1999: 9) refer to interactions that are collaborative based on the degree of interactivity, synchronicity and "negotiability" of the interaction, to processes that are collaborative, such as the internalization process, or to the effects of collaborative learning. The fourth aspect, and the one that Rochelle and Teasley's definition does not cover, is *situation*, for which Dillenbourg (1999: 9-11) sets three criteria with reference to collaboration: members of the group must be equals in terms of proficiency level, share mutual objectives and be mutually aware of these, and work in cooperation. Here Dillenbourg refers to how the workload is divided in collaborative situations, separating the term 'collaborative' from 'cooperative', a matter which will be discussed in more detail in chapter 2.4.

Smith and MacGregor (1992: 11) provide a definition that is more open to various interpretations. They treat collaborative learning as a general concept, or an "umbrella term", for various teaching methods where students or students and teachers join their

intellectual forces to accomplish a task. Among these approaches are cooperative learning, which is often differentiated from collaborative learning (see ch. 2.4), and problem-centred instruction, to mention some examples. Smith and MacGregor (1992: 11) further elaborate that in collaborative learning, learners work in pairs or in small groups, driven towards a shared objective of finding solutions to problems or of creating products. Scholars who perceive collaborative learning as a teaching philosophy rather than a range of structured small-group activities (e.g. Panitz 1999: 3; Matthews et. al. 1995: 40) challenge this view. However, the multiple different standpoints in what is embodied in the term are apparent, as Walker and Daniels (n.d.) provide yet another opposing perspective by proposing that besides a philosophy or an orientation, collaborative learning can be understood as a framework and as a set of techniques as well. As Smith and MacGregor's (1992) definition, this stance allows more extensive and versatile uses for the term; hence, with the lack of an official definition for collaborative learning, it is the combination of Smith and MacGregor's (1992) and Walker and Daniels' (n.d.) statements that provide the basis for the implementation of collaborative learning in the present material package, without ignoring the criteria suggested by Dillenbourg (1999).

2.2 Collaborative learning: origins

The idea of collaborative learning is not a new one. Saloviita (2006: 20) recalls that as early as in the 17th century, a Czech pedagogue John Amos Comenius thought that teaching one another would be beneficial for pupils, and quotes Somerkivi (1952) on the Bell-Lancaster schools that became popular in Europe in the end of the 18th century. The principle of the Bell-Lancaster method, most commonly known as the Monitorial System, was to have the older, more skilled students teach the younger ones (Rayman 1981: 397; Saloviita 2006: 20). These are one of the earliest known notions of student-centred pedagogy which emphasises individuality and learning together with fellow students. These are the cornerstones of present-day collaborative learning, although teacher-centred classroom has been the dominant classroom type until the recent decades.

Collaborative learning as a pedagogical approach can be interpreted as a combination of various theories of learning. In general, the presumption that learning occurs in social

interaction between participants is seen as the original thread of collaborative learning (Gerlach 1994: 8). One of the most well-known pioneers of this ideology is Lev Vygotsky, whose theories of learning, and principally his theory of the zone of proximal development, have provided a starting point for many educationalists specialised in collaborative learning. Vygotsky (1978: 25) based his theories on observations of children in experimental situations, concluding that learning is enhanced by social interaction and that solving a problem requires both acting in practice as well as speaking, either to oneself or someone else present. As children grow up, this phenomenon that initially occurs in social interaction becomes internalised as the child's independent activity, so called inner speech (Vygotsky 1978: 27). As for the zone of proximal development, it refers to the liminal stage before passing on to the actual developmental level; that is, the phase during which the child cannot yet solve problems independently but is learning to do so with the help of an adult or by collaborating with more advanced fellow learners (Vygotsky 1978: 86). Vygotsky (1978: 86) further emphasizes that the processes of mental development in the zone of proximal development are treated in reference for future development, whereas the actual developmental level draws on previous experiences. Both concepts hold a premise for the theory of collaborative learning as it is recognised today, emphasizing the importance of developing new skills through social interaction and working with others.

Another educational theorist whose work has influenced the theoretical framework for collaborative learning is John Dewey, who suggested, amongst other theories, that learning is enabled via individual experience. In his theory of experience, Dewey (1997: 40) highlights, for instance, the importance of social interaction in gaining experience and recognizing it as meaningful and valuable in terms of learning. Regarding the role of the educator, Dewey (1997: 54) states that, in what he calls "progressive" education as opposed to "traditional" education, the social control according to which the classroom operates stems from within the group, rather than being imposed by the teacher, and is maintained by the students themselves by participating in mutual tasks. In addition, Dewey was convinced that only a social environment could offer favourable surroundings for a child's development (Saloviita 2006: 20). According to Saloviita, Dewey's conception of "democracy" in school resembles the principles of collaborative learning of today, especially the sense of community and positive interdependence.

Vygotsky's and Dewey's theories of learning are precursors of the constructivist learning theory, a term that refers to a sociological theory that suggests knowledge is developed in social communication with others. According to this theory, knowledge emerges in the every-day social interactions between people, which makes language notably relevant to research on social constructivism (Burr 2003: 4). Interaction is, therefore, an invaluable element for not only the learning of languages, but also for the learning of any other subject matter. This works the other way around as well; the knowledge we construct in these interactions affects the way we act in certain social situations or deal with certain social issues (Burr 2003: 5). In addition, social constructivists view language as the medium through which identity and personality develop, which is practically impossible without social interaction, since language is entirely reliant on it (Burr 2003: 53). In the light of this discussion, collaborative learning, which is associated with the social constructivist theory, is a credible approach for language teaching, as it promotes social interaction, and in doing so, the development of knowledge as well as that of identity.

2.3 Collaborative learning: characteristics

As illustrated above, many of the most wide-spread definitions for the term 'collaborative learning' leave room for interpretation; thus, determining the regular characteristics of this approach is challenging. It has not been an obstacle in doing so, however, as various scholars have suggested certain features that are specific to collaborative learning, or rather criteria that shape the framework for the concept, which are fundamentally similar. Perhaps the most established one of these characterisations has to do with the objectives of the learning activities. Researchers and educationalists seem to agree that the most distinctive characteristic of collaborative learning is the existence of a mutual goal which learners attempt to achieve (Littleton and Häkkinen 1999: 21). These goals can be, for instance, understanding the issues discussed in class, solving a problem or finding and answer to a question, or creating something together (Smith and MacGregor 1992: 11).

Other features that several scholars have identified describe how collaborative learning activities should guide learners towards these mutual goals. Some of these concentrate on the activities themselves, while others focus more on what happens in the classroom; that is, the nature of communication and the roles learners and teachers are to adopt during collaborative learning in contrast to other educational approaches. One example of the first group is Gerlach (1994: 12), according to who most collaborative learning activities, regardless of the methods used or the goals that should be achieved, possess the same six features:

> *First, they allow time for group consensus to occur. Second, they ask students to complete specific tasks within a given amount of time. Third, they allow the members of groups to negotiate individual roles. Fourth, they encourage group consensus but teach respect for individual diversity and minority views. Fifth, they allow students and teacher to collaborate once group consensus has been reached. Sixth, they ask both students and teacher to evaluate the collaborative process as having been effective or ineffective.*

These general features sum up the major principles of collaborative learning concisely, although they do not give any specific instructions on how these features should be fulfilled. For instance, it is ambiguous how much time should be spent in building group consensus or what is the nature of the collaboration between learners and the teacher that should follow afterwards. However, these features offer an overview of what classroom activities that are classified as 'collaborative' usually entail, and particularly they highlight the significance of group consensus that is often given less emphasis or even omitted altogether in some other characterisations.

Another common way to characterise collaborative learning is to compare it with traditional approaches of teaching, particularly in terms of the roles of teacher and students. In traditional classrooms, teacher is typically the one who transfers knowledge to students, the passive receivers, whereas in the collaborative classroom, the teacher is more a manager of tasks who creates learning opportunities for students (Smith and MacGregor 1992: 11; Gerlach 1994: 10). Tinzmann et. al. (1990) speak of 'shared knowledge', pointing out that the collaborative classroom is built on sharing knowledge between teachers and students, making room for the students' individual experience on the subject the class is studying at

the time. Furthermore, Tinzmann et al. (1990) discuss the role of the teacher as a 'mediator'. According to them, a mediator is someone who mediates learning in the classroom through 1) facilitating: teachers create learning environments and tasks in which connecting students' previous experiences to new information is possible, as well as promote collaborative work and problem-solving, with an emphasis on the authenticity of the tasks and the diversity of genres, perspectives, and learners; 2) modelling: teachers share their thoughts about the current task, including their ideas about the communicative elements and the collaborative procedures that should be realised in the activity; and 3) coaching: teachers offer sufficient aid, such as feedback and advice, that will help students throughout the learning process without intervening too much so that the learning is, mostly, on the students' own responsibility. In other words, teacher as a mediator does not 'teach' the students per se, but instead helps them learn by themselves. This differs from direct teaching in that the teacher does not lecture about the subject in question but assigns the students with collaborative tasks in which they learn about the subject through investigation and experimentation (Smith and MacGregor 1992: 11). Therefore, in the collaborative classroom, it is the social communication between students, not the one between student and teacher or student and the learning materials where knowledge is transferred. Moreover, it is not only knowledge that is shared in the collaborative classroom, but also authority. According to Tinzmann et. al. (1990), students in the collaborative classroom should be involved in decision-making regarding classroom procedures, such as defining the learning goals, planning the learning activities, and the assessment of learning. For comparison, in the traditional classroom, these matters are largely determined by the teacher alone. McInnerney and Roberts (2003: 204-205) compare the communicational relationships in these two models in the following figures (Figures 1 and 2).

As pointed out in Figure 1, communication in the traditional classroom is often one-sided, implying that teacher is doing the most talking in class. This implication is supported by the fact that, in the traditional model, students are not necessarily required to collaborate with their peers, but usually work alone instead. This is, however, an exaggerated and generalised view of the "traditional" method, as determining one, generic type of the traditional approach is challenging (McInnerney and Roberts 2003: 204). Nevertheless, Figure 2 shows that the collaborative learning philosophy encourages students to participate more in terms of communication, both between the students and the teacher as well as

Figure 1. Traditional classroom learning (McInnerney and Roberts 2003: 204)

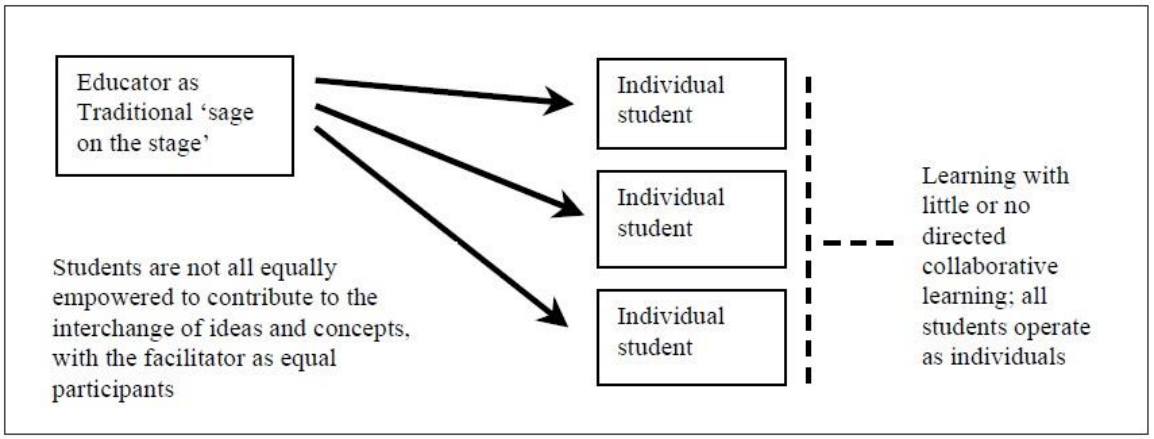
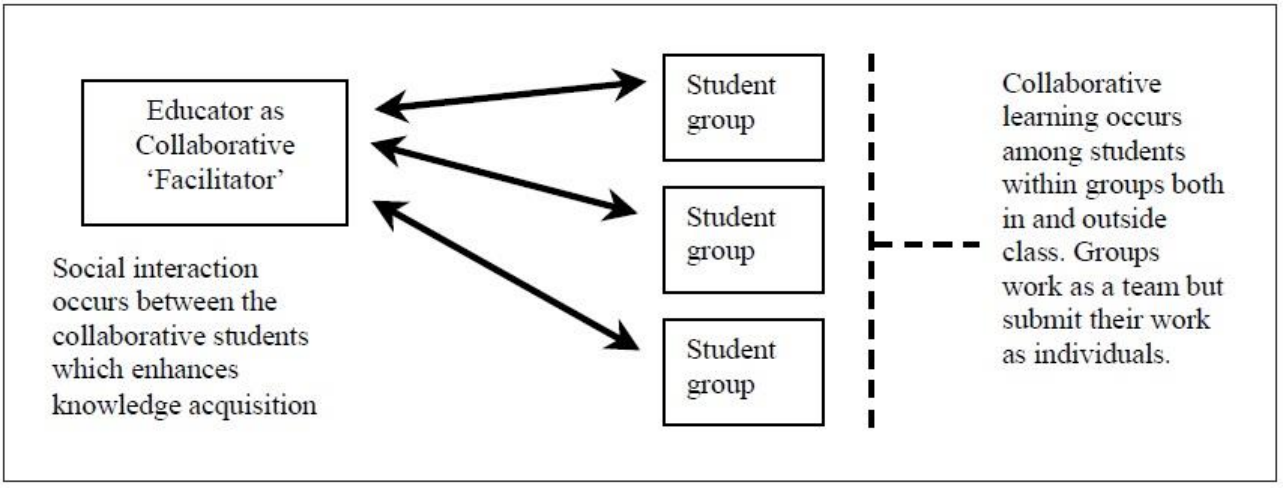
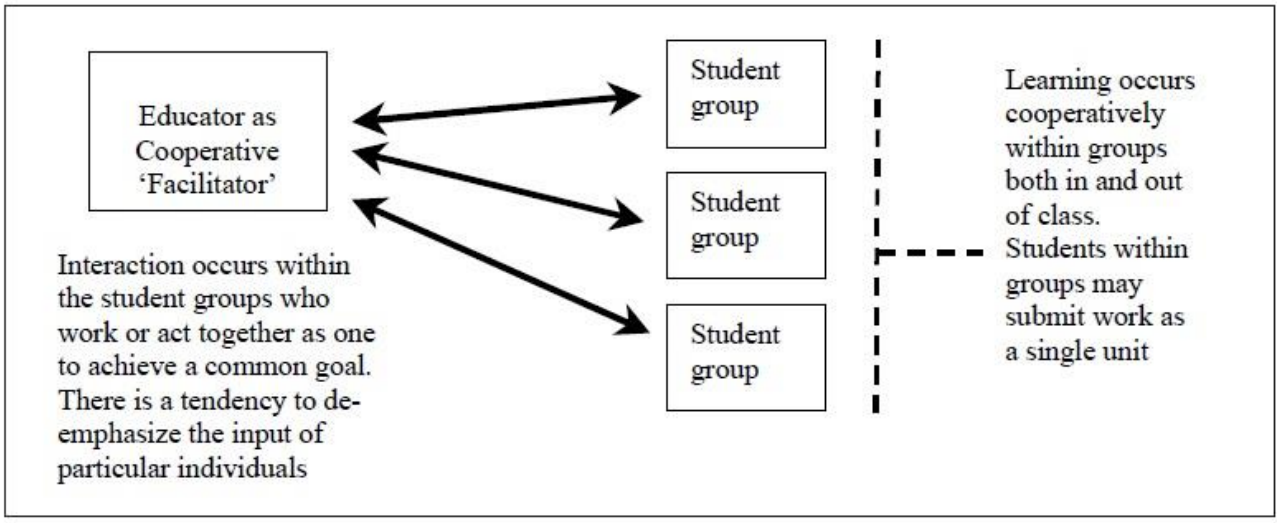


Figure 2. Collaborative learning (McInnerney and Roberts 2003: 205)



between students. McInnerney and Roberts (2003: 205) also claim that despite working collaboratively, each student is regarded as an individual, meaning that when they turn in assignments, they present themselves, not the small group they work in. In the present teaching material package, students present their final products as groups, which goes one-to-one with McInnerney and Roberts' (2003: 206) demonstration of cooperative learning (Figure 3), a methodology that researchers often differentiate from collaborative learning. However, as pointed out below in chapter 2.4, cooperative learning is in this paper considered a sub-branch of collaborative learning; thus, interactional patterns of collaborative learning supported in the activities of the present material package are a combination of the two.

Figure 3. Cooperative learning (McInnerney and Roberts 2003: 206)



Barkley, Major, and Cross (2014: 4) provide another generic description of the characteristics of collaborative learning by identifying three qualities that are essential to this approach. Barkley et. al. believe, firstly, that collaborative learning should be *intentional*, insisting that instead of merely making students to "get into groups and work", collaborative learning activities should be more thoroughly organised. The second feature Barkley et. al. mention is *co-labouring*; every student in the group must participate in the activities. Finally, Barkley et. al. propose that collaborative learning ought to be *meaningful* in such a way that supports the students' learning and help them achieve the learning goals set in the curriculum or, for example, by the students themselves. Even though this characterisation is, as that of Gerlach's (1994: 12) discussed above, non-specific in terms of how these qualities can be achieved, it, nevertheless, reminds teachers of what to consider when designing collaborative activities. In addition, regarding group dynamics, Tinzmann et. al. (1990) emphasise that in the collaborative classroom, the learning groups should be heterogeneous, meaning that students with different backgrounds, abilities and interests should be grouped together. In these kinds of collaborative groups, the amount and variety of shared knowledge can be maximised in comparison to homogeneous small groups where there is little diversity between the learners.

Collaborative learning can also be characterised based on presumptions of learners and the learning process itself. For instance, Smith and MacGregor (1992: 11-12) state that learning

is active, social, and dependent on a context in which students are not passive objects of teaching, but actors that create meanings and apply what they learn to new situations. As collaborative learning is highly communicative, students also acquire a new role in which they oversee their own learning (Smith and MacGregor 1992: 13). Regarding how learners are perceived according to this educational approach, Smith and MacGregor (1992: 12) comment on the assumption that all learners are different, and on how acknowledging this can be enlightening for the teacher as well as the students.

2.4 Variations of collaborative learning

When discussing collaborative learning regarding its different variations and sub-branches, the relationship between collaborative learning and cooperative learning is an issue that must be addressed. So far there is no common consensus on whether the terms should be treated as synonyms or separate concepts, or whether cooperative learning is a sub-branch of collaborative learning. The separation of the two terms has, nonetheless, received wide endorsement among scholars. For instance, Dillenbourg (1999: 11) claims that in cooperative learning, the workload is divided between group members, whereas in collaborative learning, the work is done together, although he admits that even in collaborative learning, occasional division of tasks may occur. However, Dillenbourg continues that in cooperative learning situations, the division of workload is "vertical", meaning the tasks are divided into independent tasks, while in collaborative situations, the tasks complement each other, and the work is divided into layers (e.g. the task level and the meta-communicative level), which Dillenbourg calls a "horizontal" division. Moreover, in collaboration, students may switch between tasks, unlike in cooperation where the roles that students take are more permanent. Littleton and Häkkinen (1999: 21) support this differentiation, whereas Panitz (1999: 3) approaches the issue from a different point of view, claiming that the difference between the two concepts lies with the nature of interaction. He describes cooperative learning as a "structure of interaction" which main purpose is to enable learners to reach the goals assigned to them through group work. Collaborative learning, however, Panitz believes to be not merely a set of classroom procedures, but a "philosophy of interaction" that emphasises mutual respect and shared responsibility of completing an assignment. Yet another division is provided by Myers (1991, cited in Panitz 1999: 5), who refers to the semantics of the words *collaboration* and

cooperation, observing that the Latin root of *collaboration* refers to the actions taken when working collaboratively, while *cooperation* signifies the result of these actions.

Bruffee (1995), however, acknowledges that collaborative and cooperative learning are merely different names for the same concept, set apart almost inclusively by their target audiences. According to Bruffee, collaborative learning was originally designed to be used in higher education (university and college), whereas cooperative learning is applied mainly to the primary school levels. Although both approaches use mainly the same techniques and strive for the same objectives, the differences in how knowledge is perceived in primary education in comparison to higher education are what affects the nature and, thus, the content of teaching. Bruffee (1995) uses the adjectives *foundational* and *nonfoundational* to distinguish between the two perceptions of knowledge; when primary education deals with foundational knowledge in that it focuses on teaching "basic" knowledge and rules of behaviour (e.g. asking for the floor in class, how to spell a word correctly, basic mathematics, historical facts, etc.), higher education concentrates on examining these issues on a more profound and abstract level that calls for more mature judgement. This division between foundational and nonfoundational knowledge is further supported in the fact that in higher education, students are more likely, often even encouraged, to question the teacher's authority as the provider of information, which cannot be expected from primary school students. Oxford (1997) has made the same observation as Bruffee (1995). Matthews et. al. (1995: 40) complement this view by stating that collaborative learning has more to do with theoretical, political and philosophical questions, pointing out that cooperative learning is often more organised and focuses on teaching what Bruffee (1995) calls foundational knowledge (e.g. learning how cooperation works). At the same time, Matthews et. al. (1995: 37) acknowledge that in certain areas, collaborative and cooperative learning bear several similarities, for example in terms of the idea of 'learning', the role of the teacher, and the importance of social and small group skills.

At the other end of this discussion are those who think that collaborative learning serves as a superordinate concept for all educational methods that somehow employ collaborative techniques. Amongst them are Smith and MacGregor (1992: 15), who describe collaborative learning as "the most carefully structured end of the collaborative learning

continuum". To make their stance clear, they discuss cooperative learning under the title 'Collaborative Learning Approaches', implying that cooperative learning is a sub-branch of collaborative learning. Barkley et. al. (2014: 13) admit to using the term 'collaborative learning' similarly, and Tinzmann et. al. (1990) speak of cooperation as "a form of collaboration" as well. These views differ distinctively from the ones discussed previously in this chapter that reject the idea of cooperative learning as a variation of collaborative learning. However, while the arguments that support the separation of the two approaches are well-considered and agreed upon by many scholars, they are not the general consensus amongst educationists, nor are there official guidelines on the appropriate use of the terms. In fact, if we observe some of the common features of collaborative learning presented in chapter 2.3 and compare them with the definitions of cooperative learning mentioned earlier in this sub-chapter, we can observe certain overlap. On one hand, cooperative learning is described as "more organised" in comparison to collaborative learning, which, on the other hand, is expected to be intentional, that is, thoroughly organised. Additionally, because scholars have so far been unable to reach an agreement of what the terms 'collaborative learning' and 'cooperative learning' entail respectively, arguments for and against the separation of the two terms are equally plausible. Therefore, while the preference of many scholars to separate the two terms from each other is well justified, it does not mean this outlook is the only acceptable one. As Barkley et. al. (2014: 10) remark, both methods are variable and mobile, and choosing to use one or the other term depends on the situation, meaning educators are not bound to strictly validate their decision. Furthermore, Barkley et al. (2014: 11) point out that despite the attempts to draw distinctions between collaborative and cooperative learning, the two terms will be used as synonyms for each other, whether it is hoped-for or not. This sort of application of the two terms is accepted in Hmelo-Silver et. al. (2013), for instance. Based on this reasoning, Smith and MacGregor's (1992) definition of the term, and the notions of the similarities between the two terms made by Bruffee (1995) and Matthews. et. al. (1995), collaborative learning is, for the purposes of the present material package, treated here as a general concept for all collaborative educational approaches. Elements and activities that are typically associated with cooperative learning are, thus, included in the activities featured in the material package combined with or as applications of collaborative learning.

Cooperative learning is determined by five elements that have been designed to guarantee that the cooperation employed in the classroom activities is efficient. These elements are, as presented by Johnson and Johnson (1999: 75), *positive interdependence*, *face-to-face-promotive interaction*, *individual accountability*, *interpersonal and small group skills*, and *group processing*. The first one of them, *positive interdependence*, refers to the fundamental principle of cooperation that insists that the success of a cooperative learning group requires all participants to perform the role they have been given in the group (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 75). As everyone's input is equally important, the group cannot function without all of its members' participation. This is in line with Macaro's (1997: 134) definition for collaborative learning, according to which collaboration is fulfilled when learners show mutual respect towards their peer's contribution. Johnson and Johnson (1999: 77) list nine specific types of positive interdependence, such as positive goal interdependence, positive role interdependence, positive identity interdependence and environmental interdependence. The second element, *individual accountability*, emphasises that all members of the group, regardless of their role during the cooperative learning activities, should afterwards be able to perform a similar task on their own (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 81). It should, therefore, be ensured that everyone in the group gains new knowledge and skills from the cooperative activity so that they have the sufficient capacities to do the same later on their own. The third element, *face-to-face promotive interaction*, is needed in cooperative learning to, firstly, accomplish concrete tasks and, secondly, for mutual support between participants (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 82). The fourth element, *interpersonal and small group skills*, is not so much a feature that cooperative learning should possess as something that cooperative methods should teach to students besides the subject matter (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 83). The final element, *group processing*, is a type of self-evaluation that helps students to assess the group's success to see which of the procedures that were used were useful and which ones need improvement in the future (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 85).

Another popular variation of collaborative learning is computer-supported or computer-mediated collaborative learning (CSCL/CMCL). In CSCL, technology is used to enhance collaborative learning with an emphasis on designing learning environments in addition to technology tools (Dennen and Hoadley 2013: 389). A central issue in applying technology to collaborative learning is whether it is carried out in face-to-face settings or in computer-

mediated settings; in the former, learning can be said to be realised *with* computers, whereas in the latter, learning happens *through* them (Dennen and Hoadley 2013: 396). Learning with computers resembles traditional face-to-face procedures, the major difference being that it is supported by using computers (or other mobile devices), which, however requires certain considerations to be taken in designing the learning activities, including practical guidelines regarding the use of the computer (Dennen and Hoadley 2013: 397). Particularly important in designing collaborative learning with computers is to ensure that the tools used to complement collaborative learning are also coordinated with the tasks (Dennen and Hoadley 2013: 397); using technology solely for technology's sake does not necessarily make the activities and interaction any more effective than regular face-to-face methods.

Learning through computers, as Dennen and Hoadley (2013: 397-398) point out, sets different kinds of challenges to task and curriculum design. Firstly, creating social interaction between students demands more careful planning than in face-to-face learning, as students in this variety of CSCL typically work in different physical environments or even time zones. Secondly, learning through computers requires teachers to rethink the realization of certain interactions that facilitate collaboration and that are self-evident in the face-to-face classroom but not as easily detected from online learning environments, such as ensuring that all students are concentrating enough on the tasks. Thirdly, it should be remembered that collaborative learning through computers should not be restricted to support solely discussion, as modern technology allows sharing of knowledge in other forms as well. Examples of such technology are 3D and Virtual Reality technologies (see e.g. Markovic, Branovic and Popovic 2014). CSCL does not play a major role in the present material package, although the use of technology is encouraged in various activities included in it and the material may as well be used in electric form.

2.5 Collaborative learning in language education

Collaborative learning performs various functions in teaching English as a foreign or second language (EFL/ESL), of which providing ideal conditions for interaction is perhaps the most vital one, as interaction is an integral part of foreign and second language acquisition. In this context, collaborative learning is associated with communicative

language learning, as Richards and Rodgers (2014: 245) point out. They clarify that via interactive activities, collaborative language learning seeks to build naturalistic, elaborate, and motivating language learning environments that help learners in taking advantage of different ways to learn and communicate. Therefore, the central philosophy behind collaborative language learning is that language use is learnt and meanings are created in authentic, collaborative communication with other learners, as opposed to traditional teacher-orientated studying where knowledge is "acquired" from written learning materials (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 245; Ashton-Hay and Pillay 2010: 343). Similarly, some research on second language acquisition has observed that learning is the natural outcome of social interaction (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 247). Collaborative learning has been designed to provide teachers with tools to enable all this, and, at the same time, serve as an approach that can easily be used in various contexts and different kinds of classrooms (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 245). An essential consideration here is continuity; applying collaborative learning to foreign language teaching (or to that of any other subject) should not be restricted only to a few selected lessons, themes, and activity types, but should, instead, be executed with regularity, consistency, and versatility (Kujansivu 2002: 201).

Foreign language teaching can benefit from collaborative learning in practically every area of language competence. The four major language skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening), along with grammar and vocabulary, can all be practiced according to the principles of collaborative learning. For learning grammar, this can mean the use of problem-based methods where students draw conclusions of the logic behind certain grammar rules based on analysis of example phrases in the target language (Kujansivu 2002: 212). For vocabulary learning purposes, collaborative learner groups can, for instance, be assigned to search and select the most important vocabulary related to the current topic and contents, which helps students not only to expand their vocabulary, but also to improve their skills in identifying the keywords of texts as well as general reading comprehension skills (Kujansivu 2002: 214). Reading comprehension can also be practiced by having students read only the titles of a text first and then collaborate in deducing or guessing the central contents of the text (Kujansivu 2002: 215). This method of sharing ideas before thorough studying can be applied to listening comprehension activities as well (Kujansivu 2002: 215). As for oral skills and writing, Kujansivu (2002: 216-217) suggests peer evaluation to help students improve their skills in these areas, for example

pronunciation and fluency for speaking, and contents for writing. In addition, collaborative process writing is a versatile activity for practising writing (Kujansivu 2002: 217).

Kohonen (1992) suggests experiential language learning as a method for collaborative language learning. The approach is based on the theories of various educationalists, such as Dewey's progressive approach and Jean Piaget's studies on developmental cognitive psychology (Kohonen 1992: 14). The primary source for learning, according to this method, is consciously processed personal experience, which, according to Kolb (1984: 21, as cited in Kohonen 1992: 14), provides "life, texture, and subjective personal meaning to abstract concepts", while "providing a concrete, publicly shared reference point for testing the implications and validity of ideas created during the learning process". Kohonen (1992: 15) continues that experiential learning treats learners as active agents responsible of their own learning and emphasises its significance to the growth of personality. However, 'experience' here refers not to the mere "everyday experience", but a cycle consisting of four stages: concrete experience, abstract conceptualisation, reflective observation, and active experimentation (Kohonen 1992: 17). Furthermore, experiential learning helps learners in arranging knew information in schemata, which is an essential phase of processing knowledge (Kohonen 1992: 20). Based on these features complementary to each other, experiential learning can be analysed to possess the adequate prerequisites for language learning as learner education (Kohonen 1992: 21). This justifies the use of experiential learning for language education that aims at engaging students and promoting human agency. As for collaborative learning, Kohonen (1992: 31) clarifies that the experiential (constructivist) model of education promotes collaboration in such a way that the traditional (behavioristic) model does not, as the former may involve mutual goals and shared responsibility in the learning tasks. The positive interdependence that is naturally involved in collaborative learning motivates the students to try to achieve their learning goals even more enthusiastically, thus allowing learners to develop both on the academic and the personal level, while promoting the learners' social skills as well as their learning skills (Kohonen 1992: 34). In addition, experiential learning applied to collaborative language learning is an effective way to even out the differences in proficiency levels that often exist in the second and foreign language classroom, particularly with larger groups (Kohonen 1992: 37).

Many of the traditional collaborative learning activities can easily be applied for second and foreign language learning purposes. Crandall (1999: 229-231) discusses some of these activities and their relevance to language learning, suggesting various options for how the most common collaborative activities can be used in the language classroom (see Table 1).

Table 1. Activities for cooperative language learning

think/pair/share	➢ learners work at different stages of planning, sharing and developing their ideas first individually, then in pairs, and finally with the whole group ➢ numerous chances to practice the content and language of their output, based on the feedback they receive from their peers
Jigsaw	➢ group members each hold different pieces of information, which they first elaborate in "expert groups" with other learners holding the same information ➢ having returned to their home groups, group members combine their knowledge to fill in the information gaps and complete the task ➢ can be used as a listening or reading comprehension task ➢ can be used to promote higher-thinking skills in the target language, especially when the groups are asked to consider different perspectives of the same topic
cooperative cloze completion	➢ involves students cooperatively "fill-in-the-blanks" of a text (cf. *Jigsaw*)
Roundtable and *Roundrobin*	➢ learners take turns in offering their ideas regarding the topic at issue ➢ in writing (Roundtable) or orally (Roundrobin) ➢ often used for brainstorming ➢ particularly suitable for content-based language classes or for second and foreign language writing

These four activities can easily be carried out during one teaching period; however, there are also activities that require more extensive immersion. Such activities include group investigation, where students get to practice their academic language skills through several stages of planning, researching and developing their group projects (Crandall 1999: 231). Similar kind of extended contribution is involved in collaborative writing, an activity

developed particularly language learning in mind. In this activity type, learners practice their individual skills in writing and negotiation as well as in socializing as they work on either their own products or on joint texts produced in collaboration with other learners (Crandall 1999: 232).

2.6 Collaborative learning in the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education

The idea of collaborative learning can be detected as a significant principle in the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education (POPS 2014). Although there is no separate chapter dedicated for instructions on how collaborative learning is intended to be implemented in basic education, and the literal term (Finnish *yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen*) does not appear in the text, its influence is clearly present throughout the curriculum as the underlying philosophy for many of the focus areas and working procedures defined in it. To illustrate, presumptions of collaborative learning can be found, to varying degree, in all of the seven points of transversal competence (Finnish *laaja-alainen osaaminen*). The first point, *thinking and learning to learn* (L1) mentions the importance of collaboration to the pupils' development on this area, and suggests that problem-solving, argumentation, reasoning and other cognitive processing should be practiced in social interaction with others as well as independently (POPS 2014: 18). According to Crandall (1999: 239), collaborative learning activities have proven to be efficient in terms of the development of problem-solving and other cognitive strategies. The second point, *cultural competence, interaction and expression* (L2) insists that the experiences of social interaction pupils receive in the school community should help them not only to appreciate cultural difference, but also to understand its significance to the pupils' own development (POPS 2014: 19). This is relevant to collaborative learning in that various studies support the effectiveness of collaborative methods for improving intercultural understanding among language learners (Crandall 1999: 237). The third point, *taking care of oneself, managing daily life* (L3) aims to illustrate the value of personal relationships and mutual solicitude (POPS 2014: 20). Practicing interpersonal skills is a natural outcome of collaborative and cooperative learning, as Johnson and Johnson (1999: 83) emphasize. Similarly, collaboration is essential for the development of critical thinking and *multiliteracy* (L4), the fourth point of transversal competence (POPS 2014: 21). As

Crandall (1999: 239) points out, collaborative learning activities are beneficial for the development of critical thinking skills. The fifth point, *ICT competence* (L5), is intended to be practiced for purposes of interaction and networking, and its significance to social interaction is to be illustrated in teaching (POPS 2014: 21). This is particularly relevant to computer-supported collaborative learning, which was discussed in chapter 2.4. The sixth point, *working life competence and entrepreneurship* (L6), is the area of transversal competence where collaborative learning is realised most clearly. This means that Finnish basic education should have pupils practice working together with other learners so that they learn the importance of the individual's contribution to the joint effort, and what achieving mutual goals requires (POPS 2014: 22). This emphasises social interdependence and the aim for shared objectives, which are central elements in collaborative learning. The seventh point, *participation, involvement and building a sustainable future* (L7), seeks to inform pupils of how they can collaborate with others outside the school context through which they can participate in discussions of social matters (POPS 2014: 23). For this, collaborative learning is once again a potential tool, as it ought to enhance students' skills in constructive negotiating.

English is the most popular choice as the first foreign language pupils start studying in Finnish basic education (Finnish *A1-kieli*), typically on the third grade (age 9). Therefore, subject-specific objectives for English teaching in basic education are included in the national core curriculum for basic education, with tailored objectives for the primary levels (grades 1-6) and the lower levels (grades 7-9) of Finnish comprehensive school. In the objectives for English teaching in grades 7-9, elements of collaborative learning are either directly or indirectly implied, for instance in the objective that teaching should encourage pupils to use English in various interactional situations (POPS 2014: 398). Similarly, people skills is one of the five main areas that should be emphasised in the syllabus for English teaching on grades 7-9; pupils should be encouraged to participate in conversations and express their opinions about various topics within the appropriate level of proficiency, as well as provide them with tools to initiate communication and negotiating meanings (POPS 2014: 349). While this does not explicitly refer to collaborative learning, it does justify the use of this approach as means to implement this objective, as it supports interaction between learners by providing them a safe environment to practice speaking in the target language with peers (Crandall 1999: 233). For the same reason, collaborative learning is implied in

the objective of English teaching to assist pupils in developing their skills in negotiating meaning (POPS 2014: 398). Furthermore, in the subject-specific objectives for English teaching regarding learning environments and methods, the role of pair and small group work is specified (POPS 2014: 399). This notion encourages the use of collaborative learning in English teaching, although it should be remembered that all small group work does not automatically equal to collaborative learning.

2.7 Previous studies and material packages

The current study is a continuation to the study I conducted for my Bachelor's thesis in 2016 (Holm 2016). In that study, I examined three EFL activity books for the 9th grade in Finnish basic education to see how collaborative learning was acknowledged in them. The aim of the study was to analyse firstly what types of activities typically support collaborative language learning, and secondly which language skills are practised in them. The analysis revealed that a small number of traditional collaborative learning activities, such as Jigsaw and Roundrobin, were covered in the data, but only partially; that is, they significantly resembled the original collaborative activities, but lacked certain elements of them. Moreover, none of the activities in the data were able to fulfil all the criteria that I set for the activities to be considered as supportive of collaborative learning, namely the key elements of cooperative learning presented by Johnson and Johnson (1999). While the variety of activity types that were analysed as collaborative was decent, it was the low number of the activities that could be identified as such that motivated the development of the current material package; although this matter was not the main interest in that study, I noted that collaborative activities were a minority among activities that were intended to be completed independently.

Besides the current material package, a number of earlier material packages that exploit collaborative learning (as well as the other pedagogical elements presented in the current study) have been developed to contribute to the supply of such material. For instance, Ainikkamäki's (2013) material package combines cooperative learning and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in teaching about human anatomy and senses in Finnish basic education, which are taught mainly in the fifth and sixth grades (pupils aged

11-13). Ainikkamäki intends the material package to be a set of supplementary activities that teachers may use when the primary course materials are not enough to satisfy the need for communicative activities. Similarly, Onjukka (2013) has developed a cooperative CLIL material package that concentrates on social psychology with the aim of offering an additional psychology course for the Finnish general upper secondary school. The present material package shares the objective of providing a wider range of activities where students may practice their interpersonal and communication skills through the target language, but the difference between the present material package and Ainikkamäki's and Onjukka's materials are that the former is aimed to be used in language classes, whereas Ainikkamäki's and Onjukka's materials are essentially targeted at content courses. Rovasalo's (2008) material package is similar to the present one in this sense that it is designed for English teaching without having any direct connections to a specific course. Rovasalo combines cooperative learning with suggestopedy in her cooking themed material package, targeted at the general upper secondary level.

3 PROJECT-BASED LEARNING

This chapter deals with project-based learning. Although whether or not the present material package can be considered as project-based learning can be debatable, I attempt to justify its relevance to the material package by relying on the characterisations that leave more room for interpretation, such as Stoller (1997) and Reeves et. al. (2002, as cited in Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 586-587). Its usage alongside collaborative learning and in language education justify its function in the present material package, as illustrated in section 3.4.

3.1 Project-based learning: definitions

As with collaborative learning, identifying one definition for project-based learning (PjBL) that pleases everyone is impossible. This is evident from the disagreement regarding terminology; terms such as *project method*, *project work*, *project approach*, *project learning*, *project-based instruction* and *project-oriented approach* are also frequently used

to refer to this methodology (Knoll 2014: 665; Barron and Darling-Hammond 2008: n. pag.; Beckett 2002: 54). In terms of the definition, some researchers prefer a broad description, according to which PjBL is one of the basic pedagogic approaches (Knoll 2014: 665; Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 585). To be more specific, the term is generally used to refer to learning practices that use projects as means of instruction, the main concern of this definition being what is understood by "projects". For example, Thomas (2000: 1) offers an exhaustive list of characteristics that emphasize intellectual challenge, problem-solving, decision-making, investigation, student autonomy, and authenticity. Knoll (2014: 665) takes a different approach in his definition for 'projects', providing examples of the products of these projects (e.g. building a motor boat or producing a video film). Besides physical products, "projects" can also be public events, such as presentations (Barron and Darling-Hammond 2008: n. pag.). Beckett (2002: 54) gives a slightly broader definition by describing the term as an activity that progresses from planning to executing and finally presenting what was found or developed during the project, using independent as well as collaborative work.

Other definitions of PjBL emphasise student autonomy (Warren 2016: 13) and the authenticity and depth of learning tasks that support the learning of practical knowledge and skills (Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 587), to mention some examples. Moreover, the word 'problem' appears frequently in relation to PjBL (e.g. Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 591; Moursund 1999: 1; Beckett 2002: 53, Markham 2011: 38; Barron and Darling-Hammond 2008: n. pag.). Although problem-solving is a significant element of PjBL, especially with subjects such as mathematics and science, in which PjBL is commonly employed, the term 'project-based learning' is not a complete synonym to 'problem-based learning', where the learning assignments focus on solving a problem. Naturally, the central task of a PjBL unit may well be finding a solution to literal problem, such as conducting a plan that would answer to the question "How could we reduce waste in our school?", but it is by no means a requirement. In addition, whereas in most pedagogical approaches concentrate on acquiring new knowledge and skills, in PjBL the spotlight is on acting; that is, using what they have learnt previously (Knoll 2014: 665; Moursund 1999: 11). For comparison, in problem-based learning an evaluation of what kind of information needs to be obtained is necessary before solving the problem is possible (Barron and Darling-Hammond 2008: n. pag.). This implies that PjBL is not a method for learning per se, but for putting what has

been learnt into practice. Markham (2011: 38) confirms this viewpoint, stating that in PjBL, "knowing" and "doing" are combined in a way that involves students to use the abilities they have acquired so far.

3.2 Project-based learning: origins

PjBL has its ancestor in a teaching method created in the early 1900's by William Heard Kilpatrick who in his essay *The Project Method*, published in 1918, discusses his observations of using projects for educational purposes and outlines the basics of this educational approach (Pecore 2015: 158). Inspired by, for instance, John Dewey's theories about "learning by doing", Kilpatrick's idea was that project method engages students in a wide range of both independent and group activities, administered by a teacher whose primarily task is to assist students in decision-making and "building moral character" (Pecore 2015: 158). This goes hand in hand with Dewey's "problem method" and his notion of improved student contribution when provided with purposeful activities and real-world problems (Krajcik and Shin 2014: 277; Beckett 2002: 53). Kilpatrick illustrates his theory by describing four types of projects with varying working methods: in Type 1 projects, an external idea or plan is carried out by purposing, planning, executing, and judging, while Type 2 projects focus on the "esthetic experience", absorbed in the form of poetry, music, or visual art; Type 3 projects employ problem-solving, and in Type 4 projects, learners are expected to acquire specific skills or knowledge. Some of these qualities can still be detected from project-based learning that was developed much later in the 20th century. (Pecore 2015: 158).

Derived from Kilpatrick's project learning, the term project-based learning became popular in the 1990s (Warren 2016: 13). However, this is not to imply that PjBL was not in active use until then; on the contrary, PjBL has been applied to teaching in, for instance, two Danish universities since the 1970s (Gibbes and Carson 2014: 172). In addition, project-based learning does not directly descend from project learning, because while Kilpatrick based his theory on Dewey's and Edward L. Thorndike's conceptions of learning, PjBL has its roots more in constructivist learning theory presented by Piaget and Vygotsky, amongst others (Pecore 2015: 159).

3.3 Project-based learning: basic elements

As is evident from the discussion in chapter 2, every group assignment cannot be classified as a collaborative learning activity; similarly, every project conducted in class cannot be classified as project-based learning. To define which classroom procedures can be considered as supportive of PjBL, several scholars have identified certain characteristics that are essential to this pedagogy. The characteristics are based on the same general presumptions of what is expected from PjBl; however, there are differences in to what degree the characteristics should be fulfilled. Amongst the strictest characterisations is the one provided by Thomas (2000: 3), who suggests five criteria to PjBL: *centrality*, *driving question*, *constructive investigation*, *autonomy*, and *realism*, which are summarised in this paragraph. In the context of PjBL, *centrality* means that PjBL is the chief teaching approach in the classroom, not merely an extra element added to regular teaching. In addition, *centrality* also entails the assumption that PjBL projects should deal with the contents of the curriculum, and projects that fail to do this are merely "enrichment" projects. The term *driving question*, or *ill-defined problem*, refers to the primary issue that the project attempts to solve, which should be presented in such a way that helps students to understand the theoretical concepts behind the question or problem. A *constructive investigation* is the sequence of collecting and constructing new information and finding solutions that takes place over the project, during which students should not only draw from their current knowledge and abilities, but also learn something new. This contradicts with some of the conceptions of PjBL presented above in chapter 3.1 that emphasize applying of previous skills and knowledge (e.g. Knoll 2014: 665 and Moursund 1999: 11), although the learning of new ones is by no means denied. By the term *autonomy*, Thomas (2000: 4) refers to the requirement according to which students should have significant responsibility and freedom in PjBL projects, meaning that, despite the project being based on the curriculum, the course and the result of the project are not pre-planned by the teacher (nor anyone). The fifth criteria, *realism*, insists that PjBL projects, including all their elements from the theme to the target audience, draw from so-called real life, therefore excluding such projects where these elements serve no purpose outside the project.

Reeves, Herrington and Oliver (2002, as quoted by Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 586-587) present a list of ten central features of PjBL, some of which are identical to the ones pointed out by Thomas (2000) above, although differently perceived in certain aspects. For instance, according to Reeves et. al., projects should touch on authentic, real-world issues "as nearly as possible", which is a more flexible definition in comparison to Thomas's (2000: 3) insistence that all the criteria he presents must be fulfilled before a project becomes a PjBL project. Similarly, the definition of 'ill-defined' differs, to some extent, in Reeves et. al. (2002), where the term means that the activities should instruct students in identifying what kinds of tasks and subtasks must be carried through before the task is finished. Additionally, like Thomas (2000), Reeves et. al. (2002) believe that projects and their results should not be restricted to one acceptable solution or working method; instead, PjBL projects should be open to many different solutions. The rest of the features they mention deal with the complexity and sustainability of tasks (i.e. they should be long-term and intellectually challenging), multiple perspectives, collaboration, drawing from students' personal beliefs and values, interdisciplinary, and the authenticity of assessment and products. Although these requirements have much in common with Thomas's (2000), they leave much more room for compromises than Thomas's equivalent criteria. Furthermore, Krajcik et. al. (1994: 486) present another set of five qualities for PjBL projects that are consistent with the ones discussed above. According to Krajcik et. al., projects should a) be centred around a real-life question or problem that needs to be solved (cf. a driving question); b) employ responding to the question or solving the problem as the goal of the project; c) offer students opportunities for investigation (cf. constructive investigation); d) include collaboration between students, teachers and other members of the community as they investigate the problem; and e) support the use of cognitive tools. Of these characteristics, 'driving question' receives four criteria of its own; ideal PjBL questions or problems are described as feasible, worthwhile (i.e. include rich, authentic contents), contextualized, and meaningful.

As a review of these characterisations by Thomas (2000), Reeves et. al. (2002), and Krajcik et. al. (1994) indicate, researchers have convergent opinions of what the main qualities of PjBL are, despite their differences in approaching the issue. Noting this, Stoller (1997: n. pag.) has compiled a list, using various studies by language educationists as sources, that adequately sums up the requirements PjBL is expected to answer, regardless of the context:

> *1. Project work focuses on content learning rather than on specific language targets. [...].*
>
> *2. Project work is student centered, though the teacher plays a major role in offering support and guidance throughout the process.*
>
> *3. Project work is cooperative rather than competitive. […].*
>
> *4. Project work leads to the authentic integration of skills and processing of information from varied sources, mirroring real-life tasks.*
>
> *5. Project work culminates in an end product (e.g., an oral presentation, a poster session, a bulletin board display, a report, or a stage performance) that can be shared with others, […]. The value of the project, however, lies […] in the process of working towards the end point. Thus, project work has both a process and product orientation, and provides students with opportunities to focus on fluency and accuracy at different project-work stages.*
>
> *6. Project work is potentially motivating, stimulating, empowering, and challenging. It usually results in building student confidence, self-esteem, and autonomy as well as improving students' language skills, content learning, and cognitive abilities.*

Considering how much this characterisation varies from Thomas's (2000) in that whereas he is strict in his definition of what kinds of project can be considered as PjBL, the principles outlined by Stoller (1997), as well as the ones by Reeves et. al. (2002), are notably more adaptable. Therefore, it is determining whether or not the teaching material package in the present study can be considered as supportive of PjBL is challenging. On one hand, if judged by the characteristics listed by Thomas (2000: 3), it can be argued that the teaching material package in the present study does not fulfil the sufficient criteria set for PjBL; on the other hand, when the material package is reviewed based on the lists of features in Reeves et. al. (2002, as cited in Mergendoller et. al. 2006: 586-587) and especially in Stoller (1997), it can be found to correspond to several of them, although not all. However, according to Mergendoller et. al. (2006: 586) fulfilling "at least some" of the criteria is adequate for a project to earn the classification of PjBL. Moreover, as stated above, PjBL is most widely used in mathematics and sciences, as well as in medical education (Barron and Darling-Hammond 2008: n. pag.), it should be remembered that these characteristics do not directly apply to project-based foreign language learning, for which the present material package is primarily designed. The role of PjBL in the present material package will be dealt with in greater detail below in chapter 7.2.

3.4 Applications to language learning and collaborative learning

Although PjBL has gained its most solid popularity in mathematics and sciences, its usage does not limit to those subjects; PjBL can effortlessly be applied to other disciplines and instructional approaches as well. An example of the former case is language education, in which PjBL has been successfully incorporated for well over two decades (Stoller 2006: 19). In these early instances of PjBL in second language education, project-based instruction was initially employed as means of promoting intelligible input and output, as well as analytical skills, time management skills, and responsibility, for example (Beckett 2006: 4). Since then, project work has been proposed as a potential method for applying Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in the language classroom (see e.g. Stoller 1997). The corresponding relationship between PjBL and CBI is covered in chapter 4.2. Besides CBI, PjBL in the context of language education has been associated, for instance, with student-centred learning, experiential learning and cooperative learning (Beckett 2006: 5). Project-based language learning has also been integrated with computer-mediated learning, as by Dooly and Sadler (2016) who conducted a language project in which young language learners used methods of project-based language learning and computer-mediated communication to deal with questions of good and bad habits.

The benefits of PjBL to second and foreign language teaching are numerous and mostly positive. Studies have shown that project-based language learning has improved learners' motivation and self-esteem, content learning, real-life skills as well as language skills, although from where exactly these results stem would require more in-depth research (Stoller 2006: 20). Farouck (2016) found that project-based language learning had a positive effect on university level EFL learners' willingness to Communicate in English, as well as on their willingness to cooperate and their negotiation skills. Farouck (2016: 149) concludes that project-based language learning is a beneficial tool for promoting the kinds of skills students are likely to need in the 21st century work places, and that in comparison to more traditional language learning methods, project-based language learning caters the needs of different learner types more efficiently. Dooly and Sadler (2016) see project-based language learning as a potential approach for applying computer-mediated communication to language education, to which they refer as Technology-Enhanced Project-Based

Language Learning. However, while the advantages of using PjBL for language teaching purposes are evident, teachers should remember that students might not respond to it without reserve. For instance, Gibbes and Carson (2014) studied student perceptions towards project-based language learning and observed that although many of the students felt that project work had a positive effect for their motivation or autonomy, others had contrary opinions of its efficiency. Particularly in terms of linguistic abilities, students generally believed PjBL helped them in learning vocabulary, but at the same time criticised the lack of teaching and practicing grammar (Gibbes and Carson 2014: 180). Eyring (1989, as cited in Beckett 2006: 7) even noticed that not all the students in her study considered project-based language learning as a form of second language learning to begin with. Therefore, it is important that second and foreign language teachers who wish to use PjBL in their teaching make sure the procedures they choose fulfil the students' expectations of language learning and that way provide them with chances to improve their skills in all areas of language skills, not only vocabulary. At the same time, PjBL is a potential method to change the attitudes some language learners might have of second language learning being somehow "separate" from content learning, as Beckett and Slater (2005) demonstrate.

Besides language education in general, PjBL goes well together with collaborative learning, which is the major pedagogical approach applied to the present material package. The two approaches bear several similarities that argue for their simultaneous use. As in collaborative learning, in PjBL, members of the group must respect one another, and they must be aware of the mutual goal of their group (Atkinson 2001: 2). Similarly, problem-solving and decision-making are as essential to PjBL as they are to collaborative learning (Atkinson 2001: 3). The discussion above also proves that careful planning is required in the execution of both methodologies. It is as if the two educational approaches complement each other naturally; although it is by no means impossible, projects are rarely conducted alone, and they provide an effective opportunity for practicing collaborative skills. In fact, collaborative learning is not only about learning by collaboration, but also about learning how to collaborate – in other words, it is a learning outcome as much as it is a learning method (Lee, Huh and Reigeluth 2015: 562). Project-based learning is, thus, a potential instructional method for realizing this in practice, as it provides a content-based platform for practicing the learners' collaborative skills. Besides the high compatibility with each other, there are other strong arguments for combining these two approaches. For example,

Lee et. al. (2015: 562) have gathered an extensive list of the many advantages of collaborative project-based learning, according to which the method may help learners develop their skills in critical thinking, creative thinking and problem solving, as well as result in students responding to learning activities more positively, to mention some examples.

4 CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

The current material package deals with a thematic subject matter that has little to do with linguistics or traditional language education, and the activities in it do not explicitly practice, for example, grammar issues or the correct spelling of English words. The focus of the activities is, therefore, on the content. As any approach in language education, content-based instruction has its requisites and objectives, and when they are fulfilled, learning results are likely positive. Content-based instruction is, furthermore, a logical companion to both collaborative learning as well as to project-based learning, which favours its usage here.

4.1 Content-based instruction: theoretical framework

On a so-called traditional language lesson, teaching is often focused on a particular element of the target language, such as pronunciation or grammar. The language classrooms that use content-based instruction, however, differ from this method in that the focus of teaching is on a specific subject matter which is taught via the target language, thus integrating language and content (Brinton, Snow, and Wesche 2003: 2). This approach is based, firstly, on the idea that language learning occurs best by using the target language in practice, and, secondly, on the objective to encourage language learners to autonomous language learning outside the classroom and the academic context (Stryker and Leaver 1997: 3). CBI is, therefore, a method of demonstrating the students how language does not only exist in the language classroom but extends to other disciplines of the academia and real-life, and, furthermore, that the language classroom is not reserved exclusively for language

instruction. As Brinton et. al. (2003: 2) confirm, integrating language instruction and subject matter classes is the primary purpose of this language teaching approach.

For successful application of CBI, there are certain features that must be considered. One of them is the question of what teaching should focus on. As mentioned above, what is directly studied in CBI is the academic content, not the language per se, which is the major point characterising this approach. This would, nonetheless, be pointless, if teaching did not also take into account the students' language development and set it as one of the learning goals of CBI courses alongside content-related goals (Crandall 2012: 152). In practice, this means that teaching should promote students' competence in the four main language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) in the target language, as well as more specific areas of linguistics, such as vocabulary or registers (Crandall 2012: 152). This is to be executed through activities, such as projects and collaborative tasks that engage students in communicating and negotiating meanings in the target language (Crandall 2012: 153). To increase the connection between content and language, these activities should employ authentic material that is relevant to what is being studied (Crandall 2012: 152). Through these kinds of activities, it should be possible for CBI to help students to improve their learning strategies and academic skills (e.g. note-taking and paraphrasing) (Crandall 2012: 153).

Research on second and foreign language acquisition has revealed several arguments in favour of CBI. Brinton et. al. (2003: 3) have captured many of them in five primary points. The first point they make is that CBI supports the kind of language learning that is likely to best benefit the student in terms of the use of the target language. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011: 131) confirm this, stating that in CBI, that communication is the *method* of teaching, not the subject of it. However, as Crandall (2012: 151) observes, the ultimate goal of CBI activities is to support learners' progress from conversational language use to a more academic style. The second point Brinton et. al. (2003: 3) discuss is the notion that language learners are likely to be more motivated and, thus, learn more effectively on CBI courses because learners often think the content of the course is informational and relevant regarding the learning objectives. The third point is that in CBI, students' previous knowledge and experiences are taken into account, which should be a major guideline for

all teaching in general. The fourth point deals with the presumption that instead of sentence-level *usage*, language teaching should be based on contextualised *use* of language, which is characteristic to CBI. The final point that supports the use of CBI draws on the prerequisite in second language acquisition that learners must receive comprehensible input assisted by cues from the situational and verbal contexts, which facilitates language acquisition. This implies that the meaning of language utterances is more important than the form (Brinton et. al. 2003: 4). One example of a language learning activity where contextual cues aid learning is the popular cloze activity, where learners must infer and fill in the missing words in a text based on the given context (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011: 135). Moreover, it has been found that CBI improves second and foreign language competence, the development of academic skills and performance on examination and graduation rates, for instance (Crandall 2012: 151-152).

There are multiple variations for implementing CBI. For example, the number of content areas in CBI can vary from one to several, and the content can either be integrated in smaller parts on an introductional level or extend over the whole course (Crandall 2012: 149-150). Crandall (2012: 150) also identifies two main approaches to CBI, stating that CBI programmes can be either "content driven" or "language-driven". The former option concentrates more on using a foreign language to learn about a subject matter by adjusting instruction so that it allows the use of target language in class, such as employing of visuals, collaborative learning and supplementary materials, while the contents of the texts, tasks and tests remain on the subject matter. In the latter alternative, the situation is reversed, meaning the language teaching curriculum is constructed around different topics that are essentially not related to language itself. In addition, Crandall (2012: 150) mentions adjunct CBI programmes, which are intermediate forms of content-driven and language-driven CBI programmes. In this model, students participate simultaneously in a regular content-based class and a language class that discusses the same contents as the corresponding subject matter class, but with more emphasis on supporting academic language learning (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011: 141; Crandall 2012: 150). These courses are, as Crandall points out, ideal for those students whose language competence is not yet sufficient for participating in regular subject-matter courses with more advanced fellow language users. In fact, what should be kept in mind when organising CBI programmes, be they content-driven, language driven or adjunct, is that to best facilitate language learning, they must

include focused learning objectives for both language and content (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011: 134). Related to these models of CBI is the question of whether the teacher of a CBI course should be a language teacher or a content teacher. Typically, in the language-driven and adjunct CBI model are taught by language teachers, while content (or regular classroom) teacher is the norm in content-driven CBI courses (Crandall 2012: 151). Sometimes, however, combining the two in team-teaching is an option worth the consideration in higher education as well as in elementary and secondary education, where team-teaching is most often employed (Crandall 2012: 151). This is, furthermore, the difference often made between Content-Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which are two very similar versions of the same teaching approach. The former is usually taught either by a language teacher, who is sometimes assisted by a content teacher, or by a content teacher teaching a course designed for ESL students, whereas the latter alternative is typically instructed by a content teacher (Richards and Rodgers 2014: 116).

4.2 Applications to collaborative learning and project-based learning

When the principles of content-based instruction are compared with those of collaborative learning, certain parallels can be detected. Firstly, it is essential for both approaches that the content that is being studied is meaningful regarding the objectives that students are expected to reach. Secondly, both collaborative learning and CBI should promote communication between learners, suggesting that regardless of the subject matter, learning is best facilitated by social interaction. These factors justify the use of CBI alongside collaborative learning.

In addition to collaborative learning, project-based learning, too, benefits from content-based instruction in terms of language education. This is evident considering how effortlessly PjBL allows simultaneous concentration on both the course contents as well as the target language; it is easy to organize a project around a subject matter in a content-based class (Stoller 1997). When the project is conducted through the target language, students develop their skills and knowledge in both the language and the content. However, some students may be sceptic about how project work is supposed to help them improve

their language skills. Beckett and Slater's (2005) demonstrate through The Project Framework that combining content-based instruction and project-based learning is likely to support the development of content knowledge as well as language and thinking skills. Beckett and Slater (2005: 110) describe The Project Framework as a methodological tool that is to "show the students the language, content, and skill development which occurs through project work". They found that participating in The Project Framework helped students build a connection between content and language, and that students felt they had improved their skills and expanded their knowledge in both areas (Beckett and Slater 2005: 114-115).

5 TARGET GROUP: TEENAGERS

Teaching teenagers is, admittedly, a challenge, but not one that should be feared, because within every challenge there is always an opportunity to overcome it. Having their lives turned upside down by puberty, adolescents are, more than ever before, in need of testing their boundaries – and of adults who support them in this. This is why it is extremely important to investigate the characteristics and the needs of this particular target group, so that it is possible to design teaching materials that best serve their interests and, consequently, assist them in this crucial phase of maturation.

5.1 Teaching teenagers

Adolescence is usually described as the transitional period between childhood and adulthood; teenagers are no longer children and are only just growing into adults. The search for their adult identities combined with the emotional and hormonal changes that come with puberty make teenagers a demanding target group for teachers to control and nearly impossible to motivate. However, teenagers should not be seen as a "problem" group, nor should educating them be considered an insurmountable mission. With teenage learners, as with any seemingly homogeneous group, the teacher needs to identify the educational background, characteristics, needs and interests of the students to successfully engage them in learning. When it comes to teaching English as a second or foreign

language, a major consideration regarding these factors in the 21st century is the realisation that now, perhaps more than ever before, students are exposed to informal learning of English in their every-day lives outside the school context (Legutke 2012: 113). While learning languages outside the language classroom is not a new phenomenon, the effect that media and travelling, for example, have on the informal language development of adolescents of this century is indisputable (Legutke 2012: 113). These leisure time experiences teenage EFL learners have with English should, thus, be taken into account when designing motivating learning activities. Likewise, EFL teaching in the upper levels of comprehension school (grades 7-9) should pay attention to the continuity of language learning, because at the beginning of their education in this level, teenagers are typically in such a phase in their puberty where acknowledging their past accomplishments to boost their self-confidence is equally important as providing them with new challenges to help them develop their skills further (Legutke 2012: 114-115).

Another central issue regarding the 21st century adolescent is the role of modern technology in their lives. This generation of "digital natives" has spent their childhood surrounded (and entertained) by internet, smart phones, and other technological upheavals, and in doing so it has mastered the building of social relationships in the virtual words as well as maintaining several different virtual identities at the same time (Legutke 2012: 113). The point that deserves the teacher's attention here is not only how to best exploit the skills of digital natives in the EFL classroom, but also how EFL teaching could support students in developing these skills, specifically in terms of critical thinking and becoming a responsible user of the digital world (Legutke 2012).

The increase in globalization, worldwide migration, and mobility are other affective factors in the English use of a teenage EFL learner that deserve careful consideration from EFL teachers and teaching material designers. This relates to the question of not only the role of the English language as a lingua franca, but also of with who the teenage EFL learner in the 21st century uses English. Although there used to be a time when English as a foreign language was taught to teenagers with the presumption that they are most likely to use it to communicate with native English speakers, this is not necessarily the case anymore;

instead, it is the intercultural relations with other EFL speakers that are more likely to create situations in which the teenagers need to use English (Legutke 2012: 114).

5.2 Designing teaching materials for teenagers

As Legutke (2012: 114-115) illustrates, teenagers are at a crossroads in their life where they need their existing skills and knowledge to be valued, but also to gain new experiences that challenge them enough. This is a key issue in motivating teenage students, because the lack of either consideration may result in learning tasks where students either feel like they cannot show what they are already capable of or that the task is uninteresting. Therefore, EFL teaching material designers must include both aspects in EFL textbooks for teenagers to best cater their needs, to support their creativity and to allow them to experiment with the target language (Legutke 2012: 115). The three vital aspects that deserve more specific attention are, firstly, the topics, tasks, and texts; secondly, the authenticity; and thirdly, the methodology used in EFL textbooks (Legutke 2012: 115).

Other than by their age, teenagers cannot be classified as a purely homogeneous group. No matter how hard researchers and educators may try, they will never be able to identify one quality, personal interest or habit that applies to every teenager, which makes the challenge in finding the kind of topics, tasks and texts that best correspond to the interests and needs of as many teenage students as possible a great one. This makes the saying *you cannot please everyone* particularly accurate when referring to teenagers, but besides an apt remark, for teachers it is also a fact that must be accepted. At the same time, however, teachers should not let it discourage them, but instead find comfort in the fact that certain patterns in teenage likes and dislikes can be detected. For instance, music and narrative stories belong to the major interests of teenagers, which, thus, deserve more attention in EFL textbooks, not only in terms of topics but also in the form of tasks and texts that are featured in the textbooks (Legutke 2012: 115). The authenticity of these tasks and tests as well learning situations in general is particularly important to teenagers, who want to see how well they can manage in the “real world” with their current language skills (Legutke 2012: 116). If the teacher wants to modify the EFL textbook according to these

prerequisites, they could increase student motivation by allowing them to participate in the decision making of what is included in the activities (Legutke 2012: 116).

6 SPRINGCON: THE MATERIAL PACKAGE

In this chapter, I present the framework for the material package that was developed for the present study. I begin with identifying the research tasks, then I describe the material package in terms of its content, development. and aims. In section 6.6 the objectives of each individual activity are outlined, together with some general notes on what should be taken into account when executing the project. Some general guidelines on assessment (ch. 6.7), differentiation of the material, (ch. 6.8) and potential modifications to the activities (ch. 6.9) are also given. The final four sections in this chapter deal with the teaching experiment and the feedback questionnaire that the participants of the teaching experiment filled in.

6.1 Research tasks

In the remaining chapters of this thesis, I answer the following research tasks:

1. How was the material package developed?
2. Does the material package support
    a. collaborative learning?
    b. project-based learning?
    c. the national Finnish core curriculum for basic education?
3. Is the material package appropriate regarding the target group?
4. What kind of feedback did the material package receive?

The first research task is answered in chapter 6.2, while questions 2 and 3 are treated in chapter 7. In chapter 6.11.1, the results of the feedback questionnaire are presented, and they are discussed in chapter 7.4.

6.2 Description of the material package

SpringCon is a teaching material package designed to be used in the period before the summer holiday, after the final assessments of the academic year have been given, which in the Finnish comprehensive school typically takes place in the end of May. Its aim is to provide teachers as well as pupils something motivating and casual to do during the last classes of the academic year. The central theme of the material package is games, referring to a range of leisure activities that involve taking part in an activity that is carried through according to certain rules, often in the form of a competition. This includes so called tabletop games, such as board games and card games, as well as electronic games, such as video games, computer games and mobile games, which are popular among teenagers, thus justifying the choice of this theme. Another motive for making the activities to concentrate on the world of games was the lack of this theme in Finnish EFL activity books; according to my brief investigations on several EFL activity books used in Finnish basic education, the theme of games is not treated in them to a great extent. Although games are often considered competitive, the activities included in this material package do not instruct pupils to compete against each other; instead, the pedagogical framework on which the material relies is collaborative learning, meaning pupils are required to work collaboratively in small groups to complete the activities. The activities are designed according to the principles of collaborative learning outlined in chapter 2.3, with the aim of familiarizing pupils and teachers with this pedagogy. Another pedagogical technique that the material package employs is project-based learning; the activities in it involve pupils partaking in a small-scale project in collaborative groups, applying the central ideas of project-based learning presented in chapter 3.3. Moreover, as the focus of the activities is on the subject matter of games, while the target language itself serves as the medium of communication and instruction, the instructional method of the material package is content-based instruction, covered in chapter 4.

6.3 Development of the material package

The groundwork for this material package was done in the study I conducted in my Bacherlor's Thesis (Holm 2016), in which I investigated three EFL activity books for the Finnish secondary school in terms of collaborative activities. While that study was qualitative rather than quantitative, as a footnote I found that the number of activities that instruct to collaboration was low in comparison to activities that were to be accomplished independently. This implies that employing collaborative learning techniques in English teaching is the responsibility of teachers themselves, since the existing materials do not support collaboration in great extent. Therefore, with this material package, I wanted to relieve the evident lack of collaborative activities in Finnish EFL teaching materials, and this way encourage English teachers to make use of the advantages of collaborative learning techniques in foreign language teaching. Consequently, I wanted to develop collaborative activities that could effortlessly be adapted to different kinds of EFL classrooms and support various learning types and teaching techniques, making them easy to put into practice, even for those teachers and pupils who have no prior knowledge or experience with the principals and procedures of collaborative learning. Because my intention was not to compile an activity package for any specific course, I decided to draw from the elements of project-based learning to give the material the structure of a small-scale project. Content-based instruction was chosen to supplement the elements of both collaborative learning and project-based learning (see ch. 4.2).

The development of the material package began by familiarising myself with the key concepts, tendencies and principles of the chosen theoretical framework. Based on my findings, I designed six main tasks that formed the core of the material package, and two extra tasks that would be used if needed. To ensure that the material package meets the aims set for it, a teaching experiment was carried out, in which I would test the activities of the material package in authentic classroom situations. For this, I contacted a Finnish comprehensive school of approximately 100 pupils located in a municipality of roughly 1200 residents, and a teaching experiment was agreed to be carried out in the 8th grade English classes on week 21 in 2017. The occasion, thus, took place late May, which inspired

the name of the material package. This decision was further encouraged by the Finnish EFL text and activity book series *High Five!* by Kalaja et. al. (2016) for comprehensive school. In the activity book editions for 3rd and 4th grade that have been published so far, there is a so-called May section; a set of action-based activities that pupils can fill in after all the primary chapters of the books have been finished. This is because, by the last few weeks of May, the final assessments for the academic year have usually been registered, hence there is often a chance to concentrate on themes and employ working procedures that are not part of the general assessment plan, which make them difficult to fit elsewhere into the tight schedule of the academic year. Keeping this in mind, this material package has been designed to fill in the "empty space" in the final classes of the spring semester, after the final assessments of the year are over. At the end of the teaching experiment, feedback regarding the practical issues of the material package was collected from the participants. Thereafter, based on this feedback as well as on my own observations during the experiment, the activities were edited to their present form.

6.4 Aims of the material package

This teaching material package was designed with both English teachers as well as teenage English learners in mind. For teachers, the package should, firstly, lessen their workload after a long and hectic school year by providing a set of practical activities that are easily adaptable to English teaching even after the final assessments of the year have been given. Secondly, the ready-made collaborative activities should to encourage English teachers to apply the methods of collaborative learning in their teaching. For pupils, the aims of the material package are mostly the same: to introduce young EFL learners to collaborative learning methods. The need for this sort of promotion of collaboration in the English classroom is illustrated by the evident scarcity of collaborative activities in Finnish EFL activity books (see Holm 2016). As collaboration is a central working method in most branches of science in our society, it is important that it is practiced at school. Although the academia is still a distant world to pupils in the lower levels of comprehensive school, it is the responsibility of the Finnish school system to provide pupils with the skills and prerequisites they might need for upper secondary education (POPS 2014: 18). Collaborative learning is, thus, not merely the method of learning, but also the main learning outcome of the present material package. Moreover, according to the aims for

transversal competence outlined in the Finnish national core curriculum 2014 for basic education (POPS 2014), the school community should familiarise pupils with the importance of social interaction (POPS 2014: 21). In the light of these objectives, this material package aims at promoting interaction between pupils and instructing pupils to work together on a joint task by offering them opportunities to practice their English skills in meaningful communicational tasks.

Besides this objective, the material package seeks to motivate pupils by offering some variety in the working methods in the EFL classroom and having them conduct a small-scale project in which pupils deal with a theme in which most teenagers are interested. Another aim for the material package with regard to pupils is to support pupils' creativity in a way the most common EFL classroom methods do not, as this material package involves the pupils in the decision-making regarding the content and the working methods of their projects, particularly in the later sections of the package. Furthermore, the material package attempts to instruct students to practice their language skills, without directly teaching the language itself, for which pupils typically have little motivation during the final weeks of the academic year.

6.5 Target groups

The activities in the material package are targeted at Finnish secondary school pupils. While the language used in the activities aims to be concise in length and simple enough both grammar and vocabulary wise for EFL learners of different levels to understand them, some pupils who are not used to the instructions being presented in the target language may need help with understanding the instructions correctly. However, there are no barriers other than language proficiency that would prevent the material package to be used in lower proficiency levels; teachers may translate the instructions or simplify them in accordance to the language skills of their pupils. Nevertheless, teachers who wish to use this material package should keep in mind that modifications are allowed for private use only, with appropriate references; any commercial use of the materials is prohibited.

In Task 3 of the material package, there are references of traditional Finnish games such as *Mölkky* and *Afrikan tähti* that non-Finnish pupils may be unfamiliar with, implying that the main target audience of the material package is EFL learners whose first language is Finnish. If needed, any references to Finnish contexts can easily be omitted from the activities. Regarding the theme of the material package, the activities have been designed so that general knowledge and basic level experience about board, yard, card, computer, online, and video games is sufficient to complete the tasks. The games featured in the activities are popular worldwide (apart from the two Finnish games mentioned above) and, in the case of registered trademarks, recognized by the same names in most countries. The only exception to this is the board game *Taboo* which is better known in Finland as *Alias* (some differences between the two games exist, although in principle they are the same game), in addition to the ancient, non-registered games such as chess and tic-tac-toe that have translated names in most languages (e.g. Finnish *shakki* and *ristinolla*). Therefore, recognizing the games should not be an obstacle even with no personal experience of playing the games.

While the activities are targeted primarily to EFL learners, the material package itself is designed for English teachers to use. Instructions on how the activities are intended to be used are provided in chapter 6.6, and suggestions for possible modifications that teachers may want to make to cater the needs of their pupils in chapter 6.9. At the end of the teaching material package, there are also vocabulary lists categorized into groups based on the activities in which they appear and a specific vocabulary list containing general gaming vocabulary, which teachers can use to aid the pupils with understanding the tasks (see more about differentiation in chapter 6.8). Lists of the materials teachers need to prepare for the tasks beforehand are included in section 3 of the material package (‘Equipment list’), and the printouts developed exclusively for this material package that are essential for completing the tasks as is intended (game cards, keys to the tasks etc.) can be found at the end of the package in section 9, ‘Additional material’. Under the headline ‘Forming groups’, teachers can read about how the groups for the duration of the project should be formed. Moreover, to further help teachers with lesson planning, a time-use plan including the estimated time that should be prepared to complete each task is provided in the beginning of the material package, in the ‘Time-use plan’ section.

6.6 The tasks

The material package features a small-scale project composed of six tasks of varying length, building up from four so-called pre-tasks and two, more extensive "main" tasks (see Table 2). Progressively, the tasks guide pupils through the process of designing one's own game, starting with warm-up exercises that introduce pupils to the game theme of the package, continuing with planning and brainstorming, and culminating in the final tasks of executing and finally presenting the game that has been developed in each group. It is intended that the pupils learn more about the project gradually, meaning the main achievement (i.e. designing and presenting their own games) should not be revealed to the pupils beforehand. Therefore, the tasks are to be carried out in chronological order, starting from Task 1 and ending with Task 6. The final activity, which entails presenting and, eventually, playing the games in an imaginary gaming convention, does not receive the classification of a 'task'; instead, it carries the name of the gaming convention, *SpringCon*. A hyperlink to the slideshow that should be played at *SpringCon* is given in section 7 of the material package. Following this, three extra tasks can be found in 'Extra tasks' section, intended to be used in the case where some of the groups are finished with Tasks 5 and 6 before others; however, they may as well be used after all the primary activities are completed, including acting out the gaming convention.

Table 2. The tasks of the material package

Task name	**Task objectives**	**To be noted**
Task 1: What's in a name	1) The groups come up with a name for their group	- Time limit is optional but recommended
Task 2: Let's talk games!	1) Pupils take five buttons each that mark the number of floors each pupil has 2) The groups discuss the given topic, aided by questions 3) Every time a pupil participates in the discussion with at least one or two whole sentences related to the topic, they must give up one button	- Giving up tokens not required: conversational phrases and confirmation checks (*"Really?"* etc.), reading the questions out loud - Extra tokens to be taken as a "punishment": *"I don't know / care"* etc. - Questions need not be discussed all at once nor in the given order

Task 3: Games galore	1) The groups find the correct pairs and group them under the correct categories	- Pupils should take turns
Congratulations!		- The estimated finishing time of Tasks 5 and 6 is to be written on the blank lines
Task 4: Before you start…	1) The groups "cast" the roles	- All groups must have the 4 main roles - The Investigator is primarily for groups of 5 but smaller groups can e.g. rotate this role if needed - Sharing of roles or multiple roles for one pupil for groups of 3 - Time limit is optional but recommended
Task 5: Let's get down to business	1) Brainstorming (Step 1) 2) The groups discuss the results of Step 1 and attempt to reach a consensus on what type of game the group is going to develop 3) The groups start making the game	- Pupils should take turns - Questions need not be answered all at once nor in the given order - See 'Equipment list' in the material package for the material that should be ready for when the groups are ready to start making the games
Task 6: We are proud to present…	1) The groups prepare a visual and/or oral presentation of their game	- For easier time management, the groups may divide into two smaller groups of which the other may move on to Task 6 while others work on Task 5 - No one should be left alone with one task - Pupils should remember to stick to their roles and consult each other

SpringCon	1) The groups set up convention "stands" 2) One group member stays at the groups' own stand and presents the game to visitors 3) The rest of the group divides to the other groups' stalls to view and play their games (approx. 10 minutes) 4) When time is up, one group member returns to his/her own groups' stall and takes the place of the presenter	- The *SpringCon* slideshow that should be shown during this phase (see the hyperlink in section 7 of the material package) - All group members should work as the presenter at least once

The layout for the task instructions mimic the structure of formal letters, complete with salutations (*Dear,*) and complimentary closes (*Best regards,*). The letters are addressed to the group of pupils receiving them, and they follow a narrative structure in which the organisers of an imaginary gaming convention approach the pupils with various challenges and tasks to recruit aspiring young game designers to develop new games to be presented at their gaming event. Each letter contains written information about the tasks, supplemented by all the material needed to accomplish the task. On the top left-hand corner of each letter, the ordinal number and a descriptive name of the task is marked, followed by a greeting addressing the group. After a brief introduction to the task, there is a numbered sequence of step-to-step instructions that guide pupils on how they should proceed to complete the task accordingly and what happens afterwards. The first three letters are sent anonymously, the purpose of the tasks and the identity of the people requesting them being revealed in the letter accompanying Tasks 4 and 5. After the group has successfully completed the task assigned to them in the letter, they will be given a new letter. This procedure supports the idea according to which collaborative learning should be student-centred; in this model, the pupils are the ones in charge of the progression of the activities, as they move on from one activity to another in their own pace. The only tasks the pupils are expected to begin and finish collectively at the same time are Task 1 and the final phase where the groups present their games; therefore, theme-related extra activities are featured in the material package to be employed in the case where some of the groups finish Tasks 5 and 6 ahead of time. Furthermore, instead of being instructed by the teacher, pupils will be introduced to the tasks via letters in written form, meaning the pupils are less dependent

on the teacher and will work more independently in their groups, as finding out what to do is in their own responsibility.

In the teaching experiment where these activities were tested, the instruction sheets were given out to pupils in A5-sized envelopes, along with the other supplies that were needed for each activity in question. This decision was made for two major reasons: firstly, when the envelopes are prepared prior to the class, the teacher will not have to take care of the handouts and other essentials during the period, and can, thus, focus more on observing the class and helping the pupils with any problems they may encounter. Secondly, the suspense of the next task being revealed in an envelope supposedly brings an extra element to perform the tasks.

6.7 Assessment

As this material package is primarily designed to be used at the end of the spring term, after the final evaluations have been registered, no assessment plan was developed according to which the pupils could be evaluated regarding these assignments. The idea is that, after a whole school year of exams and evaluations, the pupils would be able to concentrate on the tasks without worrying about their every action being assessed and affecting their grades. This should encourage pupils to use language and their other skills more freely. If, however, the teacher, or perhaps the pupils themselves, wish to have the projects assessed, it should be directed less at the content of the projects and more at the collaborative process and its successfulness. In other words, assessment should concentrate not on *what* was done, but rather *how* it was done. As the material package promotes collaboration over competition, it is not recommended that the actual products are evaluated, not even by a light-hearted polling of "who has the best game"; pupils should feel that all the groups' efforts are equally valuable.

At the same time, according to Johnson and Johnson (1999: 84), one of the key elements of cooperative learning is group-processing (see ch. 2.4). For this, the teacher may ask the class to fill in the self-evaluation form that can be found under the 'Self-evaluation' section of the material package. Admittedly, the present material package does not fully correspond

to this element the way Johnson and Johnson (1999) intend, due to time restrictions. This phase can be made more interactive, and possibly more constructive, by allowing group members to consult each other when answering some of the questions in the self-evaluation form. Alternatively, they may respond to the form individually. In both cases, the pupils turn in the forms individually. It should be noted here that the self-evaluation form was developed after the teaching experiment and has not been piloted, thus its functionality cannot be guaranteed.

6.8 Differentiation in the material package

Differentiation is an issue that all learning material designers should consider, regardless of the subject or the educational level. This means that the materials should be easily adaptable according to the proficiency level of all the individuals in the target audience. In the context of the present study, this can be challenging, as there may be great variation between the language skills of individuals in one classroom. Here, differentiation is taken into account by the main pedagogical approach used in the material package. Collaborative learning in itself is differentiating, as the more advanced learners in the collaborative group should help the less advanced pupils tackle the assignments. To ensure that each learning group has access to as much variation in skills and knowledge as possible, it is recommended that the groups are selected by the teacher, taken he or she knows the pupils well enough to form heterogeneous groups.

Another form of differentiation apparent in the material package is the flexible shift from one task to another. Excluding Task 1 that everyone should finish roughly at the same time, the groups may move on to the next task as soon as they have finished the present one. Those groups who advance in a faster pace will not have a chance of getting bored or distracted while waiting for the other groups to catch up with them. If some of the groups finish making their products and the presentations before others, the teacher may assign them with some of the three extra tasks while waiting for the others to complete their projects, depending on how much time there is left in the schedule for them to do so.

All the instructions of the material package are in the target language. Some pupils may be overwhelmed by this, as the instructions in the officially published EFL school books used in Finnish basic education are mostly in Finnish. Therefore, vocabulary lists corresponding to each task can be found in the 'Vocabulary lists' section in the material package. The vocabulary lists may be cut and put in the envelopes with the other essential material needed for each activity (see the 'Equipment list' in the material package), or given to pupils later, if needed. A list consisting of game-related vocabulary is featured in the same section, and it may be used in Tasks 5 and 6.

6.9 Suggested modifications

Kujansivu (2002: 211) suggests that time restrictions should be used in collaborative and cooperative learning activities to control the time spent on a collaborative project in the foreign language classroom. Hence, some of the activities feature a time restriction, namely Tasks 1 and 4, in addition to Tasks 5 and 6 that should be finished by the time specified in the *Congratulations!* letter. Nevertheless, the time restrictions in this material package are optional, and can be omitted if needed. This goes for the roles introduced in Task 4 as well. In the teaching experiment where these activities were tested, it was found that, for the roles to serve the purpose they are intended to serve, the realisation of the roles should be controlled and monitored. In practise, this means the pupils should be, in addition to the guidelines provided in the role cards in Task 4, further advised on how they should practice these roles in the tasks that follow, or, the very least, reminded about the responsibilities that the roles entail. Therefore, small pictures that describe each role were added on the role fold cards as well as in the instructions for later tasks. However, due to the dysfunctionality of this element observed during the teaching experiment, it was decided that Task 4 is optional.

For the realisation of the gaming convention *SpringCon* itself, it was suggested above that pupils of the same group take turns in presenting their games while the rest of the group wander around the classroom, investigating the other groups' projects. If the pupils want to challenge themselves and further practice their collaborative skills, especially positive interdependence and individual accountability, this phase can be brought even closer to

reciprocal learning. Having a student from another group to present another group's product based on what they learnt from the original presentation could be a potential variation for this procedure, as this would require pupils to put more effort on the presentations in terms of how well it conveys the principles of the product. However, it is likely that the pupils will prefer to present their own products themselves.

The original idea of how the instructions and the equipment needed for performing the tasks should be delivered to the groups was to put them all in envelopes which would then be given to students. Understandably, some schools may not be able or willing to use envelopes for this purpose for economic, environmental, or other reasons. The activities work just as well without them, in which case, the teacher must give the materials to the pupils separately. Teachers may also use the whole material only in electric form if the circumstances demand it; the activity instructions can, for instance, be shown in .pdf format on a projector screen. In this case it should be kept in mind that when the instructions are jointly shown to all the groups at the same time, the initial idea of the groups progressing from one activity to another in their own pace disappears.

6.10 The teaching experiment

The material package was tested in a teaching experiment that took place in a Finnish comprehensive school in May 2017. It was conducted as a part of the English teaching on grade 8, in the duration of five 45-minute teaching periods in the course of one week. The experiment took place in a comprehensive school that follows the Finnish national curriculum for basic education. The participants of the present study were ten eight-graders in this school (aged 14-15) who have studied English as the A1-language since third grade (aged 9). This group was chosen because the material package is designed primarily for the Finnish secondary schools (grades 7-9, pupils aged 13-16).

6.10.1 Aims and methods of the teaching experiment

The primary aim of the teaching experiment was to see how the activities included in it work in practice and serve the purpose they were intended to. Although the teaching

material package was developed according to the principles of the chosen pedagogical framework by applying the traditional task types that employ this framework, there is no guarantee that, once used in so-called real life, the activities would function as expected. Most importantly, by testing the activities in an authentic classroom context, it was to be ensured that the activities would promote collaborative learning, which is the major pedagogical ideology behind the material package. Main considerations here were how well the activities could perform the key elements of collaborative and cooperative learning (see ch. 2.3 and 2.4) and whether they fulfilled the criteria set for collaborative learning tasks. Regarding the functionality of the activities, the teaching experiment was also conducted to observe whether neglecting the collaborativeness in them was possible in any way; that is, whether the pupils actually worked together on the tasks as they were instructed to do, or proceeded to work individually without negotiating with each other first. In addition, project based learning was another pedagogical approach that inspired the material package, thus making it one of the observation points of the teaching experiment. Particularly, the experiment was expected to show to what extent the key elements of project based learning were present in the activities when put into practice.

Another motive for the teaching experiment was to see how the pupils responded to the materials. A major subject of observation here was how effortless it was for the pupils to, firstly, understand the instructions of the tasks, and, secondly, to act according to the instructions. If the pupils seemed unsure of what was expected of them, posed several questions regarding the task instructions, or failed to perform the task they were given, it would indicate that the instructions were not clear enough and did not provide all the information and examples that were needed to accomplish the tasks. Alternatively, the pupils might not have expressed problems with understanding the task, but still could not carry out the tasks accordingly. This would indicate that the task itself may be unrealistic or challenging to realise, and that modifications would, thus, be needed. Another possible response from the pupils that the teaching experiment was designed to reveal was interest – or, alternatively, the lack of it – towards the activities. If the pupils seemed disinterested in doing the tasks assigned to them, it might be because the tasks were not motivating enough for them, for which there might be several potential reasons; for instance, the topic of the exercises might not be of their interest, or the tasks might be too easy. Pupils might

feel unmotivated even in the case where the activities were too difficult considering the pupils level of proficiency.

Two methods were used to gather information about the functionality and the participants' perceptions of the material package: my own observations and notes during and after the teaching experiment, and a feedback questionnaire. Because I was actively involved in coordinating the teaching experiment, I had little time to make exhaustive observations during it and had no observation form to fill in. Therefore, the feedback questionnaire responses form a major part of the results of the teaching experiment.

6.11 The feedback questionnaire: aim and methods

In the end of the last session of the teaching experiment, after all the activities had been completed, the pupils filled in a feedback questionnaire. It consisted of fifteen multiple choice questions, to which the participants answered on an online-based questionnaire platform *Kahoot!*. The questions concerned the participants' opinions of and experiences with the material. The aim of the feedback questionnaire was to gather information about how the participants felt about the activities, which was to be used in the development of the material. Due to absences, eight of the original ten participants could respond to the feedback questionnaire.

Questionnaire was chosen as the method of collecting feedback on the material package due to the numerous advantages there are to it. Most importantly, collecting data via questionnaires is quick and easy as it allows the researcher to gather large amounts of information in a short time with significantly less effort than, for comparison, interviewing the participants would take (Dörnyei and Taguchi 2009: 6). Based on the context and the purpose of use, researchers can generally choose between two questionnaire forms: the more traditional paper form, and the increasingly utilized electric forms. Choosing one questionnaire type over the other depends on various factors, of which perhaps the most significant one is who the respondents of the questionnaire are. For example, the age of the respondents is a major factor, as Valli and Perkkilä (2015: 112) point out; respondents aged 15-25 years are more motivated to respond to online questionnaires than the older

population. Thus, considering the age of the participants of the present study, which was between 14 and 15 years, an online form was chosen for the questionnaire. This decision was favoured by the fact that, in reference to the benefits of using questionnaires, online forms top paper forms regarding effortlessness, economy and time management. With online questionnaires, there is no need for transcription either, as the results are already in electric form, which increases the reliability of the results, since possible typing errors are avoided this way (Valli and Perkkilä 2015: 110). In addition, perhaps one of the greatest advantages of online questionnaires is that their appearance can be modified to fulfil various purposes as well as to please the eye, a quality which paper ones fail to perform exhaustively (Valli and Perkkilä 2015: 109).

Out of all the options available for online questionnaires, the game-based learning platform *Kahoot!* was chosen to collect feedback about the present teaching material package. In *Kahoot!*, the questions are presented to the respondents on a projector screen, along with the answer options, each of which are presented with a colour and a shape (e.g. a square). Currently, there are four questionnaire types available for use on *Kahoot!*: *Quiz*, *Survey*, *Discussion* and *Jumble*. *Quiz* is a traditional questionnaire where the participants are rewarded with points, calculated based on every correct answer and the time used in answering. *Survey* resembles *Quiz*, minus the competitive element, as there are no correct answers assigned to the questions, thus there is no point giving system either. *Discussion* works similarly to *Survey*, except that the questionnaire creator can submit only one question, with the objective of initiating discussion. Finally, the newest add to the questionnaire selection is *Jumble*, where, instead of choosing one correct answer, the participants must put the answers in the correct order. The respondents participate in the questionnaire via their electric devices, for example smart phones or tablets; first, the respondents, or "players", go to the *Kahoot!* login website[1] and sign in to play the questionnaire using a pin code that is automatically created for each questionnaire. Then, the players are asked to give themselves a nickname under which they will respond to the questions, and when everyone's nicknames appear on the projector screen, the questionnaire host begins the questionnaire. The players are first presented the question for a few seconds, both on the projector screen and on their electric device screens, after which

[1] https://kahoot.it

the answer options appear on the board. On their devices, however, the players see coloured boxes with the shapes that correspond each answer option visible on the projector screen, and to submit their answer, the players click or tap the box that corresponds to the answer option of their choice. The questionnaire moves on to the next question when all the players have submitted their answer, when the timer has run out, or when the questionnaire organizer clicks the 'Skip' button. Next, there is a result screen, showing how many responses each option received, and, in *Quiz* and *Jumble*, a scoreboard that displays which one of the players has gained most points so far. When the questionnaire is finished, the results can be downloaded and saved for later investigation in a Microsoft Excel format.

There were several factors that motivated the use of *Kahoot!* as the platform of collecting data. Firstly, the advantages of online questionnaires mentioned above apply to *Kahoot!* immaculately; it is a timesaving, user-friendly platform for creating questionnaires and requires little effort from the questionnaire host, as all that is needed to create a *Kahoot!* questionnaire is to enter the questions and answer options into the platform, which are then automatically put into the *Kahoot!* questionnaire form, making the quiz ready for use immediately. Using the platform is also free of charge, as merely a free registration on the website is required to be able to create new surveys. Secondly, due to the interactive, game-like qualities of *Kahoot!*, it is a more engaging way for young pupils to participate in giving feedback, when compared to the more traditional pen and paper format. If printed out on paper, fifteen multiple-choice questions would have easily extended on several sheets, which might have caused the young respondents to be more reluctant and unmotivated to put great effort in answering the questions thoughtfully. This may have turned out to be a major threat to the reliability of the feedback, considering especially the occasion of giving feedback, which took place late in the afternoon, meaning the pupils' energy level might have been low. Therefore, it might have been challenging for the pupils to focus on the plain sheets of paper, whereas the colourful layout of *Kahoot!* is more appealing, and its operational principle more interactive. Thirdly, as the content of the material package concentrated on the theme of games, *Kahoot!* complemented the whole teaching experiment nicely by continuing this theme. This enabled naturally connecting giving feedback to what the pupils had been working on during the teaching experiment, which prevented the feedback questionnaire from appearing an irrelevant, tiresome burden, a too great of an alteration in mood as opposed to the previous activities.

There is, however, a number of limitations to using *Kahoot!* as a way of collecting data from participants, which should be carefully acknowledged before employing it as means of collecting data for an academic research. Perhaps the most restrictive of them is that the platform allows only four answer options to be entered in. This being the case, if the questionnaire host wants to use the Likert scale in the questionnaire, the 'neutral' option must be omitted from the answer options, which limits the number of accurate response options, although at the same time it prevents "opinionless" responses which offer little information to the researcher. Likewise, there is no possibility of choosing more than one answer option, which, on one hand provides the respondents fewer options to express their opinion, but, on the other hand, forces the respondent to truly consider their answers. Furthermore, regarding different question types, *Kahoot!* only supports multiple choice questions, meaning open ended questions cannot be utilized in this format. Another drawback with *Kahoot!* is that the respondents cannot go back to the previous question to change their answer afterwards, which may cause false responses, as the possibility of accidentally tapping the "wrong" button is high when using a touch-screen device, which is the most favoured device for using *Kahoot!* questionnaires. Similarly, the lack of this feature turns out problematic in the case where the respondents may change their opinion on something as the questionnaire progresses but are, thus, unable to edit their answer. Neither is it possible to postpone answering a question to give it more thought and return to answer it later, as the respondents are forced to answer the questions in the order they are presented in the platform. The time limit feature of the platform may cause problems as well; although the longest available time limit option (120 seconds) should be enough time to choose the answer that best presents the respondents' thoughts about the matter in question, there may be respondents who need more time for the deeper consideration some questions may require. Therefore, these sorts of questions should preferably be avoided in *Kahoot!* questionnaires. Finally, as the respondents must enter a player name into the game to be able to participate in the quiz, the lack of anonymity is a considerable flaw in using *Kahoot!* to collect data for an academic research. However, this problem can be avoided by ordering the respondents to use, for example, a random sequence of numbers as their player name instead of a recognizable nickname.

6.11.1 The questions and the results

When utilizing a questionnaire as means of collecting data, it is essential to consider what it is that the questionnaire is intended to survey. Regarding this, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009: 5) list three different questionnaire question types, classified based on the type of data the questions are supposed to gather: factual, behavioural, and attitudinal questions. Of these, factual questions are used to gather demographic information about the participants, such as their age, gender, residential location and occupation, in addition to any other background information that might be significant regarding the results of the study. Behavioural questions, on the other hand, deal with the participants' actions, habits, and lifestyle prior to taking the questionnaire. The third question type, attitudinal questions, are concerned about the attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values of the participants, which is why attitudinal questions was the primary question type in the questionnaire of the present study, as the objective of the questionnaire was to find out how the participants felt about the activities used in the teaching experiment.

The questionnaire in the present study consisted of fifteen questions of which all were attitudinal questions, as their objective is to survey the participants' attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values towards the subject of the questionnaire. The questions centred around, firstly, how the activities were perceived by the participants in relation to motivation, learning, and the theme of the materials, and secondly, how the practical qualities of the written instructions of the tasks were regarded in terms of length and intelligibility. Moreover, specific questions on how the participants felt about particular activities were included in the questionnaire. Eight of the fifteen questions were structured in a Likert-type scale (Table 3).

In the remaining seven questions, the response options were more free-form. These questions dealt with the practical matters of the activities: the appropriateness of the difficulty level of the activities, the language and length of the task instructions, the appropriateness of the time used in the tasks, the physical appearance of the materials, the usefulness of the implementation of collaborative roles, and the usefulness of the auxiliary vocabulary lists that were given to the groups alongside the task instructions.

Table 3. Motivation, support to learning, interest towards the theme and opinions of the tasks

	Agree	Somewhat agree	Somewhat disagree	Disagree
The activities were motivating.	2	5	1	0
The activities supported my learning of English.	4	4	0	0
I was interested in the theme of the material (games).	4	1	3	0
I liked Task 2.	3	3	0	2
I liked Task 3.	5	3	0	0
I liked the brainstorming activity.	2	3	1	2
Making our own games was fun.	4	3	0	1
Trying out the other groups' games was fun.	5	0	2	1

In terms of the degree of difficulty of the activities and the length of the instructions, six out of eight participants found both appropriate. Similarly, six out of eight participants thought the task instructions were easily understandable. As for the appearance of the material, all the participants found it either "nice-looking" (three out of eight) or "okay-looking" (five out of eight), the other response options being "boring" and "some were nice-looking, some were boring". A more notable division among pupils could be detected when asked about the time used in performing the tasks, as four participants thought that the time-use was appropriate, two pupils felt it was not enough, and other two chose the option claiming that too much time was spent on some activities while more time could have been spent on others.

When asked about whether the roles were perceived as useful, two participants replied 'yes' and two 'no', while a majority (four participants) were uncertain. Of the vocabulary lists that accompanied the activity instructions in the teaching experiment, four pupils found them useful, two pupils admitted they could have managed without them, and two pupils admit to not having noticed such lists in the first place.

7 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Collaborative learning in the material package

Collaborative learning and its subclasses provide the central pedagogic aspect for the present teaching material package. Most visibly this can be seen on the task level, as most of the activities featured in it were inspired by traditional collaborative learning activities, such as the ones presented by Barkley et. al. (2014) and Crandall (1999). Each activity serves a different purpose in promoting collaboration between pupils, gradually processing from briefer discussion activities to more extended ones where students create content together. To be more specific, the first three tasks concentrate on practicing skills that are essential in collaborative learning, such as negotiating and reciprocity, while the rest focus chiefly on the key elements of cooperative learning presented by Johnson and Johnson (1999), with an emphasis on positive interdependence, face-to-face-promotive interaction and interpersonal skills, without neglecting individual accountability and group processing.

Positive identity interdependence is one of the nine types of positive interdependence. The term refers to the utilisation of, for instance, a name or a motto to create a sense of shared identity among the group members (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 77). Therefore, the goal in Task 1 of the material package is for the pupils to choose a name for their group. To emphasize the importance of group consensus as one of the elements collaborative activities should possess (Gerlach 1994: 12), the task is restricted by the requirement that every member of the group must approve of the name the group decides on. In addition, this limitation should avert the more dominant voices in the group from trampling the quiet ones, thus offer everyone an equal opportunity to state their opinion. This is the objective of Task 2 as well, which was inspired by a traditional collaborative learning activity Talking Chips, as presented in Barkley et. al. (2014: 170-174). While Talking Chips in Barkley et. al. (2014) does not specify how pupils should take their floors in terms of length and content, such restrictions were considered necessary in the present material package, as the target groups' experience of this type of activity is, supposedly, slight. Therefore, it is pointed out in the instructions that each floor should contain at least one or two whole

sentences, excluding phrases such as ‘I don’t know’ or ‘I don’t care’ that fail to keep the discussion going.

The idea for Task 3 arose from the collaborative graphic organizer activity Affinity Grouping (Barkley et. al. 2014: 263-267), with a few notable differences. In Affinity Grouping, pupils themselves provide the content of the activity by writing down their ideas about a given topic on slips of paper, which are then organized into categories by the pupils as a group effort. However, in Task 3 of the present material package, the material is ready-made for the pupils, while the organising stage is further developed in comparison to Affinity Grouping. The collaborative element of this activity lies with the organisation of information; while most of the games featured in the activity should be recognized by the pupils, the descriptions are intentionally cryptic to make the game more challenging, meaning the pupils must rely on their shared knowledge of games to complete the task.

Positive role interdependence is another one of the nine types of positive interdependence fulfilled in the present material package. In cooperative groups, it is important that every group member is aware of what is expected from them and how they must do to fulfil these expectations, for cooperative learning is successful only when every group member contributes in the tasks and completes their part of the workload. To ensure this, group members can be assigned with specific roles according to which they are to act during the cooperative tasks (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 77). For this purpose, Task 4 features role cards, partially adapted from the roles suggested by Kujansivu (2002: 211) as well as from the cooperative group activities available on the online teaching resources DailyTeachingTools.com, ran by an American language arts and journalism teacher Chad Manis (2012), and ReadWriteThink.org (2017). ReadWriteThink.org is a nonprofit website maintained by the International Literacy Association and the National Council of Teachers of English, with support from the Verizon Foundation. However, implementing roles in collaborative learning is a process that takes time and systematic practicing (Kujansivu 2002: 210). Therefore, this element should not be expected to function flawlessly at once; this was confirmed in the teaching experiment, where the participants eventually neglected their roles. Although the idea of roles is that pupils regularly switch between different roles, Kujansivu (2011: 210) recommends that each pupil is assigned with only one role in the

initial phase of enforcing this element. While the workload in these two tasks may be divided between the group members so that some of them start working on Task 6 while others concentrate more on Step 2 of Task 5, it should be emphasised that neither the making of the end product nor of the final presentation are on the responsibility of one pupil, but the result of a shared effort. That is, if one pupil confronts a problem while performing that task or tasks they were assigned with, they should consult their fellow group members to solve it. This contributes to the relations between positive interdependence and individual accountability; each group member is obligated to take charge of their own area of responsibility as well as to make sure the other group members successfully accomplish their assignments and to help them if needed (Johnson and Johnson 1999: 81).

Task 5 is divided in two steps, of which Step 1 was designed according to one of the most well-known collaborative learning techniques; Round Robin (see, e.g. Barkley et. al. 2014: 159-163; Crandall 1999: 230-231). More specifically, this task is a Round Table activity, as in, a paper-and-pen version of Round Robin which is carried out orally. Similar to the Talking Buttons activity in Step 1 of Task 2, Round Table promotes equal participation among the participants, offering everyone an opportunity to contribute to the matter in question. Moreover, it is an effective way of creating a continuous flow of ideas without any distractions or interruptions (Barkley et. al. 159).

The final activity consists of the groups introducing the end products of their projects to the other groups, using the presentations made in Task 6 (see Table 2). This is an undeveloped form of reciprocal teaching, a collaborative technique that involves pupils teaching their peers who then further convey the knowledge they just gained to other fellow learners. This promotes both positive interdependence as well as individual accountability, as the pupils are in charge of their peers' understanding of the subject matter in question as well as of their own.

Extra Task 2 is a modified version of the Jigsaw activity (see Table 1 in ch. 2.5), and its pedagogical aim is to have pupils take responsibility of their own learning to the extent that

they study their own area of responsibility so thoroughly that they can tell their peers about it in such a way that helps them form a coherent whole of the text even though they do not have first-hand knowledge about it (Barkley et. al. 2014: 212). Extra Task 3 was inspired by survival exercises, of which one of the most popular versions is the NASA Exercise: Survival on the Moon (1999). In the exercise, one has crashed their spaceship on the moon and has a set of various equipment essential for their survival of which they must decide which are the most important ones and which are less important, and then compare their ranking to NASA experts' ranking. These types of exercises are often used for team-building. The purpose of this extra task is to practice interpersonal and small group skills, which, as Johnson and Johnson (1999: 83) point out, are essential for accomplishing the tasks assigned for the group. A successful completion of the task requires negotiation and making compromises in order to create a ranking on which every group member can agree.

On a more general level, the present material package attempts to meet many of the characteristics of collaborative learning outlined in chapter 2.3. For instance, the notions Gerlach (1994: 12) has made regarding group consensus and student roles are, for the most parts, present in the material package. Group consensus is accomplished by having students negotiate and hear everyone's opinions before taking action, and student roles become an essential element of the later activities, as pointed out above. The successfulness of the project and especially of the collaborative process is assessed by students after the project has come to its end, using the self-evaluation form found at the 'Additional material' section of the material package. Teacher evaluation, however, is omitted, as the idea of the material package is to allow students to enjoy working on the tasks without the stress of being evaluated, a supposedly welcome change to grade-oriented studying that is dominant throughout the academic year. As for student-centeredness, which several educationalists specialised in collaborative learning, such as Tinzmann et. al. (1990) and Smith and MacGregor (1992), demand from collaborative procedures, the present material package puts the pupils in the centre of action. Almost all interaction involved in performing the tasks occurs between pupils, while the role of the teacher is minimised to that of "advisor" or "facilitator". Instead of the teacher telling the pupils what they should do, pupils are given the freedom to decide what their end product consists of and how they should realise it.

7.2 Project-based learning in the material package

Another central pedagogical methodology behind the material package is project-based learning. As pointed out above in chapter 3.3, the extent to which the activities in the present material package can be classified as representatives of PjBL is open to various interpretations. On one hand, the strictest characterisations such as Thomas's (2000) do not, admittedly, offer the kind of criteria that applies to these activities; on the other hand, they meet most of the six requirements Stoller (1997) lists. Particularly the first three points she mentions are closely related to the activities in this material package. Firstly, it is evident that the activities focus more on content than on any area of language skills. Secondly, the activities are designed in such a way that they make the pupils as the centre of action and the teacher's intervention is required mainly when the pupils encounter a problem or need clarification in terms of the instructions. Thirdly, as is evident from the discussion above, the activities promote collaboration between of learners, instead of competitiveness.

Additionally, the material package corresponds sufficiently at least to some of the five qualities listed by Krajcik et. al. (1994: 486). Although it may be questionable to consider the designing of a game for an imaginary gaming convention a real-life issue, it is noteworthy that the groups are asked to think of a real-life audience for their game and, consequently, design their game accordingly. Therefore, pupils will design games that are functional outside the context of the current project. For example, one of the groups in the teaching experience for the present study created a game for practicing vocabulary for English teaching in grades 3-6 in the Finnish basic education, for which purpose it was eventually used in an authentic classroom situation. The authenticity factor demanded by Kracjik et. al. (1994) and Reeves et. al. (2002), is, thus, fulfilled satisfactorily. Pupils are also required to use various cognitive tools during the project, such as planning, systematic working, and comparing different options. Krajcik et. al.'s (1994) list also mentions constructive investigation, which, admittedly, does not have a major role in the project, although students may exploit internet and other resources while creating their products, and as the authors note, mere offering of the opportunity to investigate is adequate.

7.3 The material package in accordance with the intended target audience

The material package was developed with teenage learners as the primary target audience. As pointed out in chapter 5, it is important to teenagers that they can make use of the knowledge and skills they have gained from their past experiences in the learning assignments they are given at school. At the same time, the assignments should be challenging enough so that development could occur. Therefore, the activities in the current material package are designed so that pupils are able to retrieve their existing knowledge and skills; for instance, in Task 3 pupils can demonstrate the knowledge they have gained of games during their free time. The challenge that should assist pupils in building up their abilities is in Task 5, where the groups design and create their own games. In general, by combining school activities with the theme of games, which is typically associated with leisure activities, the material package attempts to illustrate the significance of informal learning, which is also a major cornerstone of teaching teenagers.

The current material package functions best in paper version; thus, it seemingly fails to correspond to the abilities and interests of the "digital natives" that are the teenagers of the 21st century. This issue has not been completely neglected, however, as in some of the activities (e.g. Tasks 5 and 6), pupils have the opportunity to use mobile devices and the internet for research or for visual effects. Developing simple computer games using free online game makers is also an option for Task 5, given it will not require more time than what is reserved for completing the projects.

Globalization and multiple different Englishes spoken around the world (alongside native Englishes) is also something that affects language teaching in the 21st century, as mentioned in chapter 5. To support this development, the activities in the present material package intend to promote the kind of language use that is as natural as possible. In practice, this means that pupils are not given any specific language models at which they should aim, but are, instead, encouraged to use the language according to their level of proficiency. For this reason, pupils are not assessed by their language performance during the project (see ch. 6.7).

7.4 Discussion of results of the feedback questionnaire

For the most parts, the feedback the material package received from the pupils who participated in the teaching experiment was positive. Due to a few absences, feedback could not be collected from all the pupils who participated in the teaching experiment; however, based on my own observations during the experiment, the results from the feedback questionnaire reflect the attitudes and the behaviour the activities invoked in the participants somewhat accurately. The sampling is small; hence, no great generalisations can be made based on the results of the questionnaire. Since there is little dispersion in the results, they are, nevertheless, indicative of how the material is perceived by the intended target audience and offered, thus, valuable information for the further development of the material.

It must be admitted that some of the questions featured in the questionnaire may have suffered from insufficient or vague answer options. For example, in the fourth question regarding the degree of difficulty of the tasks, there are only three options to choose from: 'too difficult', 'too easy', and 'sufficient'. Although omitting the so-called neutral option ('some were too difficult, some too easy') ensures that the participants express a clear opinion on the degree of difficulty of the tasks, in some cases it might have been the more accurate response than 'sufficient' which was thought to be neutral enough to cover all the neutral alternatives. Furthermore, if the participants were allowed to choose this alternative neutral option, it would have been too uninformative unless the participants were required to elaborate on the subject by specifying which activities they perceived as too difficult and which ones too easy. This could have been executed with separate handouts in which the participants could have evaluated the degree of difficulty of each task by, for instance, grading them using semantic differential scales. However, as these types of questionnaires cannot be performed on *Kahoot!*, and interrupting the *Kahoot!* questionnaire to fill in a paper form would have unnecessarily extended the duration of the questionnaire, it was found that my own observations of how much time and effort the pupils put in the tasks would be sufficient for estimating their degree of difficult. Moreover, considering that the questionnaire results were not the main data for the present study, a more general overview

of how the activities were perceived regarding the degree of difficulty was thought to be adequate.

7.5 Conclusion

In the light of the discussion above, the present material package has the potential to fulfil its aim as a promoter of collaborative learning in EFL teaching in the Finnish comprehensive school. As its functionality was verified in an authentic EFL classroom context, it is likely to offer a fruitful activity unit for various types of classrooms, both for the ones that are not yet familiar with the principles of the pedagogical ideas that the material package supports, as well as for the classrooms where collaborative learning, project-learning, or content-based instruction are already implemented. As no teaching material is perfect, this one, too, comes with its own flaws and challenges, and its compatibility with *all* kinds of learner groups cannot, naturally, be guaranteed. Teachers should, therefore, evaluate the needs and qualities of their classrooms before making the decision to bring *SpringCon* into play. In the best-case scenario, *SpringCon* will bring the classroom closer together as pupils – and teachers – learn about what collaborative learning is and how it is an essential learning procedure in all our lives.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Research permission form to the guardians of the participants

Hei,

Opiskelen Jyväskylän yliopistossa englannin kielen opettajaksi ja teen osana pro gradu -tutkielmaani oppimateriaalipakettia englannin kielen oppiaineelle. Materiaalipakettiin liittyen tulen suorittamaan opetuskokeilun, jossa kokeilen suunnittelemiani tehtäviä käytännössä. Opetuskokeilu toteutetaan 8. lk:n englannin tunneilla 22.-26.5. (vk 21), osana normaalia englannin kielen opetusta. Materiaalipakettini pedagogisena lähtökohtana on yhteistoiminnallinen oppiminen, ja sen tavoitteena on tarjota englannin kielen opettajille tehtäväpaketti erityisesti lukuvuoden loppupuolen englannin opetukseen. Tutkimusaineistoni tulee koostumaan oppilaiden tunneilla työstämistä materiaaleista, oppilailta kerättävästä nimettömästä palautteesta, sekä omista muistiinpanoistani, joiden tukena tulen hyödyntämään tunneilla otettuja kuvia ja videonpätkiä oppilaiden työskentelystä. Tutkimukseen osallistuminen ei vaikuta oppilaiden arviointiin millään tavalla.

Tutkijana sitoudun noudattamaan voimassa olevia tutkimusaineiston säilyttämiseen ja tietosuojalainsäädäntöön (mm. salassapitosäädökset) liittyviä ohjeita. Tutkimukseen osallistuvien oppilaiden nimiä tai muita henkilökohtaisia tietoja tai koulun nimeä ei mainita tutkielmassa eikä niihin viitata tunnistettavasti. Tunneilla kuvattuja videoita ei tulla esittämään missään, mutta osaa tunneilla otetuista kuvista saatetaan käyttää tutkielmani yhteydessä. Oppilaat eivät kuitenkaan esiinny kuvissa tunnistettavasti eikä heidän nimiään mainita. Tutkielmani valmistuu vuoden 2017 loppuun mennessä.

Pyydän teitä täyttämään ja palauttamaan alla olevan tutkimuslupalomakkeen viimeistään **pe 5.5.2017** myös siinä tapauksessa, että oppilas ei saa lupaa osallistua tutkimukseen, mutta osallistuu normaalisti englannin tunnille. Tällöin jätän kaikki oppilasta koskevat tiedot pois tutkimuksesta. Mikäli haluatte lisätietoja, annan niitä mielelläni (yhteystiedot alla).

Kevätterveisin,
Reeta Holm
x@x.x

TUTKIMUSLUPA

Viimeinen palautuspäivä **pe 5.5.2017**

Oppilaan nimi

_____

	KYLLÄ	EI
Huollettavani saa osallistua tutkimukseen		
Huollettavani työskentelystä tunnilla saa ottaa kuvia		
Tunneilla otettuja kuvia saa julkaista opinnäytetyössä anonymisoituina		
Huollettavani työskentelyä tunnilla saa videoida		

_____ _____

Huoltajan allekirjoitus ja nimenselvennys Paikka ja aika

Appendix 2. Transcription of the feedback questionnaire in *Kahoot!*

Q1 Tehtävät olivat motivoivia.

- Samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- Eri mieltä

Q2 Tehtävät tukivat englannin kielen oppimistani.

- Samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- Eri mieltä

Q3 Tehtävien aihe (pelit) kiinnosti minua.

- Samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- Eri mieltä

Q4 Tehtävät olivat tasoltaan…

- liian vaikeita
- liian helppoja (olisin kaivannut lisää haastetta)
- sopivia

Q5 Tehtävänannot olivat…

- helposti ymmärrettäviä
- tarpeeksi ymmärrettäviä
- jokseenkin vaikeaselkoisia
- vaikeaselkoisia

Q6 Tehtävänannot olivat…

△ liian lyhyitä (en ymmärtänyt, mitä piti tehdä)

◇ sopivan pituisia (asia tuli selväksi)

○ liian pitkiä (en jaksanut lukea loppuun asti)

□ jotkut liian pitkiä, jotkut liian lyhyitä

Q7 Tehtävien tekemiseen käytettiin aikaa…

△ sopivasti

◇ liian vähän

○ liian paljon

□ joihinkin liian vähän, joihinkin liian paljon

Q8 Tunnilla käytetyt materiaalit (kirjeet, kortit, ym.) olivat ulkonäöltään…

△ kivannäköisiä

◇ ihan ok

○ tylsiä

□ jotkut kivannäköisiä, jotkut tylsiä

Q9 I liked ”nappitehtävästä” [Task 2].

△ Samaa mieltä

◇ Jokseenkin samaa mieltä

○ Jokseenkin eri mieltä

□ Eri mieltä

Q10 Pidin tehtävästä, jossa yhdisteltiin pelien nimiä ja kuvauksia [Task 3].

△ Samaa mieltä

◇ Jokseenkin samaa mieltä

○ Jokseenkin eri mieltä

□ Eri mieltä

Q11 Pidin braingstorming-tehtävästä [Task 5, Step 1].

△ Samaa mieltä

◇ Jokseenkin samaa mieltä

○ Jokseenkin eri mieltä

- Eri mieltä

Q12 Oliko ”rooleista” mielestäsi hyötyä?

- kyllä
- ei
- en osaa sanoa
- en ymmärtänyt roolien tarkoitusta

Q13 Mitä mieltä olit kirjekuorien mukana tulleista apusanastoista?

- Niistä oli minulle hyötyä (auttoivat ymmärtämään tekstiä)
- Olisin pärjännyt ilmankin
- Sanastot olisivat voineet olla vielä laajempia
- Ai oliko siellä jotain sanastojakin?

Q14 Oman pelin suunnittelu oli hauskaa.

- Samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- Eri mieltä

Q15 Toisten ryhmien tekemiä pelejä oli hauska kokeilla.

- Samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin samaa mieltä
- Jokseenkin eri mieltä
- Eri mieltä

Appendix 3. ***SpringCon: A collaborative teaching material package for EFL teaching***

A COLLABORATIVE TEACHING MATERIAL PACKAGE FOR EFL TEACHING

GRADES 7-9

REETA HOLM
reeta.m.holm@gmail.com

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1 FOREWORD

Dear EFL teacher,

You know the feeling: it's mid-May, the exams are over, the final grades have been given, and the course books have been read and filled in from cover to cover, but there are still a few classes left before the summer holidays begin. What is the EFL teacher to do to keep everyone satisfied? Even suggesting grammar revision will most likely be confronted with strong protests, but watching cat videos on the internet is, well, irrelevant. Understandably, neither the pupils nor the teachers want to start working on anything too extensive that would potentially be left unfinished. If only there was an activity package that was easily executed, entertaining, motivational, and somehow related to the target language without resembling regular foreign language studying too much to be resisted by the pupils…

I've got good news for you: there is, right here!

SpringCon: A collaborative teaching material package for EFL teaching has been designed to fulfil all your post-assessment EFL teaching needs – and more. The subtitle gives it away; the pedagogical approach behind this material package is collaborative learning and its sub-branches, meaning your pupils will be working with each other in small groups, because shared joy of achievement is a double joy! With a pinch of project-based learning, spiced with content-based instruction as the instructional method, this material package is a versatile and, hopefully, engaging tool for EFL teaching in grades 7-9 for teachers who wish to activate their pupils during the final weeks of the school year by carrying out a light small-scale project in the target language. The project will take the pupils on a journey to the world of games where they will eventually become the game

designers of their own life and finally present the fruits of their labour in the gaming event ***SpringCon*** the class will hold together as the grand finale of the project. The material package contains six major tasks (and three extra tasks) that gradually introduce pupils to the central themes of the material package, both the pedagogical one and the content. Through these tasks, students are expected to:

- ★ learn and practice collaborative working methods,
- ★ learn what it takes to work collaboratively,
    - e.g. taking responsibility of their peers' learning as well as of their own learning, "giving and taking", negotiation skills, interpersonal skills, solidarity, problem and conflict solving, decision-making…
- ★ learn new vocabulary,
- ★ practice their existing English language skills in speaking, writing, reading and listening.

The material package has been designed so that it is the pupils who are in the centre of all action and mostly in charge of the decisions made during the project. No time will be used on giving lectures or asking everyone to be quiet for the billionth time so that everyone will hear the instructions; the tasks will be given to each group individually (on paper if possible) and once they are finished with one tasks, they will immediately be given a new one. This way, the groups can advance from one task to another in their own pace, although it might be good to remind the pupils that this project is not a competition of who can complete the tasks the fastest. Your job as the teacher is to be the facilitator, the coordinator, the advice-giver, and, indeed, the occasional conflict-solver – everything else is on the responsibility of the pupils themselves, to the extent that is possible in each individual EFL classroom. If you take an hour or two of your time to prepare all the material beforehand, the best case scenario is that for the rest of the time, you can just sit back and relax while your class get absorbed in the activities.

To what extent you wish the class to execute the project is your own decision – yours, and the pupils'. However, this material package comes with a suggested time-use plan

and an equipment list to help you with lesson-planning, because pupils aren't the only ones in need of a break after the school year, are they? All the essential printouts designed specifically for this material package can be found in section 9: ***Additional material*** and a self-evaluation form in section 11, which pupils should fill in individually. To get you started with differentiation, I have compiled English-Finnish vocabulary lists of most of the tasks in section 10, and in the Master's Thesis that accompanies this material package (Holm 2018), you will find more suggestions on differentiation and on what kinds of adjustments may be made to alter the activities to best suit your unique EFL classroom. More detailed discussion of the material package regarding its pedagogical principles and the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education (POPS 2014) is also featured in said thesis.

I hope this material package will bring joy (and relief!) to both you and your class as you wait for the final moments of the academic year pass you by until you are off to your well-deserved summer vacations!

Welcome to ***SpringCon***!

Best regards,

Reeta Holm

2 TIME-USE PLAN (suggestion)

Preparation (printing the handouts, cutting the cards, etc.) 1-2 hours

It is recommended that all the material is prepared before the first period, as some groups may advance faster than others.

1. period (45 min.)

Task 1	5 min.
Task 2	5-10 min.
Task 3	20 min.
*Task 4 (optional)	5 min.

2. - 4. periods

Task 5	
Step 1	5-10 min.
Step 2	max. 60 min.
Task 6	max. 60 min.

5. period

SprinCon - acting out the convention	as long as needed
Extra tasks	10-15 min. (each)

NOTE!** The ***Congratulations letter is to be given in between Tasks 3 and 4. Task 4 may be done at the end of the first period or in the beginning of the second period, depending on the schedule.

3 EQUIPMENT LIST

- ★ Printouts of the tasks
- ★ Envelopes (optional)
  - Getting a new task in an envelope is exciting! Plus, giving all the material needed for a task in one envelope saves time and effort during the period.
  - **Task 4** is to be put in the same envelope with the ***Congratulations*** letter
  - **Tasks 5** and **6** can be put in the same envelope

Task 1

- ★ printable name tags (see ***Additional material***)
- ★ tape or Blue-tack

Task 2

- ★ buttons or other small items equivalent to poker chips

Task 3

- ★ game category handouts
- ★ game title cards
- ★ game description cards (see ***Additional material*** for all three)
- ★ tape or Blue-tack

Task 4

- ★ role fold cards (see ***Additional material***)

Tasks 5 and 6: making of the games and the presentations (suggestions)

- ★ arts and crafts equipment
  - scissors, glue, tape, coloured paper, cardboard, newspapers and magazines, coloured pencils and crayons...
- ★ game equipment
  - dice, game pieces, playing cards, picture cards, game boards, hourglasses and timers, pins and balls...
- ★ electronic devices (depending on availability)
  - laptops, tablets, cameras...
- ★ miscellaneous items that might be fun to use in the games
  - small toys, buttons, elastic bands, funny dresses and masks, bottle caps, plastic cups...

4 SYMBOLS EXPLAINED

Explanations for the symbols that appear on the pages of this material package.

TIP! Advice that should be helpful in performing the tasks.

Remember! A reminder about something that could easily be disregarded.

This task has a time challenge; the teacher or one member of the group will be taking time in these tasks. The time is specified next to this symbol.

Pay attention to this point, please!

There's more on the other side of the sheet. (When printed out, these sheets should be printed double-sided.)

5 FORMING GROUPS

How should the small-groups be formed?

To ensure that the essential prerequisites of collaborative learning are met, it is important that collaborative learning groups are as heterogeneous as possible (Tinzmann et. al. 1990). In practice, this usually means that instead of allowing pupils to group themselves according to their free will, it is the teacher who should assign the pupils into functional groups where the skills and knowledge of each individual complement each other.

How many pupils should there be in one group?

The recommended group size for these activities is four pupils per group, but groups of three and five are also acceptable and taken into account in the task instructions.

My pupils are heterogeneous already but I'm out of ideas for how to group them!

Try this card trick for forming groups of four:

- ★ Pick a number of traditional playing cards that corresponds to the number of students in your class. Make sure you have an equal amount of each suit.
- ★ Make each student draw one card randomly, face down.
- ★ Tell the students to form groups with the people who have cards of the same suit.
- ★ Alternatively, make students form groups so that everyone has a card of a different suit.

6 TASKS

Dear You,

Thank you for joining us today! We have something exciting planned for you, but before we get you started, your group needs a name. Here's what you should do:

3 minutes

What to do:

1. Make up a name for your group. (check out the ***TIP!***)
    a. Everyone in the group must be satisfied with the name!
2. Write the name down on the name tag.
3. Put the tag somewhere where your teacher and classmates can see it (tape it on the side of your table, for example)
4. Be quick: you have only 3 minutes to do this!

Remember! Keep the tag safe; you will need it later.

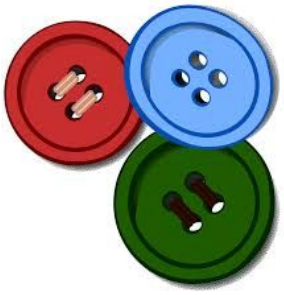
TIP! If you have trouble coming up with a name, you can think of some **games** you know to get some inspiration…

Best regards,

…You will find out soon!

Dear _____,
(write group name here)

What do you think of games? Let's try one! This is Talking Buttons.



How to play:

1. Take 5 buttons each. Put the leftover buttons aside.
2. Discuss the questions on the next page in English.
3. Every time you talk (at least 1-2 whole sentences), put one of your buttons in the centre of the table(s).
4. You **don't** have to answer all the questions at once → take turns in talking!
5. You are **not** allowed to...
    a. interrupt someone
    b. say "I don't know" or "I don't care" or something similar

    → if you do, you must take an extra button!
6. The game ends when everyone has given up their buttons.
7. Collect the buttons and ask for a new letter!

Best regards,

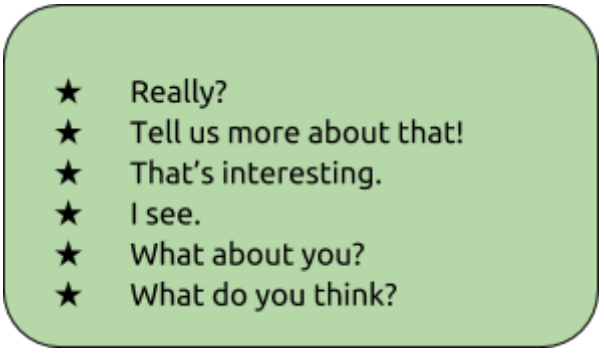
...We'll get back to you later!

task adapted from
Barkley, Major, and Cross (2014)

Questions:

- What is your favourite game? Why?
- What kind of game is it? Is it…
    - a board game?
    - a card game?
    - a yard game?
    - a video game?
    - a computer game?
    - a mobile app?
    - some other kind of game?
- How do you play it?
    - What do you do in the game? What are the rules? Do you play it alone or with someone? How many people can play it at once? etc.

TIP! You can use these phrases to keep the conversation going! You don't need to give up a button if you say any of these.



Dear _____,
(write group name here)

How well do you know games? Could you be the people we are looking for? Let's find out! Please read Step 1 and Step 2 before you begin.

Best regards,

...Not long 'til you know who we are!

You need:

- 1 deck of game title cards
- 1 deck of text cards
- 5 sheets of paper titled Yard games, Board games, Card games, Video games/ computer games/online games/mobile apps, and Other games
- tape or Blue-tack

Step 1

1. Put the sheets with the game types on the table so that everyone can see them.
2. Take the game title cards and scatter them on the table.
3. Take the text cards and put them in a pile on the table.
4. Take turns in picking up a text card and reading it out loud to your group.
5. Find the game that fits the description you just read and put the cards next to each other.
6. If you get stuck, put the card aside and take a new one. Remember to help each other!

Step 2

1. When you have found all the pairs, discuss in your groups:
   → What kinds of games are they? How or where do you play them?
2. Use the tape or Blu-Tack to attach the games under the correct titles.
3. Ask the teacher to come and check. When you have all the cards in the right places, you'll get a new letter.

TIP! Some of the games may fall into more than one category

task adapted from
Barkley, Major, and Cross (2014)

Congratulations!

Well done, You passed our test! You have shown impeccable ability to work together, and impressive expertise and interest towards games. Only the most knowledgeable and skilled game enthusiasts are invited to...

SpringCon is an international gaming convention, where game designers from all around the world join together to present their games and play the games others have designed.

We are proud to invite Your team to join us this year!
For this, we are asking You to **design your very own game**.

But first, we need to know You are ready this challenge: to get more instructions on what to do, you must first complete **Task 4**.

The convention will start on _____, from _____ onwards.

There, You will present your games to other game designers, and You will also get to try out theirs!

See you there!

The SpringCon team:

Mario Plumberson, Executive Director

Mari Kannerla, Technology Manager

Tara Crop, Coordinator

Rich Uncle Pencepocket, Sponsor

5 minutes

Designing a game is team-work! Everyone in the group has an important role in the project, and when everyone fulfills his/her role, the game will be ready in no time.

What to do:

1. Read the role cards.
2. Decide who takes which role.
3. Take the role card assigned to you and try your best to do the things in the role description for the rest of the project! The emojis will guide you.
   a. **If you are a group of 3:** One of you takes two roles, for example the Time Keeper and the Checker, OR everyone is an Equipment Master
   b. **If you are a group of 4:** Use the four roles below.
   c. **If you are a group of 5:** One of you is the Investigator (the optional role)
4. Ask for Tasks 5 and 6!

The Roles:

The Equipment Master

The Time Keeper

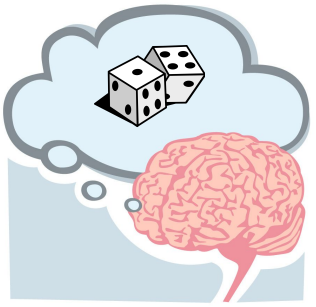
The Checker

The Recorder

Optional: The Investigator

Remember! Taking on your role properly is important, but you should still remember to help each other too.

How to get started? Let's do some brainstorming!



5 minutes (Step 1)

Step 1:

1. Read the questions below
2. Pass around the paper and write down your thoughts
    a. One sentence / phrase / word is enough!
    b. You DON'T need to answer all the questions in one go
3. Keep passing the paper until no one has anything more to add (max. 5 minutes)
4. Move on to Step 2 (turn the paper)

Remember! This is only brainstorming; you don't need to decide anything yet.

What kind of game would you like to make?

How do you play it? Where? With who?

Step 2:

1. Read what everyone has written
2. Discuss the suggestions
3. Decide what kind of game you would like to make
4. **Start working!**
    - Make/find the equipment you need to play the game (for example: a playing board, cards, pins, balls, sticks, dice, hourglass/timer, paper, cardboard, a laptop…)
    - Ask the teacher if you need any special items

- **Read <u>Task 6</u> →** some of you can already start with Task 6 while others are working on the game

Remember! The game should be finished by the time the convention starts.

Remember! In English, please! SpringCon is an international gaming convention. That's why any speaking or writing in your game should be in English.

TIP! We at SpringCon understand that coming up with innovative ideas can be tough. But we have good news: you don't need to make up a completely new game from scratch! You can also just modify a game that already exists. For example...

- Blind Mölkky: like Mölkky but with your eyes closed
- The Star of Finland: like Afrikan Tähti but on the map of Finland/Europe/your hometown..
- Jumping jack UNO: like Uno but every time someone gives you the +4 card, you can either take 4 cards or do 20 jumping jacks

Or combine two games!

- Twister meets Trivial Pursuit: collect all the colours, but don't fall over!
- Table Hockey Chess: a combination of chess and table hockey? Go wild!

At SpringCon, you will get to present your game to other exhibitors and visitors.
But how? It's up to you!

What to do:

Make **a short, simple presentation** where you tell about your game.
For example:

- The name of the game
- How to play: the rules of the game
  - How does the game begin?
  - What is the object of the game?
  - Does something happen if you break the rules?
- What (items) do you need to play the game?
- Where can you play the came?
- How many people can play at once?
- Do you play in teams, alone, one against one..?
- What is the target group?
  - Age of the players?
  - Who are the players? You and your friends, your younger siblings, your grandparents, your teachers, your dog..?

} IMPORTANT!!

TIP! The presentation can be

- a PowerPoint presentation
- a poster
- something else; what?
- a video
- an audio

Remember! The presentation should be finished by the time the convention starts.

Remember! In English, please! SpringCon is an international gaming convention.
That's why your presentation must be in English.

7 SLIDESHOW: WHAT HAPPENS AT SPRINGCON

This slideshow is intended to be used when it is time to get the convention together. It includes the instructions for setting up the convention “stands” and how to proceed from there. It can be found behind this link:

https://www.slideshare.net/secret/1Hs3e3rTQO7Hnx

8 EXTRA TASKS

Dear _____,
(write group name here)

Designing a game is one step closer to becoming an exhibitor at SpringCon. But how to attract visitors and other game-designers to come and play your game?
Well, with a fun-looking poster, of course!

What to include in the poster (examples):

- The name of the game
- The name of your group
- Pictures and/or drawings
- A cool catchphrase

Remember! Stick to your roles!





Dear _____,
(write group name here)

SpringCon is a one of a kind gaming convention, but not by any means the only one. Over a hundred gaming conventions of different themes and scale are held every year around the world; like ABCon, an African Board Game Convention in Nigeria! Read what a Nigerian board game developer Kenechukwu Ogbuagu KC tells about ABCon and himself.

What to do:

1. Everyone reads the first paragraph
2. Read the text paragraphs assigned to you → follow the role icons!
    a. If your team doesn't have all of the roles, everyone reads that paragraph.
3. Answer the questions and get ready to explain what you read to the rest of the group, either in Finnish or in English in your own words.

Remember! Don't worry if you're not sure what the interviewer or the interviewee are talking about; your fellow group members will fill you in.

Interview: African Board Game Convention (ABCon)

(Everyone reads:)

The African Board Game Convention (ABCon) is back for the second year in a row. Run out of the heart of Nigeria, it's the first of its kind in a region lacking a gaming community of any kind. Kenechukwu Ogbuagu KC, a local developer and the organizer of the con, is running an IndieGoGo campaign to support the free event. He recently spoke to us about his passion for gaming, what it takes to develop a board game with no resources, and why conventions like ABCon are important to the future of the country.

Tell us a bit about who you are! What do you do? What games do you make?

My name is Kenechukwu Ogbuagu KC. I am a 24 years old board game designer from Nigeria. Since 2013 when I first sketched my first game, I have gone on to publish 7 games, been accepted as a Board Game Designer on BGG, organized several free board game activities, and recently been accepted as a puzzle columnist for a Nigerian Daily newspaper.

Designing games for me is about telling a story in a fun way. And that defines the games I make. I try to share my experiences as a Nigerian - as an African. I love games that involve almost both an equal amount of chance and choice.

What's your favourite board game, and what do you love about it?

The truth is I haven't really played a lot of games and this is because of a lack of accessibility. However, I have gotten some games from really nice people. As much as I love every one of them, *Tiny Epic Kingdom* took me to another realm. The mechanics were superb and it opened me up to more possibilities about gaming. I love the art too.

Is there a strong board game scene in Africa? Are there regular players and meetups?

I am sure there are really amazing board game scene in South Africa as well as East Africa. However, it's very low - almost invisible in Nigeria and at large, West Africa.

Questions:

1. Mitkä ovat Kenechukwun meriitit pelisuunnittelijana?
2. Mitä pelien tekeminen merkitsee hänelle?
3. Millainen on Kenechukwun lempilautepeli? Voit käyttää Googlea lisätiedon etsimiseen.
4. Miten Kenechukwu kuvailee lautapeliskeneä?

How do you get your games made with so few resources?

First it's difficult. No, very difficult. However, the drive and hunger to tell stories really sustain me. I put in everything I have. I make lots of mistakes building boxes or prototypes. I spend a lot of time on the internet watching YouTube and reading about games and how to make them.

I also have a very nice group of people that are crazy as I am. We mess everywhere up with papers and gums.

Why did you decide to start the African Board Games Convention?

#ABCon was a necessity. I started out wanting to share stories and link people to the amazing world of board gaming. But talking wasn't enough. Even selling games wasn't.

I needed to show them. To make them meet new people and play games with them. I needed to show Nigerians more games than the regular 7 games in the Nigerian markets.

I wanted to tell them that boardgames could be used to tell stories and facilitate learning.

And finally, I wanted to tell the world that we are good gamers too and we would love to join the community as well as present our stories and our narratives through board gaming.

What kind of people attended the convention last year, and who are you hoping to see this year?

Last year was our first and frankly, we were not expecting much. However, we had different people from different part of Nigeria, diplomats (it was hosted in Abuja, the capital of Nigeria) and colleagues from work.

This year, we are planning a much bigger event after so many feedbacks from last year's. We are expecting 1000 people to participate in a 12 hour non-stop gaming experience.

Questions:

1. Mikä inspiroi Kenechukwua suunnittelemaan pelejä vähäisilläkin resursseilla?
2. Mikä innosti häntä järjestämään ABConin?
3. Ketä ABConissa kävi edellisvuonna?
4. Millaista tämän vuotisesta tapaamisesta odotetaan?

What games will be available for play?

We have over ten games sent from Europe, Asia, Australia and America.

We also have our own games (7 already published games, 2 new games and 5 prototypes).

One of our objectives is to give people as many options as possible.

What's been your favourite response when you've introduced a new person to board gaming?

Wow! It's just so pure. I have seen people marvel when I tell them that there are literally up to one million games.

I have witnessed the laughter when people are playing a whole new game that they have never seen before. Those moments are magical and I want to see that continue on a larger scale.

You've spoken about your desire for board games to create jobs and be a force for good in your region - what do you see in the future? Game shops? Education?

Nigeria is made of over 200 million people. 60% of whom are young people. And so unemployment is a big issue.

Board games have the potential to create as many jobs as possible - starting with 15 thousand.

The future of board gaming in Nigeria has just started. Personally, my company's - NIBCARD NIG LTD - objective is to introduce 1 million homes to board gaming, and this opens us up to exploring all opportunities; from publishing other game designers to designing educational board games and creating game cafes & shops, conventions, and of course leveraging online channels and markets.

Questions:

1. Mitä Kenechukwu (haastateltava) kertoo peleistä, joita ABConissa tullaan pelaamaan?
2. Millaisia reaktioita lautapeliharrastukseen tutustuminen on ihmisissä herättänyt?
3. Miten Kenechukwu uskoo lautapelien pystyvän vaikuttavan Nigerian työllisyysasteeseen?

It's important for you that Nigerian stories be told through your games - what untold stories do you want the world to experience?

Hmm... that is a very personal question. As much as I love Nigeria and am willing to defend her unity, I probably would say The Biafran story which is called a pogrom instead of a genocide (please Google what this is about). I just feel it should be talked about. And yes, I am from the Igbo tribe.

However, there are many stories about Nigeria that are only just single stories. There are a lot of folk tales, poems, and tales in Nigeria - many of which I intend to design about.

At the moment, I am publishing a folklore game about a woman and her journey to the stream as well as another game on slavery.

I hope they are able to convey my heart in the narratives and give players the opportunity to create their own story from the game as they are having fun.

In all, board gaming for me takes me to a fantasy island - I never want to leave. When am working on the mechanics, that's the most beautiful part. And when I think of the joy it would bring to people I probably would never meet, I am contented.

I want to help others from my country and continent see this too.

text retrieved from
Cardboard Vault (2017)

Questions:

1. Millaisen tarinan Kenechukwu (haastateltava) haluaisi kertoa seuraavaksi?
    a. Googleta '1966 anti-Igbo pogrom' ja 'Biafran war' tai 'Nigerian Civil War' (Nigerian sisällissota). Minkälaista tietoa löydät aiheesta? Käytä tarvittaessa apunasi sanakirjaa.
2. Millaisia tarinoita Nigeriasta on?
3. Miksi Kenechukwu haluaa nigerialaisten ja afrikkalaisten tutustuvan lautapelien maailmaan?

Dear _____,
(write group name here)

Consider yourselves lucky, because being a game designer is a privilege of few. Although an idea for a game is a good start, there are lots of other things you need to become a game designer. But what do you think you need the most?

Discuss:

What do you need the most when designing a game? What is less important? Put the list below into order of importance.

---

connections to gaming business _____

creativity _____

a degree in game designing _____

money _____

to have played lots of games as a kid _____

determination _____

a good computer _____

to be able to / learn how to draw _____

personal interest towards games _____

time _____

to read lots of books about game-designing _____

persistence _____

friends who want to play your games _____

task adapted from
NASA Exercise: Survival on the Moon (1999)

9 ADDITIONAL MATERIAL

Task 1:

- a name tag on which to write the group name

Task 3:

- game category sheets
- game title cards
- game description cards
- key

Task 4:

- role fold cards

YARD GAMES

BOARD GAMES

VIDEO GAMES

COMPUTER GAMES

ONLINE GAMES

MOBILE APPS

CARD GAMES

other games

Cards for task 3

Pokémon GO	Call of Duty
Monopoly	Twister
Mölkky	Afrikan tähti
Tetris	Angry Birds

Taboo	Mario Kart
UNO	Trivial Pursuit
Minecraft	Grand Theft Auto
CandyCrush	tic-tac-toe

Yahtzee	pétanque
patience (or solitaire)	chess
A game where you collect pocket monsters and train them to fight other pocket monsters.	A game where you fight the enemy in a war.
A game where you try to get lots of property and become the richest person.	Left hand - green!

A game where you try to knock out wooden pins.	A game where you try to find a treasure and take it to Cairo or Tangiers before someone else finds a horse shoe and gets there first!
A game where you drop blocks down into a playing field to make lines.	Beware the green pigs!
A game where you have to explain a word without saying that word.	A game where you can throw banana peels and stuff at other players.
A game where there are green, yellow, red, and blue cards with numbers.	A game where you collect colourful, triangle-shaped pieces by answering correctly to trivia questions.

A game where you play as a block person in a world made of cubes.	A game where you drive around in a car and complete different kinds of missions.
A game where you try to put sugary sweets in rows of 3 or more.	A game where you line up noughts and crosses.
A game where you roll 5 dice to make different combinations.	A game where you try to throw steel balls as close as possible to a small wooden ball.
A game where you sort out playing cards into an order from king to ace so that every other card is red and every other is black.	A game that you play on a black and white checked board with black and white pieces.

Key for task 3

Yard games:

Mölkky	***A game where you try to knock out wooden pins.***
Pétanque	***A game where you try to throw steel balls [...].***

acceptable:

Twister	***Left hand - green!***

Board games:

Monopoly	***A game where you try to get lots of property [...].***
Afrikan Tähti	***A game where you try to find a treasure [...].***
Taboo	***A game where you have to explain a word without saying that word.***
Trivial Pursuit	***A game where you collect colourful, triangle-shaped pieces [...].***
Chess	***A game that you play on a black and white checked board [...].***

Video games, computer games, online games, mobile apps:

Pokémon GO	***A game where you collect pocket monsters [...].***
Call of Duty	***A game where you fight the enemy in a war.***
Tetris	***A game where you drop blocks down [...].***
Angry Birds	***Beware the green pigs!***
Mario Kart	***A game where you can throw banana peels [...].***
Minecraft	***A game where you play as a block person in a world made of cubes.***
Grand Theft Auto	***A game where you drive around in a car and [...].***
Candy Crush	***A game where you try to put candy in rows of 3 or more.***

Card games:

UNO	***A game where there are green, yellow, red, and blue cards [...].***
Patience	***A game where you sort out playing cards into an order [...].***

Other games:

Twister	Left hand - green!
Tic-tac-toe	***A game where you line up noughts and crosses.***
Yahtzee	***A game where you roll 5 dice to make different combinations.***

The Equipment Master

- fetches any missing supplies the group needs
- makes sure the group cleans up afterwards
- Example phrases:
  - *"Should I go get the _____?"*
  - *"Let's start cleaning up, everyone!"*

The Checker

- checks the gaming vocabulary list if need be
- checks that everyone in your group understands the task
- asks the teacher to come if you need help with anything
- Example phrases:
  - *"Does everyone know what we should be doing?"*

The Time Keeper

- makes sure the group is focused on the task
- keeps an eye on the clock and tells the group when there is 30 minutes / 10 minutes / 5 minutes left
- Example phrases:
  - *"We have only 10 minutes left, let's try and finish this by then!"*

The Recorder

- is in charge of taking notes
- writes down and/or records the video/audio of the rules you have come up with for your game (Task 6)
- Example phrases:
  - *"Do you want me to write that down?"*
  - *"How do you want me to word this?"*

THE INVESTIGATOR

- every now and then, enquires other teams what they are doing
- reports his/her own group what the others are doing
  → you may get some new inspiration for your own game (but don't steal their idea!)
- searches for ideas and missing vocabulary on the internet
- Example phrases:
  - *"Hey! What kind of game are you making?"*

roles cards adapted from
Kujansivu (2002)
Manis (2012)
ReadWriteThink.org (2017)

10 VOCABULARY LISTS

TASK-SPECIFIC VOCABULARY

TASK 2

leftover	ylimääräinen
discuss	keskustella
interrupt	keskeyttää
a board game	lautapeli
a yard game	pihapeli
a mobile app	mobiilisovellus
etc.	jne., ja niin edelleen
take turns	vuorotella

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leftover	ylimääräinen
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a board game	lautapeli
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take turns	vuorotella

TASK 3

galore	yllin kyllin, runsaasti
a deck	korttipakka
a sheet	paperiarkki
Blu-Tack	sinitarra
scatter	levittää
a pile	kasa, pinkka
a description	kuvaus, kuvailu
aside	sivuun, syrjään
a category	kategoria

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CONGRATULATIONS LETTER

impeccable	moitteeton	con = convention	tapaaminen
ability	kyky	a challenge	haaste
expertise	asiantuntemus	an instruction	ohje
knowledgeable	tietäväinen	complete	saada valmiiksi
skilled	taitava, etevä	onwards	eteenpäin, lähtien
enthusiast	innokas harrastaja	present	esittää, esitellä

TASK 4

a role	rooli
fulfill	suorittaa, täyttää
assigned	annettu (tehtävä)
The Equipment Master	“välinemestari”
The Checker	“tarkistaja”
The Time Keeper	“aikavahti”
The Recorder	“kirjuri”
The Investigator	“tutkija”

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TASK 5

brainstorming	ideointi, aivoriihityöskentely
pass around	panna kiertämään
a phrase	lauseke
In one go	kerralla
add	lisätä
a suggestion	ehdotus
equipment	välineet
a pin	keila (tms.)
an hourglass	tiimalasi
cardboard	pahvi, kartonki
while	sillä aikaa kun
innovative	innovatiivinen
from scratch	tyhjästä, aivan alusta
modify	muunnella
combine	yhdistää
a jumping jack	haarahyppy

TASK 6

an exhibitor	näytteilleasettaja
a presentation	esitelmä
an object	päämäärä, tarkoitus
at once	yhtä aikaa
a target group	kohderyhmä

TASK 6

an exhibitor	näytteilleasettaja
a presentation	esitelmä
an object	päämäärä, tarkoitus
at once	yhtä aikaa
a target group	kohderyhmä

Role fold-card vocabulary

fetch	noutaa
afterwards	myöhemmin, jälkeenpäin
if need be	tarvittaessa
focused	keskittynyt
keep an eye on	pitää silmällä
enquire	tiedustella

Game vocabulary

heittää noppaa	roll a die/dice
hertta (korttipakan maa)	heart(s); esim. ***herttakolmonen → three of hearts***
huijata	cheat
→ ***No cheating!***	→ ***Älä huijaa! / Ei fuksaamista!***
jakaa, antaa (pelikortit yms.)	deal
jätkä (pelikorteissa)	a jack, a knave
keila (esim. Mölkyssä)	a pin
kierros (pelatessa)	a round
korttipakka	a deck
kulkea (pelilaudalla)	move
→ eteenpäin	→ forward
→ taaksepäin	→ backwards
kuvapuoli alaspäin/ylöspäin	face up/down
maalitaulu	a target
noppa	a die (mon. dice); a dice (mon. dice)
pata (korttipakan maa)	spade(s)
pelilauta	a (game) board
pelin päämäärä	the object of the game
pelinappula/-merkki	a (game) piece, a token, a man
piste	a point
pistemäärä	a score
pyöräyttää (pyörää tms.)	spin
risti (korttipakan maa)	club(s)
roolipeli	a role (playing) game
rouva (pelikorteissa)	a queen
ruutu (korttipakan maa)	diamond(s); ***ruutukuningas → a king of diamonds***
saada luku nopalla	roll; ***Hän sai kakkosen → He rolled a 2***
saada piste	score
saapua/päätyä (pelilaudalla johonkin ruutuun)	land (on)
saavuttaa (esim. pistemäärä)	reach
sekoittaa (esim. pelikortit)	shuffle
tasapeli	a tie, a draw
vastapelaaja, vastustaja	an opponent
vastapelaaja/-joukkue	the opposing player/team
vetää/nostaa (kortti) pakasta	draw
vuoro	a turn
ässä (pelikorteissa)	an ace

Extra task vocabulary

Extra task 2

a region	alue, seutu
lack	olla vailla, puuttua
local	paikallinen
IndieGoGo	***joukkorahoitus-verkkosivusto***
recently	hiljattain
a resource	resurssi, (voima-/raha)varat
sketch	hahmotella
BGG	***BoardGameGeek, nettifoorumi lautapeliharrastajille***
a columnist	kolumnisti
define	määritellä
an experience	kokemus
involve	kuulua, sisältää
an accessibility	saatavuus
a realm	(kuv.) maailma, valtakunta
mechanics	jnk toiminta /tekniikka, mekaniikka
superb	erinomainen
a possibility	mahdollisuus
a scene	piirit, “skene”
regular	vakituinen
a meetup	tapaaminen
invisible	näkymätön
at large	yleensä ottaen
drive	energia, tarmokkuus
sustain	antaa voimia
a necessity	välttämättömyys
facilitate	helpottaa
a narrative	kertomus; kerronta
attend	osallistua, olla läsnä
frankly	suoraan sanoen
however	kuitenkin, silti
colleague	kollega, työkaveri
feedback	palaute
a response	vastaus, vastareaktio
marvel	hämmästellä
literally	kirjaimellisesti
witness	nähdä, todistaa
a scale	mittakaava, laajuus
unemployment	työttömyys
introduce	esitellä
explore	tutkia, tarkastella
opportunity	mahdollisuus
publish	julkaista
leverage	rahoittaa lainalla
a channel	(kuv.) kanava, väylä
willing	halukas, innokas
defend	puolustaa
unity	yhtenäisyys
a pogrom	joukkovaino
a genocide	kansanmurha
a tribe	heimo
a folk tale	kansantarina
intend	aikoa
folklore	kansanperinne
a stream	puro, (pieni) joki
slavery	orjuus
convey	välittää, ilmaista
contented	tyytyväinen

11 SELF-EVALUATION

1. Kuvaile lyhyesti roolisi projektissa. (Mitä teit missäkin tehtävässä jne.)

2. Missä mielestäsi onnistuit hyvin?

3. Mitä olisit voinut tehdä toisin?

4. Miten ryhmänne yhteistyö onnistui mielestäsi?

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