

Proceedings

Seventeenth International CALL Conference

Task design and CALL

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Task Design & CALL

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Universitat Rovira i Virgili

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Composed by Jozef Colpaert, Ann Aerts, Margret Oberhofer, Mar Gutiérrez-Colón Plana

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Universiteit Antwerpen
Prinsstraat 13
2000 Antwerpen
www.uantwerpen.be

WELCOME

It is my pleasure to welcome you to the XVIIth International CALL Research Conference at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili in Tarragona. Almost 100 participants from more than 20 countries have submitted papers which all focus on the conference theme *Task design and CALL*.

The choice of this theme was the result of an ongoing discussion among members of our editorial board. Although we all agree that pedagogy should come before technology, even a task that complies with all possible pedagogical and didactic criteria does not necessarily lead to willingness and acceptance in the learner's mind. What if psychology came first? What if we tried to design tasks that visualize the roadmap to the Ideal SELF, as Dörnyei suggests? What if we use Deci and Ryan's motivation scale in order to gauge the process of identification and internalization? One thing is certain: the quality of a task is not the sum of its properties. The specification of a meaningful, useful and enjoyable task is the result of a process that takes into account the learner, the context, language pedagogy and findings from task-based language learning and teaching (TBLT). The question is not so much about which new affordances we can distinguish with every new technology, but rather: are there technologies which afford the tasks we specify this way?

In recent CALL articles, conference presentations and project proposals, we notice a renewed interest in the motivational side of tasks, and less emphasis on technology or theoretical pedagogy. Tasks, elective or compulsory, can be subdivided into three partly overlapping categories: (a) focus-on-form tasks which can be defined as meaningful tasks in which the focus on particular forms is tightly embedded; (b) focus-on-meaning tasks which should lead to communication (CMC approach) or any kind of non-linguistic outcome (TBLT approach); and (c) form-focused exercises for specific phonological, lexical or grammatical targets, such as improved and enriched drill-and-practice exercises.

We have asked all presenters to focus on the design process behind these tasks: How do we decide on task types? How do we shape them? How do we monitor and evaluate them?

Submitted presentations address questions such as:

- How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?
- To what extent do tasks depend on context?
- What can CALL learn from TBLT?
- What can TBLT learn from CALL?
- What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?
- How does technology impact on non-technological tasks?
- What are the specific challenges for LMOOCs, OERs, WebQuests, Interactive Whiteboards, Student Response Systems, Synchronous Collaborative Writing Tools, Serious Games... ?
- How do our tasks fit in with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, Socioconstructivist environments, Flipped Classroom approaches ...?
- What is the role of corrective feedback in tasks?
- What are the consequences for Learner Analytics?
- Which tasks are best suited for which skills?
- Which tasks are most appropriate for developing intercultural competence?

I wish to thank my associate editors, the members of our editorial board, Mar Gutierrez-Colón Plana and the local organizers at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili, our keynote speakers, conference manager Ann Aerts, and all the participants.

The International CALL Research Conferences were initiated by Keith Cameron, the founding editor of Computer Assisted Language Learning, at Exeter University. In 2002, I was asked to take over both the editorship of the journal and the organization of the conferences. Since then, the following have been organized:

Xth edition: *CALL Professionals and the future of CALL Research* (Antwerp, 2002)
XIth edition: *CALL and Research Methodologies* (Antwerp, 2004)
XIIth edition: *How are we Doing? CALL and Monitoring the Learner* (Antwerp, 2006)
XIIIth edition: *Practice-Based & Practice-Oriented CALL Research* (Antwerp, 2008)
XIVth edition: *Motivation and Beyond* (Antwerp, 2010)
XVth edition: *The Medium Matters* (Taichung, 2012)
XVIth edition: *Research Challenges in CALL* (Antwerp, 2014)

It is our intention to make the CALL conferences annual instead of biennial, and to change the continent every year. Should you be interested in hosting one of our conferences, just let us know.

Jozef Colpaert
Editor CALL Journal
Organizer International CALL Research Conferences

CONFERENCE ORGANISATION

Chair

Jozef Colpaert
jozef.colpaert@uantwerpen.be
University of Antwerp

Conference manager

Ann Aerts
ann.aerts@uantwerpen.be
University of Antwerp

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Mar Gutiérrez Colón Plana - Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Spain
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KEYNOTE SPEAKERS

Kris Van den Branden

KULeuven, Leuven, Belgium

kris.vandenbranden@arts.kuleuven.be

What can CALL learn from TBLT?**Bio data**

Kris Van den Branden is a professor of linguistics and teacher educator at the Faculty of Arts of KU Leuven. At the same university he is the academic promoter of the Centre for Language and Education. Together with Elke Peeters, he is the editor of the journal ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics. He is also the volume series editor (together with Martin Bygate and John Norris) of Task-Based Language Teaching: Issues, Research and Practice (published by Benjamins).

Task based language learning and teaching

What can CALL learn from task-based language teaching? This intriguing question (posted on the conference website) will be the starting point for my presentation. Using authentic examples, I will critically discuss the principles and practice of task-based language teaching (TBLT), which has become the dominant approach to second language teaching in many countries (at least in governmental and school policy papers). What basically is a task? And why do so many applied linguists claim language learning can be enhanced by inviting students to perform functional, meaningful tasks? How can teachers and task designers integrate a focus on form in meaningful tasks? What is the role of the teacher in task-based language teacher? And what kinds of revolutionary, exciting perspectives does the integration of modern technology in task-based language teaching have to offer to language teachers and learners alike? I will provide answers to these questions, based on the available research into the practice of task-based design and task-based teaching as it takes place in authentic classrooms around the world. These answers will pave the way for an exploration of the optimal integration of CALL and TBLT.

SELECTED PLENARIES

Preet Hiradhar

Lingnan University, Tuen Mun, Hong Kong

ph@ln.edu.hk

Task-based pedagogy in technology mediated writing**Bio data**

Preet Hiradhar is Assistant Professor at the Department of English at Lingnan University, Hong Kong. With a background in English language teaching and e-learning, her academic interests include technology-enhanced language learning, electronic portfolios, instructional design, online literacies and digital practices. She is working on a university-wide e-learning project and her forthcoming book on critical discourse analysis.

Current research

The study explores the effectiveness of the design and incorporation of technology-mediated module for writing skills, developed for English as Second Language (ESL) learners at a university in Hong Kong. Through a tailor-made technology-enhanced writing program, units catering to specific writing outcomes were designed, developed, and incorporated to help first-year university students develop a range of written communication skills. An evaluation of the effectiveness of the online task-based writing program was conducted through a one group pre-test post-test pre-experimental research design. With an enriching learning experience through reinforcement, interaction, and scaffolding, findings revealed that specifically designed technology-mediated tasks helped enhance students' writing skills required at the tertiary level.

Task design & language learning and teaching

As language educators evaluate various learning opportunities through technology-enhanced language learning, the potential links between technology and task-based language teaching (TBLT) have gained prominence in recent years. A growing awareness of the centrality of tasks in technology-mediated environments has also given rise to completely new pedagogies in second language teaching. This paper studies the efficacy of the design and incorporation of a specifically designed technology-enhanced writing program for English as Second Language (ESL) learners at the university level within a task-based pedagogic framework. With an optimal utilization of the suite of pedagogical options afforded by technology, writing tasks were designed within the framework proposed by Ellis (2003), with units following a pedagogical sequence of pre-task, main task, and post-task that involved writing for a specific purpose. Through its design, the program presented cognitive, socio-cultural, constructive opportunities for learning. As learners achieved a better degree of unity and cohesion in their writing, the noticeable enhancement in their writing skills could establish the effectiveness of a program that maximized the potential of technology through its design. The technology-mediated task-based approach proved a viable pedagogical framework in guiding the design and strengthening the overall effect of technology-mediated learning environment.

Introduction

With the ever-growing incorporation of technology in second language teaching across various educational contexts in recent years, the need for teachers to evaluate the learning opportunities through technology has been emphasized by exponents of technology-enhanced language learning. While Chappelle (2003) affirms that changes in information and communication technologies have expanded dramatically the options for English language learning and teaching, Warschauer (2007) highlights the profound effect that information technologies are having on written communication. On one hand, language educators are exploring the potential of technology with a readjustment of existing pedagogies in second language teaching. On the other, the potential links between technology and task-based language teaching (TBLT) along with a growing awareness of the centrality of tasks in technology-mediated environments, are giving rise to completely new pedagogies. The current study thus explores the reciprocal relationship between technology and TBLT (Lai and Li 2011), by evaluating the effectiveness of a technology-enhanced writing program designed within a task-based pedagogic framework for English as Second Language (ESL) learners at a university in Hong Kong.

Task-based language teaching and technology

A pedagogical cycle with TBLT at its core consists of communicative tasks that serve as basic units, where learners involved in the educative process use the target language for meaning-making. TBLT provides a suitable pedagogical framework for the selection and use of technology in language learning. As Doughty and Long (2003) explain, technology provides a natural and authentic venue for the realization of the methodological principles of TBLT. By emphasizing the concept of 'doing language' and with pedagogical functions such as authenticity in language learning, offering student choices, providing feedback, encouraging autonomy, and fostering community of learning, the fields of TBLT and language learning and technology (LLT) have the ability to symbiotically support language learning (Ortega, 2009). Thus, the TBLT approach emerges as a natural partner of technology-enhanced learning. Moreover, with regards to the non-linguistic outcomes defined in TBLT, technology provides opportunities for language learners to engage in a range of new literacy skills (Warschauer, 2004). As a result, the potential association of TBLT and technology can best be explored through the incorporation of a task-based pedagogy in a technology-mediated environment.

Technology-mediated writing program

The technology-mediated writing program of the current study was designed on the principles of the task-based language teaching. The program consisted of units with five distinct communicative functions of writing that learners used most during their academic studies. The units with specific writing outcomes, aptly titled 'Writing to Describe', 'Writing to Narrate', 'Writing to Report', 'Writing to Respond: Discuss', and 'Writing to Respond: Argue', consisted of tasks that were designed with a primary focus on 'meaning' along with need to inform, express, or infer meaning. The writing program was set up in within a technology-mediated environment using the e-learning platform WebCT Campus Edition 8 (WebCT CE8). The tasks were designed with an optimal utilization of the suite of pedagogical options afforded by the online learning management system. Web-based resources with a range of textual, auditory, and visual input were included. As each unit focused on a particular set of writing skills such as describing, narrating, reporting, discussing, or arguing, the tasks simultaneously focused on specific linguistic aspects of writing such as coherence, cohesion, accuracy, grammar, vocabulary, and language use in general. Apart from linguistic and writing skills, the technology-mediated tasks enabled the generation of non-linguistic outcomes as learners engaged in a range of digital literacy experiences. Literacy skills included planning, researching, comprehending, interacting, evaluating, and organizing and processing information at various stages of the tasks. In other words, the program was designed in a way that

required the learners to rely on their linguistic as well as non-linguistic resources in order to complete the activity of writing for a specific purpose.

Using the TBLT framework proposed by Ellis (2003), the design of each unit followed a pedagogical sequence of pre-task, main task, and post-task. The pre-task familiarized participants with the topic and assisted them with relevant lexical and topical preparation through a series of warm-up tasks. An introduction outlining the focus and aims of the unit was followed by warm-up tasks that involved reading/watching/listening to an online material; making notes from the online materials; completing controlled writing exercises based on the materials. With clearly articulated expectations of the learning outcomes of the unit, the main task consisted of sharing notes from the warm-up task in an online forum followed by with a guided online discussion; collating points from the discussion forum to put together a piece of writing based on the guided writing warm-up tasks and discussions; exchanging and peer-reviewing partner's work; incorporating the received feedback from peer and mentor, and finally, revising the written work. With a provision of feedback during and after the task performance, a post-task that built on the previous interactions and activities was also included. This consisted of a final writing for that unit, in addition to an optional free writing based on the unit, to be submitted to an electronic portfolio to be shared for views and comments by classmates. Thus, learners were involved in an educative process where the target language was used for meaning-making, through their written communicative tasks in a technology-enhanced learning mode that involved - logging onto the e-learning platform; accessing the program; reading the materials, tasks and instructions online; researching the web to search required materials; processing information by checking online dictionaries, thesaurus, or references sites; completing various writing exercises conducting peer-reviews, evaluations and giving feedback online; interacting with group members online via email or discussion or chat forums; using a word processor to type, revise, edit, proof-read tasks via a word processor; and submitting their writings to electronic portfolios. In this way, the potential technological affordances were integrated into the task-based pedagogy through the writing program.

Methodology

In order to examine the effectiveness of the task-based technology-mediated program for enhancing writing skills of ESL learners at the university level, a research in a controlled context such as an experiment was required. Without assuming the need to make a case for technology in English language teaching, the research design of the study followed Chapelle's (2003) argument that very little, if anything can be gained by conducting Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) versus classroom comparison studies because the genuine questions about CALL cannot be addressed through such gross comparisons. In other words, by viewing the potential of CALL in itself for the construction of better technology-based language tasks, the study adopted the one group pre-test post-test pre-experimental research design, where the task-based technology-mediated writing program was the independent variable and the pre-test and post-test scores measuring the writing skills of students were the dependent variables. The research study aimed to address two major questions:

1. Can a task-based pedagogic approach in a technology-mediated environment enhance the overall writing skills of ESL learners?
2. Can a task-based pedagogic approach in a technology-mediated environment enhance specific aspects of writing of ESL learners?

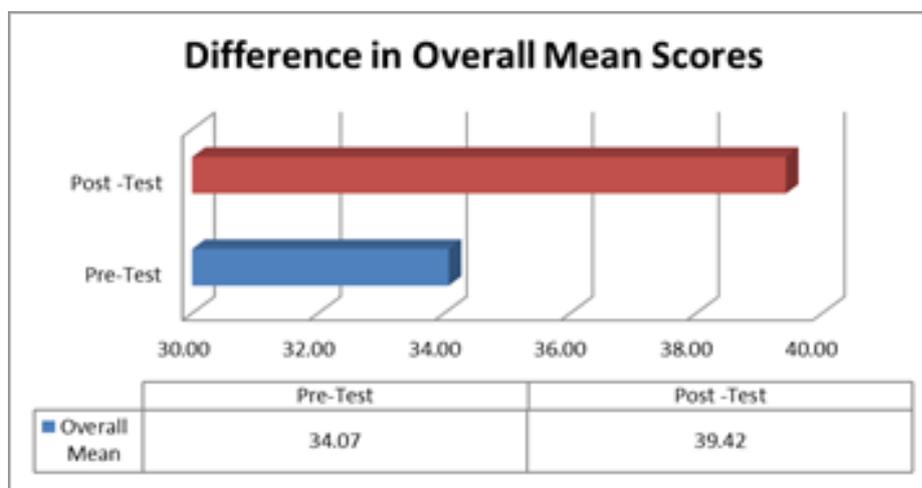
Intact groups of subjects taught by the researcher were used. To further define the group, the participants constituted first-year university students who took a required English language course, in the second term of the academic year at a university in Hong Kong. A total of 41 students participated in the study. Twenty one were females and twenty were males within the age group of eighteen to twenty three years with the average age being twenty years. Students belonged to various streams mainly classified

into Business, Arts and Social Sciences. Of these participants, twenty six participants were from the Business stream and fifteen belonged to the Arts and Social Sciences streams. All the participants were either from Hong Kong or Mainland China, so their first language was either Cantonese or Putonghua. Thus, the sample, that is, the participants for the study was controlled in terms of belonging to an intact group and having similar linguistic and educational backgrounds. Participants went through online writing program, which was divided into 5 units of 6 hours each totaling to 30 hours, during the course of the semester for over a period of ten weeks. The significant instruments of the study included the pre-test and post-test which were administered at the beginning and end of the experiment. The 50-mark tests evaluated several aspects of the writing with five major items on coherence, grammatical accuracy, unity and cohesion, vocabulary, summary writing, and response writing (expository). The responses to the objective and guided writing test items were assessed against a set mark for each, while the free writing responses were marked against a specifically designed rubric consisting of multi-levelled criteria for evaluating the varied aspects of writing such as content, organization, development of ideas and language use.

Analysis

Differences in overall pre-test and post-test scores

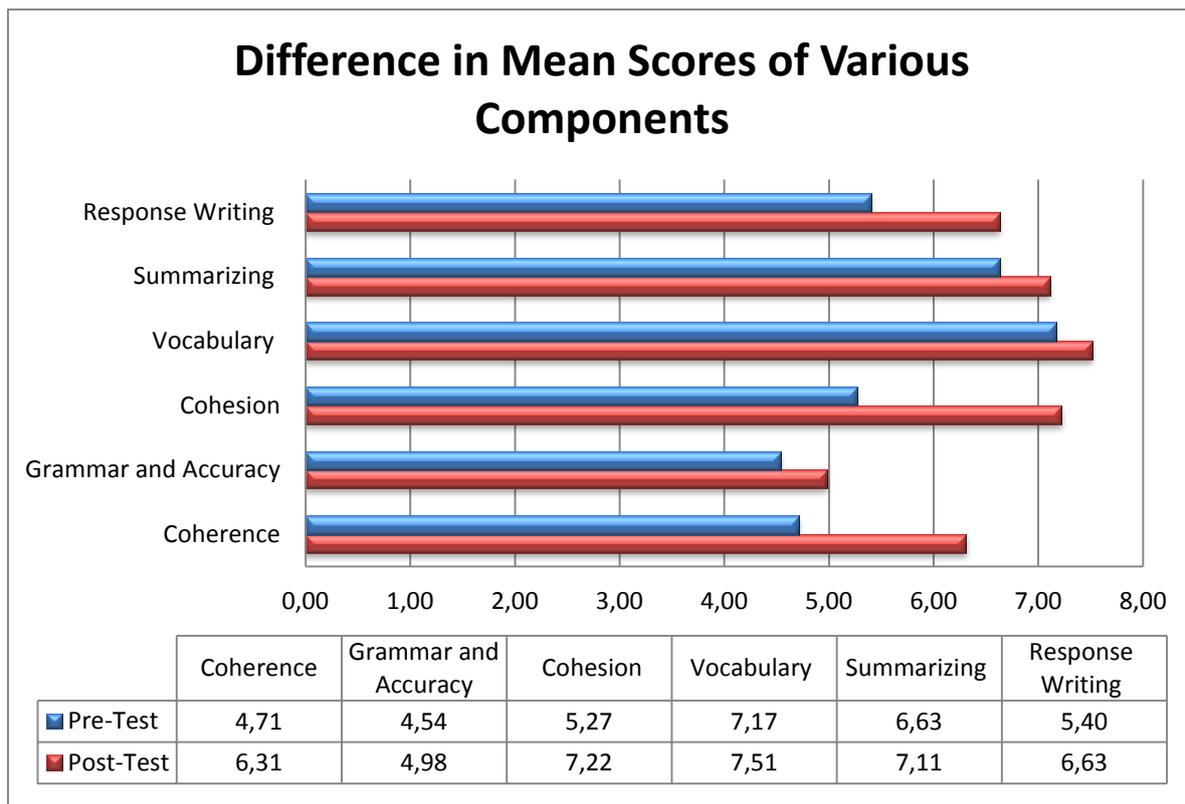
The data collected from the pre-test and post-test scores was first computed for a descriptive statistical analysis before any subsequent analysis. A correlation analysis of the test scores revealed a significant value of correlation of 0.548 with a significance of 0.000. Details collected from the test scores revealed that the overall mean of the pre-test was 34.07 and the standard deviation was 7.05. The overall mean of the post-test was 39.42 and the standard deviation was 5.07. The mean of the paired difference of 5.35366 suggested an overall 10% increase in the average score of the post-test score.



In order to obtain details of overall differences in the pre-test and post-test scores and to ascertain if the 10% increase was significant, a T-test analysis was carried out. The T-value obtained from the analysis of the overall mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test was 5.694 with a value of significance of 0.000, at the 5% level of significance. This meant that there was a significant difference in the scores pre-test and post-test scores.

Differences in Various Components of the Pre-test and Post-test Scores

In addition to the analysis of the scores for the pre-test and post-test of the study, an analysis of the various components of the tests was also carried out. Details collected for the analysis included descriptive statistics on the overall mean scores of the various aspects of writing in the pre-test and post-test, in which differences were noted.



The highest differences with values such 1.95, 1.60, and 1.23 was noted in components such as unity and cohesion, coherence, and response writing, respectively. This suggested there was an overall improvement in these aspects of writing compared to others. To ascertain the significance of the overall differences among the various components of the pre-test and post-test scores for students who took the technology-enabled writing program, an ANOVA was carried out. The F-value obtained from the analysis of the overall mean scores of the pre-test and the post-test was 4.647 with a P-value of 0.000, at the 5% level of significance. This showed that difference among the various aspects of writing in the pre-test and post-test scores was significant. Again, a post-hoc analysis was conducted through the Tamhane, Tukey HSD, and Tukey LSD tests using overall scores, gender, and stream as variables. Mean scores for the components such as unity and cohesion and coherence were found to be higher than the scores on other components at the 5% level of significance. This established that differences in the mean scores related to specific aspects of writing such as cohesion and coherence writing were significant.

Findings

While the first finding from the analysis could establish that there was a significant difference between the overall mean scores on the pre-test and post-test of the students, the second finding also revealed that there were significant differences in scores among various aspects of writing skills of the students. The findings could determine that the significant differences found were not due to chance, but due to the treatment, that is, the technology-enabled writing program. Moreover, other significant findings determined that the program was equally effective on male participants as well as female participants, and participants from various streams of study. While a significant difference was noticed in the overall enhancement of writing in general, the findings also revealed a noticeable enhancement in cohesion and coherence, in particular. This meant that the learner could achieve a better degree of cohesion and coherence with a special attention to unity and flow of ideas in their writing. While the scores on other aspects of writing such as vocabulary, grammar and accuracy, and summarizing may not have revealed significant differences, the scores on the response writing component, which

consisted of a free writing task, are noteworthy. By responding to a presented idea in the form of an exposition, the task required learners to consolidate their writing skills both, cognitively as well as constructively. The differences in the scores thus established that learners were able to associate the essential aspects of writing acquired through the task-based pedagogy. In other words, the evaluation of the results on the participants' performance through the test scores suggested that the task-based pedagogy in the technology-mediated environment was effective in enhancing writing skills of ESL learners.

Discussion

The noticeable enhancement in the writing skills of learners established the effectiveness of a program that maximized the potential of technology through its design. Studies on the use of technology in language learning have emphasized the importance of giving learners more opportunities to monitor their language production (Kitade, 2000). Through its design, the current study presented learners with the prospect of paying attention to their written language at various stages. The online forums where the learners shared their initial jottings, discussed, and collated their ideas, presented learners with opportunities to monitor their language being produced. Moreover, with the application of task-based pedagogy through technology, the program provided cognitive, socio-cultural, constructive opportunities for learning. The facilitation of cognitive skills in this study was ensured through the tasks requiring learners to research, evaluate, plan, organize, and structure their writing throughout the program. This reinforced the importance of developing advanced communication skills in the 21st century in learners (Warschauer, 2001). From the sociocultural perspective, interaction and negotiation through focused online discussions accompanied with peer-review and feedback on writing, offered opportunities for scaffolding and collaboration, which was essential to the learning process. Finally, the carefully designed tasks which focused on specific writing outcomes provided the learners with opportunities to construct their writing in a planned and organized manner. The organization in writing was reflected in test scores on items that required logical organization and appropriate sequencing of ideas as well as connecting ideas to show relationship between them through cohesion. In a way, the program enabled learners to move from a guided learning to an autonomous learning experience. By adapting the methodological principles of TBLT proposed by Doughty and Long (2003), for the a) activities (tasks as units of analysis, learning by doing), b) input (elaborate and enriched input), c) learning processes (feedback and cooperative/collaborative learning), the tasks facilitated and elaborated the overall language learning outcome, in this case, enhanced writing skills, of the learners.

Conclusion

With the feasibility of a task-based pedagogical approach for designing online courses, research regarding the effectiveness on the outcomes of the approach has been growing. The current study affirmed the need of theory-guided, principled means for design so as to maximize the potential of technology for language learning (Chapelle, 1997). With a foundation in theory and pedagogy, the task-based technology-mediated writing program of the study could prove useful in the design and implementation of future technology-enabled language programs. Language learning programs could be designed and structured around features endorsed by researchers and most importantly, features that could be easily offered by technology. Features such as easy accessibility, easy usability, a degree of autonomy, resource variety, authenticity, cognitive familiarity, sharing, interaction, and opportunities for self-improvement afforded by technology could be collectively incorporated into the design of the language program. Thus, as the potential of various technologies could be tapped in order to provide new ways of configuring and accessing language learning opportunities, a task-based pedagogical framework could prove viable for the augmenting the overall effect of technology-enhanced language learning.

Masatoshi Sato

Universidad Andres Bello, Santiago, Chile

masatoshi.sato@unab.cl

The noticeability and effectiveness of corrective feedback in video-based interaction

Bio data

Masatoshi Sato is Associate Professor in the Department of English at Universidad Andrés Bello, Chile. His research interests include peer interaction, corrective feedback, and proceduralization of grammatical knowledge especially with adult EFL learners. He has explored these topics in relation to CALL, teacher education as well as language testing. He is the recipient of the 2014 ACTFL/MLJ Paul Pimsleur Award.

Current research

A burgeoning amount of research on synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) has compared the modality with face-to-face (FTF) interaction and has reported a tendency for the FTF interaction to create a more collaborative environment based on the frequency of certain interaction moves (e.g., corrective feedback) or learners' level of engagement (e.g., Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, & Kim, in press). Nonetheless, most SCMC studies examined either written (e.g., Google Docs) or voice-based (e.g., Skypecast) CMC without measuring L2 development (see Sauro, 2011). Hence, with a quasi-experimental design, the current study investigated video-based SCMC and its effect on L2 development. It was conducted in intact university-level EFL classes in Santiago, Chile.

Another theoretically and pedagogically relevant topic in interaction research is corrective feedback (CF). While this pedagogical technique has been widely researched in both classroom and lab settings (see Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013), its application to the SCMC context requires further investigation given the results from the comparative research described above. More precisely, if the effectiveness of CF can be partly accounted for by its noticeability, it may be susceptible to the interaction environment—video-based SCMC vs. FTF—in which CF is provided. Hence, the current study compared CF effectiveness in the two contexts.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The current study designed original tasks that are suitable for video-based interaction and compared two interaction contexts, namely, video-based SCMC and FTF. Hence, it potentially answers two of the thematic questions: (a) How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks? and (b) To what extent do tasks depend on context? The current study involved two intact university-level classrooms enrolling EFL learners in Chile ($N = 42$). The two classes were randomly assigned to either the video-based SCMC ($n = 20$) or FTF ($n = 22$) groups. The classes received the same 25-minute lessons for six class periods over three weeks. Both groups were taught by the same instructor. The CMC group engaged in the tasks via a video-based platform (Adobe Connect) and the FTF group in a regular classroom. The intervention entailed a series of communicative activities designed to elicit English past tense. Given these design aspects, it can be said that interaction was situated within the given tasks, which is a

fundamental feature of task-based language teaching (Van den Branden, Bygate, & Norris, 2009).

Following the interactionist approach (Long, 2015), the current study seeks to answer another question among the conference themes—What is the role of corrective feedback in tasks? In the study, the instructor was trained to provide implicit recasts in the two contexts. Then, the interactions, which were recorded either by downloading the videos from the software or by videotaping the classes, were analyzed by tallying the frequencies of CF and learners' following modified output. By comparing the frequencies of modified output in the two contexts, the study revealed the modality effect on the noticeability of CF. In addition, the results of interaction moves were analyzed in conjunction with the L2 development data (factorial-ANOVAs) which were obtained by the pre and posttests comprised of spontaneous (picture description: implicit knowledge) and guided (fill-in-the-gap: explicit knowledge) oral production tasks. In so doing, the study aimed to answer the differential effectiveness of CF in the two contexts.

The analysis indicated that the two modes were not significantly different in terms of their effect on L2 development. However, against our prediction, it was found that learners were more likely to respond to CF by modifying their initial errors when they were working within the video-based context. It is concluded that video-based SCMC can be a useful teaching tool but its strategic use is necessary for it to cause a positive impact on learning.

Short paper

As online communication is getting more popular everyday (Steel & Levy, 2013) and is even replacing traditional classroom interaction in some cases, a burgeoning amount of research on synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) has compared the modality with face-to-face (FTF) interaction. Though inconclusive, this research has reported a tendency for the FTF interaction to create an environment that is more conducive to L2 learning based on the frequency of certain interaction moves (e.g., corrective feedback: Loewen & Wolff, in press) or learners' level of engagement (e.g., Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, & Kim, in press). Nonetheless, most SCMC studies examined either written (e.g., Google Docs) or voice-based (e.g., Skypecast) CMC without measuring L2 development (see Sauro, 2011). Hence, with a quasi-experimental design, the current study investigated the nature of multiple-screen video-based SCMC in comparison to FTF interaction in the classroom. It also examined their differential effects on L2 development.

In addition to the comparison between the two modes in terms of their general effects on L2 development, the current study tested the effectiveness of corrective feedback in those modes. While this pedagogical technique has been widely researched in both classroom and lab settings (see Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013), its application to the SCMC context requires further investigation given the results from the comparative research described above. More precisely, if the effectiveness of CF can be partly accounted for by its noticeability, it may be susceptible to the interaction environment—video-based SCMC vs. FTF—in which CF is provided. In sum, the current study asked two questions and the answers were sought in two phases:

RQ 1: How do video-based SCMC and classroom FTF interaction differ in terms of their impacts on L2 development?

RQ 2: Is the effectiveness of corrective feedback mediated by the interaction modes?

The participants were enrolled in two intact university-level EFL classes in Chile ($N = 42$). The two groups were taught by the same instructor. The experimental group ($n = 20$) engaged in the tasks in a video-based virtual classroom (Adobe Connect), and the FTF (n

= 22) in a regular classroom. In Phase 1, the groups received the same communicative lessons, focusing on simple past tense, for six classes of 25 minutes each over a period of three weeks (totalling 150 minutes). Interactions during the intervention were recorded and coded focusing on the frequency of corrective feedback and modified output. The pre and posttests comprised of spontaneous (picture description) and guided (fill-in-the-gap) oral production tasks to investigate the change in implicit and explicit knowledge. In Phase 2, during another three-week session (150 minutes), the experimental group received corrective feedback on errors of past tense. The same test batteries were administered before and after Phase 2 to examine the impact of corrective feedback. The test scores were obtained by the percentages of the correct use of the target structure and were submitted to factorial-ANOVAs. After the intervention, the instructor was interviewed and asked questions regarding the ease and effectiveness of communication within the two modes.

The preliminary results indicate that the two modes were not significantly different in terms of their effect on L2 development (Phase 1). However, against our prediction, it was found that (a) the instructor provided more feedback, and (b) the learners were more likely to respond to feedback by modifying their initial errors when they were working within the video-based context. This led to significantly different developmental patterns between the two groups during Phase 2, the experimental group outperforming the control. During the interview, the instructor stated that it was easier to create a rapport with the students and, thus, to promote learning via the virtual interaction. It is concluded, therefore, that video-based SCMC can be a useful teaching tool especially when the instructor is familiar with the interaction mode and appreciates its convenience

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Shona Whyte

Université Nice Sophia Antipolis, Nice, France

whyte@unice.fr - whyteunice@gmail.com

Taking to task(s): exploring task design by novice language teachers in technology-mediated and non-technological activities

Bio data

Shona Whyte is associate professor of English at the University of Nice where she teaches EFL and TEFL and researches classroom interaction, interactive technologies, and teacher education. Recent work focuses on the integration of the interactive whiteboard by language teachers (Implementing and Researching Technological Innovation in Language Teaching, Palgrave Macmillan; Teaching languages with technology, Bloomsbury).

Current research

This paper examines language teaching and learning activities in EFL classes in the French secondary school context with the aim of understanding factors affecting the design and implementation of such tasks. Participants are pre-service teachers in a university Masters in Teaching English programme with a practical component involving classroom observation and teaching. These student teachers designed communicative activities following a common design brief which leaves the technological component open (Samuda, 2005). Data include teaching materials and activity descriptions, reflective writing, questionnaire data, semi-structured individual and group interviews, and practitioner analysis of learner language. Analysis combines coding of the resulting tasks (Erlam, 2015) with qualitative analysis of questionnaire, interview and reflective writing data. Results suggest wide variation in proposed teaching and learning activities, in the design process, and in reflection on classroom implementation in both technology-mediated and non-technological tasks.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The design of language teaching and learning activities as defined broadly with the terms "task" and "exercise" in the theme of the conference has recently emerged as an important issue in second language teaching research. Viewed as an element of materials development alongside implementation, evaluation, and analysis of materials (Tomlinson, 2012), task design has long been considered a practical activity which is "still largely a practitioner-led practice, not always informed by theories of learning" (Reinders & White, 2010). Task-based and task-oriented teaching have however begun to attract increasing research interest both in technology-mediated contexts (Doughty & Long, 2003; Thomas & Reinders, 2010; Van den Branden et al., 2007) and in non-technological environments (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003, 2009; Johnson, 2003; Samuda, 2005). Indeed, pedagogy and design, as opposed to the integration of technologies per se, have recently been identified by leading CALL figures as both current areas of interest and priorities for ongoing research in our field (Colpaert, 2013; Levy et al., 2015). The academic study of task design offers the chance to improve our understanding of language learning opportunities in the (physical and virtual) language classroom and our models of professional development for language teachers.

Practitioner involvement via action research (Burns, 2005), for instance, or teacher engagement with research more generally, can contribute both to this research enterprise directly and to continuing teacher development. In recent reviews of research in this area, Borg (2010, 2013) highlights the role of teacher research engagement in helping teachers reflect on their planning and decision-making processes, and thus in promoting "new ways of thinking." Research in task planning has examined one aspect of this process using think-aloud protocols to study communicative activities developed by expert practitioners and materials writers using the same prompt or "design brief" (Johnson, 2003; Samuda, 2005). These researchers call for further work to include both more diverse contexts (beyond the commonly studied university or private adult ESL class) and data on the actual implementation of the tasks designed by participants.

The present study seeks to address this gap in the literature by investigating task design and implementation in state school settings and by looking at new teachers rather than expert task designers. It constitutes a partial replication of the Johnson and Samuda studies to investigate how novice EFL teachers design and implement tasks with their learners and the technological opportunities and constraints of their own classrooms. By avoiding a specific focus on technology in the design brief, data can be collected on both technological and non-technological tasks and information gathered on the impact of technological considerations on the task design process. In this way, the study sheds light on how new teachers take to tasks in the process of becoming ELT professionals.

Short paper

The theme of this conference on task design and CALL refers to a broad range of interpretations of the notion of "task." In an early paper Long suggests tasks are "the things people will tell you they do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists" (Long, 1985: 89). Some authors therefore define tasks as "any structured language learning endeavour from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving" (Breen, 1987: 23). Casting tasks in a methodological light, Johnson argues that current interest in task-based teaching can be seen as part of a more general movement over the past few decades away from an interest in the content of language teaching [...] towards the procedures of language teaching [...] and indeed [...] many of the classroom procedures we now call tasks have much in common with what in the 1980s we called communicative activities. (Johnson, 2003: 6, emphasis in original)

Littlewood, too, positions task-like teaching and learning activities "along a continuum according to the extent to which they insist on communicative purpose as an essential criterion (Littlewood, 2004: 320). Indeed, in stricter task-based language teaching (TBLT) definitions, tasks show an orientation towards meaningful language use, being undertaken "with emphasis on meaning" (Bygate et al., 2001), showing "a focus on meaning exchange" (Lee, 2000) and indeed constituting activities where "meaning is primary" (Skehan, 1998: 95). For many TBLT researchers, tasks involve "a communicative purpose" (Willis, 1996) or solutions to "some communication problem" (Skehan, 1998: 95), particularly related to real-world concerns in what Nunan has termed "a rehearsal rationale" (Nunan, 2004: 20). Such writers thus generally contrast "authentic," "meaningful," "communicative" tasks with more restrictive pedagogical exercises; where the latter are designed for language practice, the former should lead to "une production langagière 'non-scolaire'" (Narcy-Combes, 2006) that is, language production for "non-instructional purposes" (Krahnke, 1987: 59). The present paper follows this narrower definition of task common to TBLT frameworks, since this approach to language teaching and learning, developed through second language acquisition (SLA) research, is now the dominant paradigm in many parts of the world (Butler, 2011).

Task-based language teaching and language education policy

For Van den Branden the introduction of TBLT into the world of language education has been a 'top-down' process. The term was coined and the concept developed by SLA researchers and language educators, largely in reaction to empirical accounts of teacher-dominated, form-oriented second language classroom practice. (Van den Branden, 2006: 1)

Indeed, a robust body of empirical research has examined the relationship between TBLT and language learning opportunities (e.g., task complexity and sequencing, Baralt et al., 2014). As Gurzynski-Weiss notes, however, the restriction of this type of research to experimental contexts limits the generalizability of findings (2015: 4).

In spite of the lack of empirical support for the effectiveness of TBLT methods in instructed second and foreign language settings, their adoption at the level of language education policy has been striking in many parts of the globe, including Asia (Butler, 2011; Carless, 2009), New Zealand (Erlam, 2015), and the Netherlands (Van den Branden, 2006). The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) is a case in point, as one of its founding fathers notes:

In keeping with the Council of Europe's non-directive ethos, the CEFR refrains from saying how languages should actually be taught. However, the behavioural terms in which communicative proficiency is defined point unambiguously in the direction of task-based teaching and learning, and this is reinforced by a detailed discussion of tasks and their role in language teaching. The CEFR also refrains from prescribing how communicative proficiency should be assessed, though again the action-oriented approach in general and the discussion of assessment in particular imply a strongly communicative orientation. (Little, 2006)

In France, for example, "from 2007 onward, the CEFR [has been] recognized as the basis of the teaching and learning of languages throughout primary and secondary education in France, including specification of the levels of proficiency that must be attained at different educational levels" (Byrnes, 2007: 644). The "non-directive ethos" identified by Little above notwithstanding, the French ministry of education notes that to facilitate reaching these targets, national FL curricula have been rewritten (or are being rewritten) following the specifications of the CEFR in terms of cultural contents as well as language skills (reception and production). As a direct consequence, the professional development of language teachers is naturally being focused on teaching and assessing according to the aims of the CEFR and its levels. (Bonnet, 2007: 670)

Since language education policy in Europe has adopted the CEFR, and the CEFR is based on tasks in communicative and action-oriented approaches, a second reason for pursuing TBLT is provided. Research into this methodological approach to language teaching and learning is therefore justified both in terms of SLA and by virtue of its central position in current language education policy.

Task design by teachers

Designing teaching materials can justifiably be regarded as an art in itself; for Samuda task design is a complex, highly recursive and often messy process, requiring the designer to hold in mind a vast range of task variables relating to the design-in-process. (Samuda, 2005: 243)

Johnson notes that even highly experienced, expert teachers may show "no ability at all in the materials design realm" (2003: 1). He used a fine-grained analysis of the think-aloud protocols of expert designers working with a common design brief to reveal features common to other types of expertise. Samuda (2005, 2007) compared the design and implementation of tasks by expert and novice teacher designers and found differences in both the form of the tasks they planned and the way they put them into

practice. Specifically, when faced with time management problems in the classroom, for example, one novice teacher in her study “detasked” or stripped the activity of key communicative features, while the more experienced practitioner was able to “retask” a shortened adaptation which preserved these important elements (Samuda, 2007).

Classroom implementation of TBLT

Given the foregoing presentation of the place currently accorded TBLT both in second language research and in foreign language classrooms around the world, it is perhaps not surprising that language teachers have come under sustained pressure to adopt the main tenets of this approach, and that many have resisted these efforts to change classroom practice for a variety of reasons. Our recent work on language teacher integration of interactive whiteboard (IWB) technology, for example, suggests that teacher uptake of technological affordances is not closely linked to pedagogical change (Cutrim Schmid & Whyte, 2012). A longitudinal study of nine French EFL teachers’ implementation of IWB-mediated teaching found that only four teachers proposed activities meeting at least some of the communicative and task-based criteria promoted during the project, with only two producing a significant proportion of more task-oriented activities (Whyte & Alexander, 2014).

Explanations of why teachers do not adopt new methodologies are offered by research in teacher cognition, which provides a framework in which to “consider how what language teachers think, know, and do, relates to learning” (Borg, 2003). Other approaches to research into language teaching practice and teacher education such as action research have been developed with the goal of supporting change. In her overview of the advantages of this form of classroom research, Burns includes two goals which speak to the two types of top-down pressure to adopt TBLT described above. In her view, action research can

- underpin and investigate curriculum change or innovation and to understand the processes that occur as part of an educational change;
- provide a vehicle for reducing the gaps between academic research findings and practical applications in the classroom.

(Burns, 2005: 62)

In an article on the diffusion and implementation of innovations, Van den Branden suggests a number of ways to facilitate change, suggesting the implementation of innovation may be enhanced when

- innovations are easy to understand;
- the teacher is allowed time and space to try out the innovation;
- teachers are able to observe colleagues while trying out the innovation;
- [it] is perceived by teachers as practically doable and compatible with practical constraints.

(Van den Branden, 2009: 664)

How, then, do the difficulties associated with task design and classroom innovation play out when teachers are pushed towards TBLT practices in the language classroom?

Teacher education in task design

Erlam (2015) conducted a recent study of task design by practicing language teachers enrolled in a year-long teacher development programme which sought to take some of Van den Branden’s (2009) recommendations into account with respect to introducing TBLT-related innovation. She analysed the tasks developed by 43 teachers of mainly beginning learners of a variety of foreign languages in New Zealand primary and secondary schools according to four TBLT criteria drawn from Ellis (2003) which were emphasized during training:

1. the primary focus should be on meaning;
 2. there should be some kind of gap;
 3. learners should have to rely on their own resources;
 4. there is a clearly defined outcome other than the use of language.
- (Erlam, 2005: 10).

Erlam found that 82% of the teachers' tasks met at least three of these criteria, though only 47% fulfilled all four, while only one of the 43 tasks fulfilled no task criteria. The teachers experienced most difficulty implementing the second task feature concerning a "gap," which some interpreted as related to noticing interlanguage deficiencies rather than the intended information gap, and the third criterion, which the author conceded was also more difficult to code consistently. In another study involving Spanish instructors at a US university, a qualitative analysis of videotaped lessons, reflective journals, interviews and questionnaires, results revealed the greatest difficulties were related to interpreting the "communicative outcome of the tasks" (Gurzynski-Weiss, 2015: 16).

The present study seeks to extend the lines of research discussed in this section by investigating the design and implementation of tasks by novice EFL teachers in French secondary school settings drawing on a common design brief (Samuda, 2005) and the task criteria developed by Ellis (2003) and Erlam (2015).

Method

Participants in the study were pre-service secondary school EFL teachers in their first year of a 2-year masters programme at a French university. In addition to courses in English studies (literature, cultural studies, grammar, translation) to prepare for national teaching entrance examinations, students also have courses in EFL teaching and work with a tutor (an experienced practitioner) in local secondary schools to complete two short teaching placements with a classroom research component.

Design brief: Student teachers worked in groups of three to five to prepare a communicative activity for their teaching placement (Appendix A). Each group presented their materials to the class for feedback on the design, then each student taught the session to their own class and observed another student doing so.

Evaluation grid: An evaluation grid adapted from Erlam (2015) was used by the student teachers during the design process and by the students and their tutors after implementation of the activities (Appendix B).

The data include

- task descriptions and teaching materials;
- student-teacher and experienced practitioner feedback on tasks via the evaluation grid;
- focus group discussion and reflective writing on the design and implementation process.

The conference presentation will present the analysis of these data and discuss the findings with respect to the design and implementation of tasks by these pre-service EFL teachers in the French secondary school context.

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PAPER PRESENTATIONS

Antonie Alm

University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand

antonie.alm@otago.ac.nz

Technology-mediated task-based listening: from authentic input to authentic response

Bio data

Antonie Alm (PhD UCLA) is a senior lecturer in the Department of Languages & Cultures at the University of Otago in New Zealand. She teaches courses in German language and culture and in CALL. She has published in the areas of L2 motivation and learner autonomy. Her current research focuses on informal online language learning practices of foreign language students.

Current research

In this presentation I propose to discuss the use of L2 podcasts for extensive listening from a TBLT perspective. I will describe a unit for intermediate German language students who followed a podcast of their choice (authentic input) for one semester and kept a weekly blog in which they wrote about their listening experiences and commented on their classmates' entries (authentic response). The task will be discussed with reference to González-Lloret & Ortega's (2013) five key definitional features of technology-based tasks: focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centeredness, holism and reflective learning. Excerpts from the students' blogs will be used to illustrate the communicative outcome of the task, and further to suggest that a technology-mediated learner-led approach to TBLT extends traditional concepts of TBLT.

Task-based language learning and teaching

New tasks for TBLT

With multiple definitions of tasks and task-based language teaching to choose from, I start with a basic tenet of traditional TBLT:

Tasks are, according to Long (1985), "the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (p. 89). These mundane activities are at the core of the TBLT syllabus. Developed into 3-phased pedagogical tasks, they provide "an opportunity for 'natural' learning inside the classroom" (Ellis 2009, p. 242) and create a link between the "real-world" and the classroom.

My (basic) argument is as follows: 1) Technology has a major impact on the things we do in everyday life, thus creating new tasks. 2) L2 learners are able to engage with these activities, in a similar way to native speakers, in their personal space. 3) This calls for a broadening of the traditional concept of TBLT, a shift from "controlled and structured activities" (Ortega 2009, in Lai & Li 2011, p. 501), to a more flexible learner-centered approach, supporting language learners to engage in real-world activities.

I will use the example of L2 listening to illustrate my case.

Long (2014) lists reading the newspaper or watching TV as examples of target tasks. These "real-world" activities have diversified over the last decade, with most newspapers

having online editions, supplemented by videos and reader comments. Equally most TV programmes have accompanying websites, Facebook pages etc. and are available on demand. These features do not just provide additional linguistic support for language learners but importantly also enable them to engage in authentic listening, that is listening in the same conditions as native speakers. That means that the task is not merely preparing for but representing a “real-world” task.

The use of online listening materials in a TBLT syllabus suggests a flipped approach, whereby learners receive guidance to access and to process materials in their own space. Ellis (2009) made a case for input-based tasks (eg. reading or listening) which can be used as the basis of subsequent language use. An online listening task has to be goal-oriented and should include an “authentic response” (Vandergrift & Goh 2102, p. 184) and opportunities for self-reflection as part of an experimental learning process (González-Lloret & Ortega 2013, p. 6).

Technology-mediated tasks create new opportunities for TBLT. They extend beyond the classroom, involve authentic online practices and support a more holistic approach of TBLT.

Short paper

Introduction

Technology has long been associated with listening instruction, ever since the phonograph transported native speaker voices into language classrooms. While the technology enriched the learning experience, it did not change listening education at its core. Listening tasks traditionally focused on comprehension testing and provided little scope for interaction.

Podcasts and on-demand technologies have broadened the range of listening materials for language learning and created fundamentally new conditions for listening generally, both for L1 and L2 speakers. The sight of headphones in public areas has become common place, and it is anyone's guess if people are listening to a song, a news flash, a sports commentary or an audio book. And the keen language learner might well have tuned in on any of these in their second language.

As the what and the how of listening have changed, so have the conditions for listening in language education. In their introductory chapter of technology-mediated TBLT, González-Lloret & Ortega (2013) address the issue of emerging “new language education needs” (p. 6) and the resulting demand for “curricular and instructional responses” (p. 7). Their proposed key definitional features of technology-based tasks - focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centeredness, holism and reflective learning - directly relate to technology-mediated task-based listening, based on authentic input, authentic listening and authentic response.

Authentic input

As an example, German news programmes are available equally to listeners in Germany, Spain and New Zealand. Listeners are able to listen to podcasts on their computer at home or in the university library, or on their mobile devices on their way to work. This kind of listening is embedded in everyday practices, relating to the notion of holism.

Authentic listening

Authenticity relates to the material itself and further to the meaning it holds for the learner. Listening is always a subjective experience, based on the learner’s personal background. In that sense it relates to the key characteristic of learner centeredness. To listen authentically, learners have to be able to make their own listening choices and to apply their preferred listening strategies, involving their “linguistic and non-linguistic

resources, as well as their digital skills" (González-Lloret & Ortega 2013, p. 6). To an extent, authentic listening also relates to focus on meaning on which listening experiences will be based, rather than on linguistic form.

Authentic response

The two last features presented by González-Lloret & Ortega (2013) are goal orientation and reflective learning. They appear in this section as they both relate to the outcome or the response the learner should provide to a task in a TBLT framework. An authentic listening response is a response that "reflect[s] the ways people use information obtained through listening" (Vandergrift & Goh 2012, p. 174). Responses to one-way listening texts usually require an additional stimulus (e.g. sharing the content with an interested person, or online by leaving a response in a comment section) and need to be planned for to guarantee "a language-and-action experience" (González-Lloret & Ortega, p. 6). The example provided in the next section illustrates how intermediate German learners used individual blogs to write about and also to reflect on their listening experiences.

The Task

The listening task described here is taken from a study on the use of podcasts in language learning (Alm 2013). The original study had 28 participants, all intermediate students of German at a university in New Zealand. The basic structure of the task is outlined below, followed by extracts of learner blogs and their analysis according to the criteria presented in the previous section.

Pre-task (preparation): Participants received a list of German podcasts and were introduced to the German iTunes store. In addition, some podcasts were presented in class.

Task: They were asked to subscribe to several podcasts of their choice and to listen to these podcasts in their own time.

Post-task 1: They reported on what they listened to in their weekly blog. They also read their classmates' blog entries and commented on their listening experiences.

Post-task 2: At the end of the semester, they wrote a review on a podcast of their choice.

The Blogs

Used as a learning journal, participants used their blogs to write (in German) about different aspects of their learning, including the podcasts they listened to each week. Responses varied between participants but also seemed to depend on the genre of the text.

One of the podcasts presented in class was the telenovela "Alisa – follow your heart". The programme had just started on German public TV and had received high viewer rankings. It could be watched on demand or as podcast on iTunes (*authentic input*). Participants were presented with the trailer in class. Some laughed and commented about its cheesy nature and ... started watching it. Over the semester seven female and two male participants joined in discussing the programme in their blogs. Below is a selection of extracts from their individual blog entries.

Extracts from blogs (translated)

D – 26 March I watched "Alisa – follow your heart" as well. If **H** would now read my blog, he would think why do you watch such a stupid podcast. But it was not as cheesy as the part we watched in class. I liked watching it, because you can watch a whole episode. ... I have learned new words from the podcast, and also some new expressions, e.g. *Stop seeing everything black!* [Hör auf alle schwarz zu sehen!] I am guessing that the expression means, not to see everything negatively. I also heard *don't you have*

them all there [hast du nicht alle da] and I think that comes from the expression *you don't have all the cups in the cupboard anymore*. [sie hat nicht alle Tassen im Schrank]

- **H** commented: Ha I knew you would watch it.

L – 4 April I have also read **D's** Blog and she also wants to watch "Alisa – follow your heart" now. I like that, because we can talk about the episodes and discuss things we didn't understand.

- **O** commented: What is the program "Alisa – follow your heart"??? Everyone is talking about it. Maybe I should watch it too. But it sounds a bit... (ummm, how do you say it in German, or English???, "girly"!!!!) Maybe it is better if I talked to A about football....

H – 23 April I also watched "Alisa", because I thought I should not criticise what I haven't seen. It was a waste of 20 minutes. Now I can criticize it. The German was at the right level but it was so boring and „cheesy“

- **R** commented: H, "Alisa" is fantastic! You obviously don't know anything.
- **K** commented: I agree with **R**!

T – 2 May **H** wrote in his blog last week that he watched "Alisa – follow your heart" and he thought it was terrible. That made me curious, and I thought I need to see what's so bad about it. **H** obviously doesn't know what a good TV program is. "Alisa" is great! There is a woman (Ellen) who is pregnant, and her fiancé (Christian) left her for Alisa! Ellen now tries to entice Christian with the baby to get him back, but the child is actually not his (but he doesn't know that of course!) it is the child of a husband of a model (who is also Ellen's girlfriend!) and this model cannot have kids! What can you not love about this?! And the people say things like "I don't need your promise, I need you!" So dramatic...so good. Also there is a practical reason: it is much longer than other podcasts, you can sit and listen to 40 minutes of German! **J** wrote in her blog that she liked the authentic German podcast. I agree, and that is another reason because "Alisa – follow your heart" is good! Now I have a new favorite podcast, and I don't want to be embarrassed about it :p

- **S** commented: I also have to watch "Alisa – follow your heart". I have heard a lot of good things about it.
- **H** commented: I like watching "Home and Away" better. Lol it is much better.
- **L** commented: Yay – you watch "Alisa" too! **H** doesn't like it because the German is too difficult for him, or he is jealous [*niegerig] of Christian or I don't know. Haha

T – 9 May Hello **L**! Yes, I have the same opinion as you, H is probably jealous [neidisch] of Christian! Or, I think, maybe he watches it, but he doesn't tell anyone...It is okay **H**, we wouldn't hold it against you =P ! I hope I didn't write anything in my blog about Alisa that you didn't know yet, I don't want to ruin it for you!

K – 10 May I still watch "Alisa – follow your heart"... I am sure I would be bored without this program, it is just so great! It is just a pity, that there are no subtitles, otherwise I would tell all my friends they should watch it. They don't know what they are missing out on! I think this is a good example of the advantages of learning another language... ☺

Discussion

Authentic input

As mentioned above, the telenovela was a popular programme on German television. Participant T refers to the appeal of authentic German podcasts (line 30-31), particularly longer ones (such as the telenovela) which enable language learners to immerse themselves in the German-speaking environment.

Authentic listening

Made for a German audience, the programme also appealed to New Zealand viewers. The female participants seemed to be able to identify with the characters, whereas the male participants not only showed little interest but also made fun of their classmates. The need to relate to the content is highlighted by H's comment (lines 17-19). While the content was perceived as authentic and at the appropriate language level, he had no personal interest in it and described it as "a waste of 10 minutes". D and T on the other hand enjoyed the programme, not only because of the plot but also because of the expressions they learned in context. The exchange between L and T (lines 41-44) provides some evidence of the focus on meaning occurring in their interaction. L insinuates that H might be jealous of one of the attractive main characters of the programme and writes *niegerig instead of neugierig (jealous). Her interlocutor picks up on this thought, spelling the word correctly in her reply, without making any comment on the error.

Authentic response

What do people normally do after they have watched a programme? The blog extracts provided a range of answers to this question: If they like it, they want to share it (line 47), they want to talk about it (line 11), they tell others what it is about (lines 25-28), they try to convince them that it is good (line 33), they apologise for having given away what happened (lines 43-44) or justify themselves for watching a low-brow programme (lines 1-2). Participants delivered a spectrum of authentic responses, which in turn, encouraged others to watch the programme. Even the critical H admitted to having checked it out. His negative comment led others to gossip about him. T playfully involved H in her post to L. She addressed him directly (line 43), suggesting that he might be secretly listening to their conversation - just as he is secretly watching "Alisa".

Conclusion

The range of responses is in stark contrast to traditional listening exercises where a response to a listening text is the correct answer to provided listening questions. Participants contrasted this approach to earlier experiences of listening instruction:

all we did in high school was read or watch something and have to answer questions. It was so boring, actually painful. So it's good to not always have to answer questions which is more of an assessment mode and it is irritating.

The use of comprehension questions (which according to feedback from participants in focus group interviews is widespread) provides instructors with an element of control. However, the examples provided in this paper demonstrate that putting learners in charge can create natural listening and speaking situations and lead to natural language use. Participants have supplied responses to their listening input which could not have been anticipated and incorporated into a task design.

What are the implications for TBLT? If the purpose of tasks is to generate talk between learners (Ellis, 2014), learner needs, wants and motivations, as well as their digital needs have to be considered. González-Lloret (2014) has repeatedly proposed the need for needs analyses in TBLT. While this is certainly an important starting point, it seems crucial that learner choices and decision making inform task-based design throughout the task process.

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Maha Alghasab

University of York, York, United Kingdom

Ma716@york.ac.uk

Wiki-based collaborative writing activities in EFL classrooms: exploring teachers' online interventions in the collaborative process

Bio data

Currently I am a third year PhD student at the University of York. I have MSc in applied linguistics from Edinburgh University. Previously, I was working as an EFL teacher.

Current research

Research interests: Online collaboration, Wiki-based collaborative writing activity, Student-Student(S-S) interaction, language teachers' roles and Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA).

My current research interests related to collaboration and collaborative writing activity in L2 context. Collaborative writing activity is considered one of the most beneficial meaning-focused tasks that can promote language learning (Storch, 2011, 2013; Swain 2000). As a task, it gives students opportunities to produce a joint text which helps them to articulate their thoughts, contemplate their language use, notice their linguistic gaps and rely on each other's L2 knowledge to solve these gaps (Storch, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Research findings in Face To Face (FTF) context, provided positive findings about this activity, suggesting that it can promote writing skills and vocabulary acquisition (Kim, 2008; Shehadeh, 2011), help students to engage in collaboration and collective scaffolding (Donato, 1994; Storch, 2001, 2002) and enhance the quality of the text (Dobao, 2012; Storch, 1999).

In my research, I am exploring the nature of S-S interaction in wiki-based collaborative writing activities. Similar to FTF context, L2 research to date suggests that wiki-based collaborative writing activities have the potential to facilitate collaboration (Arnold, Ducate, Lomicka, & Lord, 2009; Li, 2013; Li & Zhu, 2011), promote attention to form (Bradley, Lindstrom, & Rystedt, 2010; Elola & Oskoz, 2010; Lee 2010), attention to meaning (Arnold, Ducate, & Kost, 2012; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010) and develop writing and summary skills (Alshumaimeri, 2011; Wichadee, 2010). However, not all previous research has provided positive findings; some students reportedly exhibit non-collaborative behaviors when interacting with others (Arnold et al., 2012; Arnold et al., 2009; Li & Zhu, 2011), pay less attention to form (Kessler, 2009) and exhibit reluctance and concern about the issue of individual ownership of the text (Alyousef & Picard, 2011; Grant, 2009; Lund & Smordal, 2006; Lund 2008). In my study, I am exploring ways in which language teachers can promote S-S collaboration while engaged in wiki-based collaborative writing activity. Although previous L2 wiki research called for more teachers' intervention, this topic has not been investigated in-depth yet. To date, most of L2 wiki research has primarily been conducted to investigate S-S interaction, rather than exploring how teachers can promote that interaction. Furthermore, the majority of research has been conducted in the university context with adults, with few studies in school contexts (Lund & Smordal, 2006; Lund 2008; Mak & Coniam, 2008; Woo, Chu, & Li, 2013).

Task-based language learning and teaching

My study focuses on one type of meaning-focused task, which is an online collaborative writing activity, referring to “the joint production or the co-authoring of a text by two or more writers” (Storch, 2011, p. 275). From L2 sociocultural perspective (SCT), this activity creates a social learning context in which students interact together in a meaningful activity where opportunities of language learning can co-occur (Donato, 1994; Storch, 2013; Swain 2000). Although, my study did not focus on the design of such a task in CALL contexts, it nevertheless highlights an important issue related to teachers’ roles during this activity.

Generally in any L2 task (including online wiki collaborative writing activity), the interaction is supposed to be student-centered with minimal teacher intervention; however, research findings suggest that simply asking students to work together on a particular task may not always guarantee their engagement in interactions that are conducive to language learning (Donato, 1994; Li & Zhu, 2011; Storch, 2002). Some students may work individually, dominate the interaction or even remain passive in the activity, which may limit the opportunities of language learning. Furthermore, some students might resolve language-related Episodes (LREs) incorrectly because of their low proficiency levels (De la Colina & Garcia Mayo, 2007; Lesser, 2004) and incorrectly resolved LREs may be internalized to individual performance (Storch, 2002). Most importantly, in the online wiki context instances of unequal participation and low mutuality may also occur, which may limit the learning advantage afforded by this activity in this particular context (Arnold et al., 2009; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010; Li & Zhu, 2011).

In the FTF context, studies suggest that one way of promoting S-S productive interaction is by asking the teacher to intervene in S-S interactions, while students are engaging on any task (Mercer & Fisher, 1992; Rojas-Drummond, Mercer, & Dabrowski, 2001; Yoon & Kim, 2012). From a SCT perspective, teachers could play the role of social mediators who can guide the process of S-S knowledge construction (Mercer, 1995). For example, they can regulate S-S collaboration by employing a variety of strategies such as modeling, *linguaging* and creating a collaborative classroom culture (Martin-Beltran, 2012). In addition to evidence from FTF context, web 1.0 context (e.g. discussion forum) suggest that online teachers’ intervention have an impact not only on the level of participation, but also on the quality of S-S discussion (Lamy & Goodfellow, 1999; Zhang, Gao, Ring, & Zhang, 2007)

Taking into consideration this line of argument, I am attempting to explore how secondary school EFL teachers intervene in S-S interactions while students interact in wiki based collaborative writing activities. Motivated by SCT, the notion of collaboration and dialogic theories, I am investigating how teachers’ behaviors either promote or hinder S-S online collaboration during this activity. To be more precise, my study aimed to examine how far S-S interaction can be classified as collaborative. Teachers were asked to intervene in the online mode, and as a consequence, I attempt also explore what teachers’ behaviors trigger effective S-S collaboration during this online collaborative activity.

It is certain that the design of a CALL task is critical to its value; however, equally important is exploring the process of online interaction when engaging in that task. By exploring S-S interactions, we can understand whether the online activity promotes types of interactions that are conducive to language learning. Furthermore, aside from the prior design of the task, it is also very important to understand what teachers can do to promote collaborative interactions while students are performing CALL activity. This research will not only help us to explore the value of this activity and nature of teachers’ online practices , but also gives us opportunities to attain insights into issues that can either promote or hinder the beneficial aspects of S-S online wiki collaboration

Abstract

This study explores teachers' and students' online behaviours when engaging in wiki-based collaborative writing activities. More precisely, it explores teachers' roles in promoting students' online wiki collaboration. A qualitative multiple case study design was used. The participants were three EFL teachers and their secondary school students (aged 17 to 18 years) from two Kuwaiti government secondary schools. The data were collected over a period of 13 weeks. Threaded discussions and edit history were analysed and triangulated with interviews with teachers and their students.

Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (Herring, 2004; 2013) of the interaction during wiki activities, i.e. in the wiki text and threaded modes, suggested that students interacted differently in each case. In two cases, students wrote individually, with few instances of engagement in collaborative behaviours via the threaded and text modes. The majority of the interactions were characterised as Student-Teacher (S-T) rather than Student-Student (S-S) interactions. In the third case, there was positive collaborative behaviour in the form of co-constructing the wiki text together, collaborative dialogue and collective scaffoldings (Donato, 1994; Swain, 2000). Closer examination of the teacher's behaviour suggested students' collaboration was influenced by the way in which their teachers intervened in students' interactions. Some teachers' interventional strategies appeared to promote collaboration, while others hindered it. Furthermore, interview data highlighted issues related to the broader social and institutional context of the classroom, which also appeared to influence the ways in which teachers and students interacted.

In conclusion, the findings of the study confirm the key role that teachers play in regulating students' online wiki collaborations. However, it is argued that it is not sufficient for teachers to be present in wiki activities. Rather, they need to employ strategies to encourage dialogic interaction between students themselves actively. It is therefore recommended that training for teachers on the use of wikis focuses on pedagogy, as well as on the technological aspects of the environment.

Introduction

Collaborative writing refers to "the joint production or the co-authoring of a text by two or more writers" (Storch, 2011, p. 275). During the writing process, students' interactions can be characterised as collaborative when there is a high degree of equality (students contribute equally to the task) and mutuality (learners' level of engagement with others' contributions) (Li & Zhu, 2011; Storch, 2002; Tan, Wigglesworth & Storch, 2010). Collaboration can be evident in students' discourse, which should then exhibit high mutuality. This refers to the rich interaction in reciprocal feedback, sharing ideas with others, considering other's proposals, seeking help and feedback from others, giving help and feedback to others and using a first person plural pronoun (we) throughout the interaction to denote joint ownership of the task (Storch, 2013). Students have to engage in languaging, that is, in sharing their ideas about language use and constructing linguistic knowledge together through 'collaborative dialogue' (Swain, 2000). When engaged in collaborative writing, students have to engage in discussions about their own and their peers' writing, as well as showing willingness to incorporate others' suggestions into the text and to edit their own and others' writing (Bradley, Lindstrom, & Rystedt, 2010). However, it should be noted that composing a collaborative text is not always done collaboratively; students may contribute to the task equally but have low mutuality, despite working cooperatively. That means all students participate in working towards accomplishing a task, but there is a division of labour, in which participants focus on individual aspects of the task but do not engage with each other's contributions (Roschelle & Teasley, 1995; Underwood & Underwood, 1999). The completion of the

collaborative text is made up of individually composed sentences written in a parallel mode (Bradley et al., 2010; Tan et al., 2010).

Wiki is an asynchronous collaborative web tool with an open editing system that allows subscribed participants to edit content (Godwin-Jones, 2003). L2 empirical studies have reported the effectiveness of using wikis to promote students' collaboration during the completion of writing activities. Although some studies have found evidence of positive collaborative behaviours (Bradley et al., 2010; Kessler & Bikowski, 2010; Li & Zhu, 2011), others have reported inactivate and unequal participation (Arnold, Ducate, Lomicka, & Lord, 2009), reluctance, and concern regarding ownership of the text (Grant, 2009; Lund 2008) and less attention to form (Kessler, 2009). It has therefore been suggested that teachers have a role to play in promoting collaboration during wiki activities. Although the role of teachers has been emphasised in FTF and Web 1.0 contexts (Lamy & Goodfellow, 1999; Mercer, 1995; Yoon & Kim, 2012), few studies have explored the role of teachers in the context of online wiki activities.

In order to address this gap in the literature, the following overarching research question and sub-questions were investigated:

Q1: What online behaviours by teachers promote or hinder student-student (S-S) online wiki collaboration?

1a. What collaborative-non collaborative behaviours do students engage in while completing their wiki collaborative writing activity?

1b. How do teachers intervene in students' online wiki interaction?

Methodology

To answer these research questions, a qualitative multiple case study design was adopted. Three EFL teachers and their classroom students participated in the study, which lasted for 13 weeks. The students and teachers received technical wiki training, and students were then asked to design a wiki poster about Kuwait. Teachers were asked to intervene in students' online interactions while they were completing the activity. Data collection methods involved background interviews and questionnaires, observing and tracking online wiki interaction, two stimulated recall interviews with each teacher, and post project semi-structured interviews with the three teachers and students in the embedded groups.

To analyse the wiki interaction, principles of Computer Mediated Discourse Analysis (CMDA) were adopted, taking into consideration the technological facets of the wiki, namely threading and edits. Students' behaviours in the wiki-threaded mode were analysed, and where appropriate matched with their writing behaviours. To analyze the online interaction several analytical frameworks were adapted (Arnold et al., 2009; Li, 2013; Nguyen, 2011).

Finding and discussion

The observation of one embedded case from each teacher's class suggested some variation in the ways in which students interacted with each other. In cases one and two, students exhibited some non-collaborative behaviour, such as working individually, competitively and showing great dependence on the teacher. There were few instances of mutuality in the form of elaborating or editing others' texts, providing constructive feedback or incorporating others' suggestions into the final collaborative text. This finding is line with other studies which were conducted in school contexts where students (Lund and Smordal, 2006; Lund, 2008; Grant, 2009). Some students also refused their peers' editing and preferred to obtain feedback from their teacher. Instances of languaging were not reported between students (S-S) but rather mostly occurred between students and the teacher (S-T). In the third case, students interacted collaboratively, exhibiting a great level of mutuality. They engaged in collective and iterative planning over the creation of the text, organised their work together; questioned their own and other's language use (namely languaging) and engaging in 'collective scaffolding' (Donato, 1994)

and collaborative dialogue (Swain, 2000), which allowed new knowledge that goes beyond individuals' competence to be shared and constructed. The third case findings concurred with previous research findings which reported a high level of collaboration between students (e.g. Li, 2013; Li and Zhu, 2011).

The interviews with students suggested that their behaviours were also affected by issues related to their socio-cultural and institutional context. In the wiki context, the students still recognised the teacher's superior knowledge and deferred to her authority. They continued to see their teachers as the most reliable source of knowledge and refused to claim authority by editing other's texts. Some students refused edits performed by others, due to their doubts about their peers' editing. In cases one and two, some students were not collaborating due to their lack of confidence in their L2 abilities. They hesitated to post comments to avoid making mistakes in front of teachers and other peers.

To conclude, although it has been argued elsewhere that teachers' intervention in the wiki is important (e.g. Kessler, 2009), this study has demonstrated that it is not sufficient for teachers to be present in the wiki. Some teachers' behaviours were found to hinder rather than promote S-S collaboration. Furthermore, broader cultural and institutional issues affect the ways in which teachers intervene, and how students interact. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers should actively encourage dialogic interaction between the students themselves. Moreover, teacher training, as related to the use of wikis should focus on pedagogy, as well as on technological aspects of the environment.

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Christine Appel* & Joan-Tomàs Pujolà**

Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Barcelona, Spain*
Universitat de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain**

mappel@uoc.edu - jtpujola@ub.edu

Tandem MOOC: a new approach to LMOOC course and task design

Bio data

Christine Appel is the Director of the research Institute eLearn Center at the Universitat Oberta de Catalunya (UOC) in Barcelona, Spain. She has also coordinated EFL and teacher training courses at the UOC. She holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Dublin, Trinity College. Her current research interests include Computer-mediated Communication, Task-based Learning, and Computer-supported collaborative learning in the L2.

Joan-Tomàs Pujolà is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Language Teaching at the Faculty of Education, University of Barcelona (UB). He is director of the Máster Interuniversitario de Formación de Profesores de Español como Lengua Extranjera. He holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Edinburgh. His research interests focus on CALL, Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language, Language Learning Autonomy and Language Teacher Education.

Current research

The context of this research is an L-MOOC to develop speaking skills in an L2 (English/Spanish) and strategies for optimizing opportunities for oral interaction with native speakers online. The approach is based on tandem principles (Little & Brammerts, 1996), and targeted at B1/B2 or above adult learners of Spanish and English who are native or near-native speakers of one of these two languages. This 6-week MOOC was offered in the fall-term and was a joint initiative by three Catalan universities: Universitat Oberta de Catalunya, Universitat de Barcelona and the Universitat Rovira i Virgili.(1).

This study focuses on the course and task design strategy adopted by a multidisciplinary team formed by instructional designers, language teachers, language material authors and EdTech developers. The course design uses a Learning Design Studio inquiry-based framework for professional development of educational practitioners (Mor & Mogilevsky, 2013) and the design for the speaking tasks was based on Robinson's model of Task Complexity (2011).

In an initial planning phase, a general design was made as well as a list of decisions which would have to be reviewed during the deployment of the course. Once the course started the team met weekly to review the progress of the course and made decisions which resulted in new implementations. The planning phase is determined by the specific features of the MOOC (tandem, bilingual, synchronous communication), and the deployment phase by the context, agents and dynamics created by the tandem MOOC learning community. The decision-making in the second phase was based on quantitative indicators of participation, as well as qualitative analysis of social media and forum comments, and tutor reflections on the progress of the tandem MOOC. This paper reports on the decisions and changes relevant to task design that derived from the context of the MOOC.

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Task-based language learning and teaching

One of the main challenges for both face-to-face and online language courses is teaching oral skills. For the former, contact hours cannot possibly offer enough opportunities for speaking practice. For the latter providing the communication tools and organizing synchronous meetings at a distance can be a hurdle. The same is true for LMOOCs with the added difficulty of managing large numbers of participants when collaboration and interaction are key to ensure meaningful speaking practice. A large number of participants connecting from different educational backgrounds and geographical locations also increase the complexity of designing authentic, meaningful and enjoyable tasks that cater for this diversity.

The tasks designed for this MOOC aim at helping students learn to reflect on, develop and improve learning and communication strategies that equip them to handle spoken conversation with native speakers successfully. To do this the course adopts a tandem approach, and the principles of bilingualism and reciprocity guide the task design throughout the course. The sequencing and increased difficulty of the tasks as the participant progresses is based on Robinson's Task complexity model (2011).

The MOOC takes advantage of the Massive and Open nature of these types of courses to provide students with enough interlocutors, contents and materials addressing defined learning objectives. The three main objectives of the course are as follows: a) to develop learner autonomy providing learners with opportunities to revise one's own performance in a foreign language, identify learning needs and request help from a native speaker accordingly; b) to develop learning strategies for speaking interaction in a foreign language; and c) to practise speaking skills in Spanish/English. The first two objectives are addressed through materials and guided self-evaluation making use of online tasks with automatic feedback. The third objective, improving speaking skills, is dealt with through tasks with a system of peer-evaluation in that in any given activity, one of the partners will be an expert of the target language of the other.

In this paper we present the criteria and methodological issues for task design and examples of the 8 self-access units, 40 interactive tandem tasks and peer-feedback activities which were developed for this 6-week MOOC. We also describe the design of interaction dynamics which offered participants two models for meeting with tandem partners. One is based on the "chat-roulette" concept in which learners are paired randomly when connecting to the tandem app making it possible to have conversations with different partners with no need to plan in advance. In a different possible option, learners can pre-arrange meetings and have the option of choosing a task of their preference.

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Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir & Kolbrún Friðriksdóttir

University of Iceland, Reykjavík, Iceland.

birnaarn@hi.is - kolbrunf@hi.is

Tracking students' behavior online: tasks and retention

Bio data

Birna Arnbjörnsdóttir is Professor of Second Language Studies, University of Iceland. She is the Project Director of Icelandic Online, a web based open and free Icelandic course offered by the University of Iceland.

Kolbrún Friðriksdóttir is a Ph.D. student and Adjunct Professor in Icelandic as a Second Language at the University of Iceland. Kolbrún is the editor of Icelandic Online.

Current research

Fischer (2007) questions the notion that availability of online courses equals use and calls for more diverse data on learners' behavior in CALL (see also Fischer, 2012; Stockwell, 2012; Colpaert, 2012). The issue of students' retention and the inconclusive results about the efficacy of online language courses and their content (Golonka et al, 2014) has received further attention with the increase of MOOCS (Koller et al 2013). In this presentation we will introduce initial results of a mixed method study that follows roughly 40 thousand learners' progression over a 10 year period through the six courses of Icelandic Online, a free and open web based course in Icelandic as a second/foreign language. This is a three tiered mixed method study. Data is collected 1) through mining of 10 years of online tracking data on over 150.000 visitors and 40.000 active learners as they progress through the courses. Tracking data will be analyzed as to learners' success in interactive chains of tasks based on SLA principles (Chapelle, 1998; Fischer, 2007) including Focus on Form and Scaffolding. The second tier of the study involves a large survey eliciting users' views about their intent and progress, the efficacy of course content, specifically FonF and Scaffolded tasks. The final study will involve in-debt interviews about learners' experiences. The authors have previously presented and published on the task development process (Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2004; Friðriksdóttir, in press)

Task-based language learning and teaching

In this presentation we will focus on initial results of tracking data. During the development phase great effort was taken to design plot driven courses with tasks that were authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable (Salmon, 2013) based on „relevant SLA principles (Chapelle, 1998) in order to motivate learners to stay on the courses.

These include input enhancement with Focus on Form, Scaffolding, mnemonic devices, visual presentations of how words change forms, and even providing alternate descriptions of verbal and nominal morphology that are less daunting for the beginning language learner than are traditional grammars.

The tracking data indicate that retention is highest in the beginner courses and peters out at the higher levels about 5% of students who start the courses finish them. Results

of the tracking data show that mode of delivery is a significant factor in student retention (see Harker et al, 2005). The data further suggest concentrations of drop-out at specific junctures in the courses that may indicate that certain types of tasks may cause students to lose interest and leave the course. The issue of non-completing students may raise further questions such as whether they stop because they have got enough information to suit their needs and even whether retention should be measured against registration numbers at all, and rather against student intent (Golonka et al., 2014).

Short paper

Fischer (2007) questions the notion that availability of online courses equals use. He calls for more diverse data on learners' behavior in CALL (see also Fischer, 2012; Stockwell, 2012; Colpaert, 2012). The issue of students' retention and the inconclusive results about the efficacy of online language courses and their content (Golonka et al, 2014) has received further attention with the increase of MOOCS (Koller et al 2013). In this presentation we will introduce initial results of a mixed method study that follows roughly 40 thousand learners' progression over a 10 year period through the seven courses of Icelandic Online, a free and open web based course in Icelandic as a second/foreign language. The target group for IOL is adult (often university level) learners of Icelandic as a second or foreign language. The study has three tiers. First, tracking data is collected and analyzed through mining of 10 years of online use. The data examines student retention but also learners' success in using and completing interactive chains of tasks developed in accordance with certain SLA "principles" (Chapelle, 1998; Fischer, 2007) and include activities based on Focus on Form (Doughty and Williams, 1998) and Scaffolding (Bruner, 1974). The second tier of the study involves a large survey eliciting users' views about their intent and progress, the efficacy of course content, specifically FonF and Scaffolded tasks. The final part of the study will include in-debt interviews about learners' experiences. The authors have previously presented and published on the task development process.

In this presentation we will focus on initial results of tracking data which suggest that students may drop out of the courses at certain junctures. The goal is to examine whether these junctures are task related. During the development phase of *Icelandic Online*, great effort was taken to design plot driven courses with tasks that were authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable (Salmon, 2013) based on relevant SLA principles (Chapelle, 1998) . The main goal was to increase adult learners' motivation to stay on the courses. The tasks include input enhancement with Focus on Form, Scaffolding, various mnemonic devices, visual presentations words changing forms, and even providing alternate descriptions of verbal and nominal morphology of Icelandic that were seen as less daunting for the beginning language learner than are traditional grammars.

Chapelle (2003) suggests that "it is useful to consider multimedia from the perspective of the input it can provide to learners, the output it allows them to produce, the interactions they are able to engage in and the L2 tasks it supports" (p. 26). In some ways multimedia lends itself well to the creation of interactive and visual presentations of grammar in meaningful ways to adult learners. This is especially useful for teaching highly inflected languages like Icelandic. Below are some of the tasks incorporated into Icelandic Online based on 'relevant' theories of SL acquisition and pedagogy.

Chapelle (1998) suggest that one characteristic of good online teaching material might be using devices that help the learner notice specific aspects of the input (p.23) thus making the linguistic characteristics of the target language input more salient. This is based on Schmidt's (1993) notion that the adult language learner has to notice and be aware of the feature in order to learn it. The Focus on Form (Doughty and Williams, 1998) approach was adopted for Icelandic Online where each learning object in the input

has three types of clearly defined goals for pragmatics, vocabulary and structure. Each of the different foci is assigned a different color. The goals for structure (or grammar) are laid out in a three tiered scaffolded presentation (discussed below) and each item relevant to the grammar focus in the particular learning object is highlighted in the online text or dialogue. Each item is enhanced with a different color highlight. The goal is for the learner to be aware of what the learning goals are and what specific elements in the input are relevant to that goal.

Tasks that serve as mnemonic devices are frequent in Icelandic Online. This is relevant based on the notion that languages learning by adults begins like any other learning. Adult students should therefore benefit from mnemonic devices to guide them in their construction of the grammatical system. This becomes highly relevant for morphologically complex languages where the different overt endings strain the learner's memory. One example of such a device is when learners are aided in visual ways by teaching a "rule of thumb" to remember inflectional endings of nouns with different genders as there is a correspondance in Icelandic between possessive pronouns and the definite article suffixes.

Icelandic Online run from very beginner courses to advanced courses. Input is gradual but presented using a loop approach where themes are revisited as the courses advance. The notion of Scaffolding (Bruner, 1974) was adopted throughout the development of Icelandic Online. Scaffolding refers to a methodology whereby a teacher supports a learner in completing a new task and gradually withdraws his help as the learner gains mastery. One example of scaffolding in Icelandic Online is the three-tiered presentation of the grammar and glossary. When the learner clicks on the relevant colored box (described in the FonF section above), the focused grammar is highlighted (1) and a one sentence underlined description appears (2) in this case the focus is on the relevant adverbs in the text. The sentence reads "Different adverbs express either movement with direction or an unchanging situation". If the learner doesn't need nor care to know more, he can continue with the task at hand. If the learner is still curious about adverbs he can go to the second level by clicking on the underlined sentence (3) and a box appears containing more information, still only information about the adverbs relevant to the context. The most grammatically inclined learner can go even further into the whole grammar source (4) and read even more. The idea is not to overwhelm the beginning learner with information he has no use for, given the context of the input and the task at hand, and which studies have shown he is not inclined to seek anyway (Chapelle 2003, Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2006).

Applied Linguistics is a young field of study in Iceland but it builds upon a rich tradition of grammatical inquiry dating back the twelfth century. Existing encyclopaedic descriptions of Icelandic grammar nor existing dictionaries were not appropriate for the new and growing group of learners of modern Icelandic as a foreign language. One of the tasks of those involved in Icelandic Online was to attempt to present grammar in ways that more appropriately serve the needs of beginning learners. In this effort, a new grammar resource/handbook for use online had to be developed based on the notion of frequency and generalizability of grammatical categories. For example the conjugation classes of verbs were simplified from 24 to five classes (Gunnar Þ. Halldórsson 2002). Admittedly, the new presentation came at the cost of accuracy in that many exceptions and classes with few and rarely used verbs were eliminated. Same applies to use of existing dictionaries that proved inappropriate for use with beginning language learners. To bridge this gap, glossaries of key words in the different oral and written texts were provided at the beginning stages and gradually the glossaries were removed as the courses advance.

Facilitating learners' comprehension through use of realia and visuals is a staple in second language teaching. This same idea is used in Icelandic Online to enhance learners' understanding of the various ways in which words change forms. One example is presented through an animated demonstration of how regularly inflected nouns change

form from the nominative to the accusative and dative, and in what context these alternations occur. When change is rule based, the same would apply to the majority of nouns of the same category. The subsequent practice reflect this feature of the language. Different tasks serve to point out to the learner that other nouns belong to irregular classes. These categories are learned by rote, therefore appear more frequently in the input and more opportunities are given for practice.

Again, the basis of this philosophy is that at the beginning stages of language learning, adult learners benefit from instruction that is adapted to their limited target language proficiency without ignoring their maturity and previous learning experiences. Every effort was made to aid the learner in their language development in meaningful ways. As anticipated, the tracking data indicate that retention overall is highest in the beginner courses and peters out at the more advanced levels. Of the learners who begin each course retention is around five percent. The most significant factor in retention is mode of delivery as self- directed learning in blended credit bearing courses retains the highest number of students (see Harker et al, 2005). The issue of non-completing students may raise questions as to whether they stop because they have got enough information to suit their needs and even whether retention should chiefly be evaluated within the context of registration. However, it was of some concern that the data shows concentrations of drop-out at specific junctures in the courses that may indicate that certain types of tasks cause students to lose interest and leave the course. This tracking data is promising for future development of online language learning tasks.

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Katja Årosin Laursen* & Karen-Margrete Frederiksen**

University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen, Denmark

pcq855@hum.ku.dk* - nkd633@hum.ku.dk**

The notion of authenticity in the context of the course: Danish for knowledge workers

Current research

In the process of developing *Danish for Knowledge Workers* - a beginner's CALL course in Danish as a second language for specific academic purposes – one concept seems to frequently crop up: that of *authenticity*.

Already at an early stage in the course development process, we realised the importance of discussing and reflecting on the notion of authenticity – both regarding choice of input and choice of tasks on the course. In the literature, authenticity seems to be applied to a number of different ideas (Breen 1985, van Lier 1996). However, these different ideas do not always seem to be clearly defined (Gilmore 2007, Pinner 2014). At EUROCALL in 2014, Carol Chappelle warned against using the concept of authenticity without carefully defining what is meant by the term. Likewise, Peppi Taalas questioned the uncritical use of the term at FLIN – an ICT conference in Oslo 2014. These observations serve to emphasize the necessity of defining what is meant by the term authenticity in any given context. Consequently, we recognised a need to discuss the concept in order to define how we use it in our course context.

In the talk, we present our reflections on the role of authenticity exemplified by course material and tasks used on the course. Furthermore, we include feedback from the course participants, provided through questionnaires, and findings from an ongoing literature study. This presentation will be relevant to language teachers and researchers who are interested in discussing the concept of authenticity in the context of course design.

Task-based language learning and teaching and the notion of authenticity

In our presentation we discuss the question: What implications does the notion of authenticity have in relation to tasks and learning input in language learning in the context of the course *Danish for Knowledge Workers*? The presentation is based on reflective practice.

Long (2005) claims that courses or learning input based on the idea of one-size-fits-all is an illusion, and that the outcome of this will be very limited for the learner. Learning input and tasks will always depend on the context. Therefore, it is necessary to choose input and tasks which build on needs analyses in relation to the target group in question. Consequently, when we discuss authenticity, it is crucial to consider the target group and their specific needs and language learning objectives. Authenticity makes no sense in itself.

We argue that in order for the language learner to regard the language learning tasks and input as authentic, he or she must perceive the tasks and input as relevant and useful to his or her current and future language needs. As such, we believe that authenticity is perceived subjectively and therefore always depends on the individual learner, which seems to be in line with Breen (1985) and van Lier (1996). We have come

to this understanding of the concept from reflective practice during the designing, developing and running the course.

Our objective with the course has been to create a learning environment in which the participants can work on constructing identities as legitimate Danish-speaking employees by investing (in the sense that Norton and Toohey (2011) use the term) their time and energy in the learning process. In order to do this, we aimed at designing a course which is, as suggested by Mishan and Chambers (2010), relevant, interactive and based on personalized input.

This has been achieved through carrying out needs analyses in order to delimit both content and organisation of the course. These needs analyses consisted of questionnaires sent to all former and current course participants during 2014 and 2015. Furthermore, we received feedback on the tasks and input from the participants as an integrated and ongoing part of the course.

We discuss authenticity in the context of the course *Danish for Knowledge Workers*. The course has been developed in line with legislation from the Danish Ministry of Education and consists of 250 lessons: Five modules of 50 lessons, including a summative test at the end of the course. We define knowledge workers as highly educated employees who typically work at universities and other institutions of higher education and research, or in private companies working with development and research on a level corresponding to that of a university. Therefore, the course is a Danish course for specific academic purposes.

In our presentation we discuss our reflections on authenticity in relation to concrete examples of tasks and input. We invite other language teachers and researchers to join the discussion on authenticity in the context of course design.

Short paper

Introduction

In the process of developing *Danish for Knowledge Workers* - a beginner's CALL course in Danish as a second language for specific academic purposes – one concept seems to frequently crop up: that of *authenticity*.

Already at an early stage in the course development process, we realised the importance of discussing and reflecting on the notion of authenticity – both regarding choice of input and choice of tasks on the course. In the literature, authenticity seems to be applied to a number of different ideas (Breen 1985, van Lier 1996). However, these different ideas do not always seem to be clearly defined (Gilmore 2007, Pinner 2014). At EUROCALL in 2014, Carol Chapelle warned against using the concept of authenticity without carefully defining what is meant by the term. Likewise, Peppi Taalas questioned the uncritical use of the term at FLIN – an ICT conference in Oslo 2014. These observations serve to emphasize the necessity of defining what is meant by the term authenticity in any given context. Consequently, we recognised a need to discuss the concept in order to define how we use it in our course context.

In this paper, we present our reflections on the role of authenticity in the process of developing material and tasks for the course. Furthermore, we include feedback from the course participants, provided through questionnaires, and findings from an ongoing literature study. This paper will be relevant to language teachers and researchers who are interested in discussing the concept of authenticity in the context of course design.

Method

For our course: *Danish for Knowledge Workers*, we applied action research, an acknowledged approach to designing and developing courses, as advocated most prominently by Wallace (1998). The method involves what he terms the 'reflective cycle' (Wallace 1998:12) playing an essential role in the process of designing a course. Consequently, we systematically engaged in this process of reflection on professional practice to ensure that we met the needs of our course participants.

The knowledge workers who participate on our course have the following characteristics in common:

- They have recently arrived in Denmark
- They work or want to work as knowledge workers
- They have a long education
- They are skilled readers
- They have learnt one or more foreign languages
- They primarily use English as a lingua franca at the workplace
- They often find it difficult to find their voice in Danish at the workplace

The needs and wants of these participants form the core of the data in our action research.

Part of the data we present is based on two pretested online questionnaires distributed by email to all current and former participants on the course. The first questionnaire was sent out to 167 participants in June 2014, from which we received 71 replies: 57 completed, and 14 partly answered. The second questionnaire was sent out to 250 participants in the spring of 2015.

The first questionnaire consists of four parts. The first three parts are made up primarily of closed questions, while part four contains open-ended questions.

Part one consists of questions regarding bio-data: nationality, age, gender and mother tongue.

Part two deals with language competences in Danish and other languages. This part includes the self-assessment grid from CEFR as well as information on the course module the respondents are currently attending.

Part three covers Danish language needs and use at the workplace, specifically regarding academic tasks, practical tasks and socialising at work. We also ask questions about the position they hold at the workplace, the duration of their stay, and who they speak Danish with both at the workplace and outside.

Part four is focused on the respondents' experience with the course. They evaluate and reflect on the course format and their own learning process. The questions are focused on the combination of face-to-face learning and online lessons, learning outcomes from online feedback and tasks, learning outcomes from submitting revised versions of texts, the usefulness and relevance of the overall input, and to what extent they feel their suggestions regarding course content and structure are being heard.

One aspect of course development that emerged from the replies to the first questionnaire was that of authenticity. Consequently, in the second questionnaire we added questions specifically related to how participants perceived authenticity on the course.

Besides the data from the questionnaires, ongoing feedback on the tasks and other input from the participants was integrated into the course. Therefore we include relevant feedback from the participants in our presentation.

Finally, to inform the development of the course and our understanding of the notion of authenticity, we conducted a small scale literature study.

Hypotheses and Discussion

The term *authenticity* is a difficult one to pin down. In a state-of-the-art article, Gilmore highlights the difficulty of clearly defining the term by identifying eight inter-related meanings of authenticity put forward by different researchers (2007:98). In order to provide a starting point for reconciling these various positions, he states the following: "My own preference would be to limit the concept to objective criteria since, once we start including subjective notions such as learner authentication, any discourse can be called authentic and the term becomes meaningless" (Gilmore 2007:98).

However, we argue that in order for the language learner to regard the language learning tasks and input as authentic, he or she must perceive the tasks and input as relevant and useful to their current and future language needs. As such, we believe that authenticity is perceived subjectively and in fact always depends on the individual learner, which seems to be more in line with Breen (1985) and van Lier (1996). This is the interpretation of the concept of *authenticity* that we have come to from our reflective practice during the designing, developing and running the course and the one we will be using in this paper.

On the course *Danish for Knowledge Workers*, we made the decision to include both new tailor-made tasks and existing published texts such as participants' intranet pages, e-mails, minutes and videos. Furthermore, we carefully considered how to use the input to create tasks which the participants would find authentic in the given context; what one participant perceives as an authentic situation or task may not be perceived in the same way by another participant. This is why it is so important to base our decisions on needs analyses and ongoing feedback.

We believe that *authenticity* as a concept is invariably bound up with group dynamics. This means that authenticity in any given context always depends on the interplay between the language learners, the teacher, and the tasks and material embedded in the social situation of the classroom. Furthermore, dynamic and ever-changing elements such as motivation, needs, personal circumstances, language learning experience, identity and positioning also play an important role in relation to the group dynamics. All these factors affect each individual learner's perception of the tasks and material at any given point.

To develop an identity as legitimate Danish speaking employees 'investment', in the sense that Norton & Toohey (2011) use the term, is required from both parties: the role of the workplace is to invest time and money in the new employee's Danish language learning, and the role of the employee is to invest time and energy in learning Danish.

We argue that participants must find the input and tasks relevant and useful, i.e. authentic, to provide them with the motivation to invest their time and energy in the course and in language learning. We invite other language teachers and researchers to join in the discussion on authenticity in the context of course design.

Key words: Authenticity, relevance, CALL course design, action research, Danish as a second language, Knowledge Workers

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Ghada Awada & Abir Abdallah

American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon

ghadawada@gmail.com

Effect of using the glogster technological model on enhancing speaking proficiency and decreasing presentation apprehension of communication skills students

Bio data

Ghada Awada is a lecturer at the American University of Beirut. Her research interests focus on the applications of technology in language teaching and learning. Ghada has a 17-year experience in teaching and coordination at schools and Universities. Ghada has authored and coauthored English textbooks and articles.

Abir Abdallah is a Ph.D. Candidate in the Department of English and German Studies in Universitat Rovira i Virgili in Spain. She has been teaching English as a first foreign language for thirteen years. She is an instructor in the faculty of Sciences at the Lebanese University.

Current research

The present paper reports the results of a study that examined the relative effectiveness of the Glogster educational tool in improving the speaking proficiency of university students enrolled in Communication Skills class in Lebanon and on increasing their levels of motivation for delivering presentations. In addition, the study documented the perceptions of the participants with regard to the relevance and efficacy of using Glogster in boosting their creativity and decreasing their presentation apprehension. The study is based on the assumptions that glogging provides an excellent opportunity for teachers to enhance students' creativity while conducting and presenting their projects. Descriptive statistics were computed and a series of independent sample t-tests and a content analysis of the qualitative data regarding the participants' perceptions of their glogging experience were carried out. The results of the study indicated that the use of Glogster proved the credibility of the study assumptions.

Task based language learning and teaching

Glogster is an interactive poster display that provides opportunities for collaborative student centered learning. Glogging is considered as a powerful communication tool that helps communication skills. In the present study, participants will use the blog to do tasks that foster their speaking and presentation skills. Task-based language learning promotes communication and social interaction. (Ellis, 2003). According to Robinson (2001), Pedagogic tasks should be developed and sequenced to increasingly approximate the demands of the real world target tasks" (p.1) Participants will be oriented to use a variety of authentic tasks. Participants will learn how to create and use a Glogster (Online Poster). Students publish their ideas related to unit 2 titled "Gender Bias" on the Internet.; participants will be able to convey the powerful tools of technology that help students express freely and creatively their opinions. Participants will use a Glogster assessment rubric to critique their products.

The addressed Technology (ISTE) Standards for Students are the followings :

1. Creativity and Innovation: Students demonstrate creative thinking, construct knowledge, and develop innovative products and processes using technology.

2. Communication and Collaboration: Students use digital media and environments to communicate and work collaboratively, including at a distance, to support individual learning and contribute to the learning of others.

Participants are taught how to create a Glogster account and a new Glogster (10 minutes) using Google.com . Participants are given directions to create a new Glog .

Participants are guided to create and name a new Glog. They are encouraged to select Glog templates, such as Glog Project. They are instructed to click "Images" to upload an image from their computer. Participants are asked to add text boxes, click "Tools" to choose "TEXT" ;they will be able to edit the text inside the text box and place the text box where they desire. Participants are encouraged to add Graphics to improve the project. There are many pages of graphics in different categories. Students should find what they like and click "USE IT. They can change the colors, size, and direction of graphics. They can add images to Glogster by browsing Tiny Pics or by using their own. Students should click on the Graphics button on the Magnet Toolbar to add graphics. To use their own picture, participants are encouraged to click UPLOAD, and find the picture. When the picture has uploaded, it will appear in the window. Participants are asked to add Music to their Glog. Then they are instructed to upload the file; save the work from time to time; click "SAVE AND PUBLISH." Participants are instructed to Click "Community" to get in touch with others. Participants can post comments and explore Glogs by clicking "Explore". Multiple facts about sexist language and gender roles are displayed.

Short paper

Introduction

The visualization tools tremendously enhance the teaching and learning processes (Viegas, Wattenberg, McKeon, Van Ham & Kriss, 2008). Glogster facilitates the conveyance of the social information in different fields such as art, music, and photography and eases project creation and class assignments. The use of various technological tools makes the conduct of projects and data manipulation feasible to students especially that various types of graphic displays showing quantitative outcomes are easily provided by different technological tools (Roblyer, 2003).

Glogging is considered as a powerful communication tool that helps speaking and presentation skills. In the present study, participants will use the Glogster to conduct a project that fosters their speaking and presentation skills. Task-based language learning promotes communication and social interaction (Ellis, 2003). "Pedagogic tasks should be developed and sequenced to increasingly approximate the demands of the real world target tasks" (Robinson, 2001, p.1).

The Present Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the effectiveness of using glogging in communication skills course at a private university in Lebanon. The study is based on the rationale that there is a scarcity of research on the use of glogs in English communication skills classes.

Specifically, the study addressed the following questions:

- What is the impact of using the Glogster in comparison with traditional research paper in boosting the speaking and presentation skills of university learners of EFL?

- What is the impact of using the Glogster in comparison with traditional research paper in decreasing the presentation apprehension level of university learners of EFL?
- What are the attitudes of the participants in the experimental group of their experience in using the Glogster technological model in their communication skills class?

Literature Review

David A. Sousa (2011) said that "...higher ordering thinking skills...help learners make connections between past and new learning, create new pathways, strengthen existing pathways, and increase the likelihood that the new learning will be consolidated and stored for future retrieval" (p. 259). Social media tools are also used to boom slow business and to get more customers to visit stores and businesses especially when such media tools are used to promote discounts and sales online (Mitra & Steffensmeier, T. 2000). Social media expedites students' interaction and engagement in different experiences (Ray, 2013). Ohler (2009) defined Glogster as "a modern twist to the classic glue and construction paper method for creating posters" (p. 4). It can be used in the classroom to create book reports, research projects, character analysis, historical timelines, and any other class or group projects. It is a creative way for students to present information beyond the typical written report.

The Glogster helps students design a poster combining various multimedia formats and activate students' cognitive processes. Glogs can be employed by teachers especially when they prepare a play through which such teachers demonstrate their knowledge of Music and Arts.

Ohler (2009) asserted the significance of the integration of social media tools such as videos, blogs, digital stories and glogs in classrooms. As such, Glogster supports all formats, images, audios, videos and hyperlinks, and Glogster promotes creativity. Ohler (2009) added that a video can display a science process; a blog can produce an organic, integrated discussion about a certain piece of writing; games, documentaries, and digital stories can provide information about complex social issues. Ohler (2009) defined Glog as an online informational poster which can foster creativity through the interaction with elements such as audio, video, images, data, and graphics.

Methodology

The study employed a pretest- posttest control design. Two intact classes were randomly assigned to control and experimental conditions and the treatment lasted for 4- weeks of instruction at the rate of 3 class periods per week to teach the research and study skills in an integrated manner.

Participants

The study was conducted in a private leading university in Beirut, the capital of Lebanon. A convenient sample total of 19 EFL learners participated in the study. All the participants are native speakers of Arabic. They were studying study skills comprising research and communication skills at a rate of 3 hours per week in accordance with the curriculum requirements proclaimed by the university Remedial program. A total of 19 students had been assigned the fulfillment of the study skills course. One of the basic requirements of this course is delivering presentations and conducting a research paper. There were 10 students in the control group and 9 in the experimental group, and the age of the participants ranged from 19- 23 years.

3.2 Research Context

As indicated earlier, the research context of the present study is a private university in Lebanon. This context is characterized by enrolling students from different socio-economic background with good opportunities to use English for communication in daily life and outside of university.

Instruments

Three instruments were used to collect data and measure the variables of research and presentation skills and apprehension under investigation. These included a presentation rubric, a presentation apprehension scale, and reflection logs. The oral presentation rubric was used to measure the oral presentation proficiency level of the participants in the control and experimental groups. It comprises three main sections: Organization, Content, and Presentation. The presentation apprehension scale was used as pre-test and post-test measures of presentation apprehension. Finally, reflection logs examined the participants' attitudes of their experience in using the Glogster.

Treatment

The treatment lasted for four weeks at the rate of three contact hours of integrated instruction per week. The study participants of both the control and experimental group were asked to perform a project presentation task which required conducting a research in response to a prompt which asked them to describe the touristic places of any country they choose. The project writing instructional component of the control group consisted of traditional research writing practices which included instruction in pre-drafting, drafting, and revision strategies. Specifically, the pre-drafting stage focused on enabling learners to explore their topics in order to generate ideas in addition to learning how to write up their ideas and revise their written products. Meanwhile, the experimental group learners practiced project writing through using the Glogster procedures which involve using computers to incorporate music, pictures, visual effects, word choice, font, and the design they like.

Participants were oriented to use a variety of authentic tasks. The experimental group participants learned how to create and use a Glogster (Online Poster). Participants were able to reflect the power of the Glogster tool which helps students express freely and creatively their opinions. Participants used a Glogster assessment rubric to critique their products.

The addressed Technology (ISTE) Standards for Students were the followings:

- Creativity and Innovation: Students demonstrate creative thinking, construct knowledge, and develop innovative products and processes using technology.
- Communication and Collaboration: Students use digital media and environments to communicate and work collaboratively to support individual learning and contribute to the learning of others. Participants were guided to create and name a new Glog. They were encouraged to select Glog templates, such as Glog Project.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (Means and Standard Deviations) were calculated on the pre-test and post-test performance scores of learners in the control and experimental groups, following which four independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine the differences in presentation and speaking skills and apprehension prior to and subsequent to the intervention between the groups of learners in the control and experimental groups. The treatment conditions (control vs experimental) were used as an independent variable and speaking and presentation skills and apprehension as dependent variables.

In addition, content analysis was used as the method of data analysis of the qualitative data gathered from learners' written reflection logs about their attitudes of the Glogster experience.

Results

Findings on Speaking and presentation proficiency

Prior to treatment intervention, there was no significant difference in the speaking and presentation skills of the participants in the control group and the experimental group. Conversely, after the intervention, the experimental group outperformed the control group, which indicates a highly significant gain in presentation and speaking skills.

Findings on Speaking and presentation apprehension

The results of t-tests show that there was no significant difference in the speaking and presentation apprehension of the participants in the control group and the experimental group before the intervention. However, after the intervention, the apprehension level of the participants in the experimental group was significantly less than that of their counterparts in the control group.

Findings on perceptions of Glogster Presentation Experience

The results of the content analysis of qualitative data from reflective logs about learners' experience with the Glogster suggest the significance of using Glogster in the speaking and presentation process and the usefulness of the Glogster tool in teaching EFL presentation skills. The theme of the significance of the Glogster emerged from the data as many learners in the experimental group expressed their positive perception of this experience.

Discussion

The present study examined the relative effectiveness of the Glogster technological tool in improving EFL oral presentation proficiency and decreasing feelings of oral presentation apprehension. As discussed earlier, the results proved to be positive given that the learners who produced EFL presentations using the Glogster outperformed their counterparts who produced the same content according to the dynamics of traditional research paper presentation. Glogster projects and presentations could be attributed to the provision of opportunities for students to write using a variety of pictures, visual effects, music, animations, fonts, designs and text. These findings corroborate those of Mitra & Steffensmeier (2000), Roblyer (2003), Rodriguez & Knuth (2000), Sousa (2011), Swisher (2007), Ohler (2009), Valdez, McNabb, Foertsch, Anderson, Hawkes & Raack (1999), Brown (2004), Masi & Winer (2005), McCombs & Lauer (1997), and Viégas, Wattenberg, McKeon, Van Ham, & Kriss (2008).

The study indicated that university Remedial Program students were generally excited about the Glogster presentations. Students were more willing to express themselves using EFL.

Limitations

Further research with a larger and more representative sample size should be conducted in order to test the generalizability of the findings as well as examine the interaction of the treatment effects with other contextual variables such as students, level of language proficiency, gender, and technology apprehension.

Conclusion

This study reports the findings of an experimental study that investigated the effectiveness of the Glogster as a computer-assisted language learning tool versus traditional research paper in improving the English as a foreign language (EFL) speaking and presentation skills and decreasing the levels of presentation apprehension of university students in Lebanon. The findings of the study indicated that the Glogster is a computer-based application that can be potentially useful in promoting learners' oral skills. Therefore, the Glogster tool may improve students' motivation and interest in project presentations as well as increase their speaking skills and decrease their apprehension. It is probable in the future, that Glogster as a computer-assisted learning tool will continue to be a significant component in teaching presentation skills. Teachers should be fully aware of how computer-assisted language learning tools can enhance language teaching and speaking and presentation skills.

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Nune Ayvazyan

Universitat Rovira i Virgili, Tarragona, Spain

Nune.az@gmail.com

Task-based translation activities in an English as a foreign language class

Bio data

Nune Ayvazyan is a doctoral candidate and researcher at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili. Her research explores translation as a communicative tool in foreign-language teaching and learning. She holds a BA in English Studies from the URV and an MA in Translation Studies from Universitat Pompeu Fabra, Barcelona, where she also taught English to BA students of Translation and Interpreting. She is currently teaching English at the URV. She is also a professional translator and interpreter.

Current research

My research question is whether translation can be a communicative activity in tune with the needs of the FL class at university level. Communicative activities increase student interaction on two levels: with the teacher and with peers. This does not automatically ensure learning, but it does produce high level of involvement, which, in turn, is a prerequisite for successful learning (Källkvist, 2013). I thus set out to investigate whether and how translation can be made a communicative tool in FL teaching, which, in combination with other techniques, will benefit learners. For this purpose, I have conducted an experiment including a series of task-based translation activities at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili to check students' involvement and participation when using translation in an English as a foreign-language class. I have also conducted interviews with 9 participants to investigate their opinion on translation in a foreign-language class.

The participants were 56 second-year students of a BA in English at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili. I conducted 8 sessions with the participants using translation and pure L2, which were videotaped. The analysis of the recordings follows a qualitative approach and focuses on the class interactions between students and between students and instructor.

I am currently conducting a survey among teachers of English in Spain to assess the presence of translation and mother tongue in English classes. This, in combination with the views expressed by the students, will give a fuller picture of what is happening in English language classes in Spain.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In my research, I designed specific tasks to develop translation skills. I look at the ways in which translation can be used as a tool for foreign-language teaching and learning. Far from considering translation a post-factum check on acquisition, in my experiment translation is approached from the perspective of task-based language teaching and as an activity that engenders interaction and participation. This means that translation pursues a certain purpose in the classes, in that it prepares students for real-life situations, such as for example, simultaneous interpreting or translation for the tourism sector. Translation here is regarded as far from the traditional practice of word-for word written translation, but as a task that rather combines written and oral communication

and teamwork. In these particular class designs, communicative approach and task-based language teaching occupy primary position, which, contrary to some views, can be combined with translation in a foreign-language teaching class.

An example of a class design is where students form groups of three in which two of them are the speakers and the third student is the interpreter. Two of the students write sentences in their mother tongue on a specific topic (for example, a tourist asking for instructions), on the basis of which they create multilingual situations, and the task of the interpreter is to pass the message across in situ. The group carries out the task in front of the whole group, and the group keeps track of all the interactions, noting down all the instances in which mistakes are made. The presentation is followed by a class discussion.

This type of activities, as it was mentioned above, presupposes meaningful content in the form of task-based activities and also high level of interactions. According to the qualitative data (interviews) obtained after the sessions, students view these activities as highly beneficial as contrasted with more traditional translation activities, such as grammar-translation.

Short paper

As Hill puts it, “[...] in all systems of education known to civilization today, [there is] the failure of educational institutions to teach their students how to organize and use knowledge after they have acquired it”. (Hill, 1937, p.63). Whoever is acquainted with Hill’s book knows that in it he mostly talks about how to accumulate riches, a quite pragmatic purpose. However, it is true that in most cases education fails to give students the right tools to use the theoretical knowledge they have acquired after they graduate. Almost eight decades after this observation was made, we are still struggling to figure out ways in which to teach graduates how to make profit of the specific skills they possess. Does what we teach, and more importantly, the way we teach it, help students in their professional life after they leave their studies? This is, as far as I can see, one acute question in the modern society, a society in which students engage in a rat race for better jobs and opportunities in the labor market.

No wonder English is a crucially important skill on students’ CVs, since it can still be considered a lingua franca. It is true that the “mother tongue plus two” policy (European Council, 2002) promotes the learning of foreign languages, but it is also true that English remains as one of the most demanded languages in the labor market. Translation, on the other hand, when used in foreign-language teaching and learning could be regarded as a skill in itself (Campbell, 2002) along with the four basic language skills—speaking, listening, reading and writing. There is yet another way in which translation can be regarded, and that is as a technique with the help of which the four basic skills can be practiced. Whichever the case, the problem arises when translation is regarded as being strictly a professional skill that has no application in foreign-language classes. As Carreres (2006) puts it, “the divide between the teaching of translation as a language learning tool and as a professional activity has been overemphasized to the point of preventing useful dialogue and exchange” (Carreres, 2006, p. 12). For quite a long now, academics from different disciplines have been advocating translation in a foreign-language class if and when used judiciously (Duff, 1989; Cook, 2010; Källkvist, 2013; Laviosa, 2014). Despite all the positive views towards translation, it is still mostly avoided or overlooked in foreign-language teaching in the Tarragona area (DGT-EU, 2013).

Thus, in my research, I argue that translation can be both a useful foreign-language teaching tool used in combination with many other techniques, and a professional skill in

itself that helps students in carrying out tasks like translating for the tourism sector (which is quite big in Tarragona due to its geographical location).

From my perspective, translation should be a communicative and a task-based activity in a foreign-language class. Very often in Spain foreign-language classes are conducted with the use of grammar exercises with the guidelines “fill in the gaps”, or “put the verb in its correct form”, which are not bad in themselves, but the overuse of these exercises can make students increasingly passive in class. There is barely any verbal spontaneous interaction in which students would practice all the freshly-learned rules. One way of solving this would be the introduction of oral translation exercises that would bear a real purpose in them—asking for directions, buying a plane ticket, solving conflicts between two or more people, etc. These activities are beneficial both for the practice of what has been learned in a more dynamic way compared to traditional exercises like gap-filling, and also for preparing students for the professional practice of translation and interpreting. Already in the late 1980s, Duff in his *Translation* (1989) was proposing this kind of exercises.

To test how translation can be an effective foreign-language tool that at the same time helps students acquire useful skills for their professional future, I conducted an experiment at the Universitat Rovira i Virgili in 2014 with a group of 56 second-year students of a degree in English. The group was divided in two on the basis of their grades, so that each group was similar in terms of their grades for the practice sessions. I conducted 4 practice lessons with each group (2 with translation and 2 with pure L2). The whole experiment was video recorded and is currently being analyzed qualitatively. I also conducted a pre and post-experiment survey with the participants to find out whether their opinion on translation had changed over the time (almost 90% of them had never had translation in their foreign-language classes before the experiment, so the possibility of a shift in opinion was an important possible result). While the recordings will render most of the qualitative and quantitative data of the class interactions, I also conducted interviews with those respondents whose opinions had changed drastically for better or for worse. These interviews have given deeper insight into students’ academic background (mostly on English as a subject) as well as what they think of the use of translation and mother tongue in a foreign-language class. I am currently conducting a survey among teachers of English in Spain to find out what they think of translation as a foreign-language teaching tool. All these data will provide valuable information on how much translation and L1 is currently used in the Spanish education system.

Translation Activities Used in Class

In the experiment, each practice session was preceded by a theory session in which the teacher explained the grammatical content. Four grammar topics were chosen for the experiment that included four practice sessions with each of the two groups. Each practice lesson lasted for two hours that were divided in the following way: the 1st hour was dedicated to comparative grammar activities in which the language that was being taught (English) was compared with the students’ mother tongue from the grammatical perspective (usually isolating the difficult bits and translating them). At this stage many of the linguistic problems that the students had were solved. Students were asked to note down all the translations in their glossaries. An illustration of what kind of examples were analyzed in class is the persistent error of Spanish students of English: they have tough time understanding the difference between “How is she?” and “What is she like?”, since Spanish does not differentiate between these two forms, “¿Cómo está?”. To prevent these kinds of errors from fossilizing or in order to try and correct these errors the most obvious way is to make the difference explicit by literally pointing at what causes this confusion, since it is not enough to treat the error but to identify the source of that error. This also helps students to understand the nature of languages and how easy it can be to create false friends when the two languages are close from the point of view of the vocabulary (like in the case of English and Spanish where they share many words from

Latin that also make students use “assist a class” instead of “attend a class” because of the Spanish “asistir”.

The second hour of the lesson was dedicated to the actual translation exercises. The class was usually divided in groups of three. Each group wrote questions on a proposed topic (e.g., an English-speaking tourist that speaks absolutely no Spanish or Catalan is lost in Barcelona and has to ask for directions. You see him talking to a person, but it seems that that they are not understanding each other, because the other person speaks no English. You have to mediate between the two because you speak both Spanish and English). These exercises were based on the grammatical content seen in the theory session before the practice session. The task of the students was to ask as many questions with difficult grammar as possible to test the interpreter’s ability to understand tricky structures in the foreign language. The mini-scenes were performed in front of the class but they did not do it as a group that wrote the script, but they switched interpreters, so that the interpreter rendering the messages into and out of the foreign language would not be prepared for the questions and had to solve the linguistic problems in situ. The grammatical content for these exercises was strategically chosen from a range of topics that they had in their study plan, and that would provide substantial material for the exercises between Spanish and English. These topics were, 1. Linking Verbs, 2. Modal Verbs (used in two weeks), 3. Passives, and 4. Reported Speech.

In the interviews the students say that they felt shy to perform in front of the camera but they appreciated the fun and the fact that they had to think quickly, with no prior preparation. Also they mentioned that they appreciated the change in the routine in their foreign-language learning.

Conclusions

The translation exercises described in this paper enhance students’ verbal production and help them to learn specific grammar rules by constant repetition. However, they should be used appropriately: for example, these types of exercises cannot be carried out in multilingual groups where the teacher and the students do not share their mother tongue. It is also important to keep in mind that the overuse of any kind of exercise is detrimental to language teaching and learning. Therefore, the exercises proposed here should be combined with other, more traditional exercises. It is crucial to make good use of tools available to language education and eliminate false beliefs and prejudice in order to improve foreign-language teaching and learning.

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Mohammed Bahnaz

The University of South Wales, Newport, United Kingdom

varia-lara@hotmail.co.uk

Learner autonomy and web-based language learning (WBLLI): a triangular approach to investigate the teacher's role within the multimedia environment

Bio data

I am a postgraduate student at the university of South Wales , I have conducted my survey as a partial completion for the degree of MA in teaching English to Speakers of other Languages (TESOL) .

I was teaching English language for secondary schools in Kurdistan for five years as it is my home town. Recently, before joining this MA course, I was teaching English in a language Centre in Birmingham, in the UK as I am currently live in.

I am an enthusiastic person to know how technology can enhance teaching and how web based language learning creates autonomous learners and what is the role of teacher in this rich- information environment.

Current research

Introduction

ESOL tutors generally endeavour to teach students strategies in order to become autonomous learners in order to continue their life-long learning (Baynham, 2007). Within English language teaching, the use of computers and web based learning is considered worthwhile and positive (Benson,2007). Many educators advocate that the use of web-based materials offers a rich exposure to the language, visually attractive materials, instant feedback to help students to be self-directed, and individualising their learning (Son, 2007; Yi- Cheng Chen et al.2013). It is the last point regarding self-direction and learner autonomy that is the subject of this research. Many authors such as Benson (2004); Lee (2005); Murphy (2006); O' Rourke & Schwienhorst (2003); Lee (2011) advocate the potential of web materials to enhance learner autonomy. However, this relationship between learner autonomy and web materials seems to be established in a broader context (Jones, 2001). In other words, teacher intervention is crucial in virtual environments to produce autonomous learners and to use web materials effectively (Chamber & Davies, 2001; Farrington, 1986; Sussex, 1989; Levy, 1997; Jones, 2001; Benson, 2007).There are many terms used to refer to learner autonomy and other equivalent words in the literature. For instance, "independence" (Sheerin, 1997), "self-regulated or self- directed "(Candy, 1991), "Language awareness" (Lier, 1996), "Andragogy" (Knowles,1980). LA is very complex to define and every attempt to define it may be rather subjective (Benson,2013).

It is important to articulate the role of learning strategies and motivation in promoting learner autonomy. Extensive work has been done in showing the reciprocal relationship between learner autonomy and learning strategies. For instance, O'mally and Chamot (1990) identify that the most competent learners who are about to be autonomous, are those who employ various strategies such as seeking out dialogue with a partner and pushing oneself to tackle difficult tasks.

Moreover, the link between autonomy and motivation is self-evident (Benson (2007). Dickinson (1995) and Ushioda (1996) were the first to explore this link because of their substantial work in identifying this relationship. Ushioda's (2011) work focuses on the power of intrinsic motivation understood as energy, actuality, and their desire to learn. Boud (1988) in Cotterall (1995), and Dickinson (1987) discuss the value of learner autonomy as an approach to language learning in which learners take responsibility for their own learning and respond actively to instructions. Thus autonomy is the ultimate goal of language learning, and is considered worthy for philosophical, practical, and pedagogical reasons.

We admit that the part related to investigating learner strategies was the most problematic and controversial section in two respects. Firstly, some of the learning strategies are hard to classify to fit into both cognitive strategies and web materials, e.g. the strategy to initiate speaking or writing to practise the language through technology. Secondly, as Jarvis and Figura (2007) advocate, there is no framework in the literature for learning strategies in a virtual environment. Thus we modified some of the strategies from Omally and Chamots' (1990) classification in order to be more appropriate for its purpose.

Before proceeding to the next section, the first part of this paper defines WBLL, learner autonomy, motivation and strategies, and reviews the study that has been done in this field. The other parts of the paper deal with the study. It demonstrates the context of the community language centres in the UK in which the study took place. It then moves towards the research questions and the sample strategy, before identifying the most significant findings.

Context of the study

This study investigated the attitudes of the adult ESOL students from Community Language centres in the UK to using web-based materials to learn the English language. ESOL is a term used in this study to refer to those learners who may be refugees, migrants or settled-residents. Students come from different countries and leave their homes for various reasons, or they may come to join a spouse, to have a better life or flee from violence.

Mallows (2012) asserts that ESOL students have very different cultural and educational backgrounds. Learning English is essential for them as proficiency can help to remove language barriers in their daily lives, open doors to socialisation, health, security, economic and cultural understanding. Furthermore, Mallows (2012) and Rosenberg (2007) assert the richness of cultural experience and the diversity which ESOL learners bring to the UK. However, this diversity poses challenges and dilemmas for ESOL tutors in providing an appropriate learning environment. The different educational backgrounds of learners are also reflected in their attitudes to autonomy and to using web-based materials (Baynham, 2006).

To identify ESOL students' needs, Rosenberg (2007) argues that the literacy needs of ESOL students are different from those needs of native speakers. ESOL courses cover literacy, numeracy and ESOL provision. ESOL providers vary from one place to another. ESOL provision may be available in different venues, for instance, further education (FE) colleges, Adult Community language Centres (which is the context of this study), and voluntary organisations such as church groups. The length and intensity of ESOL can vary. In the community, language centres provide 30-week courses, but only for four hours a week under the Skills For Life Strategies (Paton & Wilkins, 2009).

The Skills for life Strategy is the national strategy, which was first introduced in 2001 to improve numeracy and literacy skills (Schellekens, 2007; Rosenberg, 2007). This initiative by the government makes great efforts to fund and support ESOL learners. Furthermore, there are many awarding bodies such as the University of Cambridge Local

Examinations, Syndicate (UCLES) and Trinity College that ensure that colleges' local examination and qualifications conform to the national standard.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Extensive literature has discussed the potential of a multimedia network to promote learner autonomy (LA) (Raya & Fernandez, 2002; Benson, 2007). As a result of the multimedia environment, students can actively plan and organise the information they need and integrate it into their knowledge. In such an environment, the teacher's role is not excluded as they can act as a facilitator to find, choose and offer a variety of information according to the students' needs. The problem is however, that despite the fact that web-materials have gained popularity among the resources available to modern ESOL tutors, some of the tutors recommend their students to use them on a self-access basis without teacher guidance.

This survey was conducted in different adult community language centres for migrants and refugees in the UK. The research examines the tutor's role in integrating web-materials with other classroom activities to augment the opportunities to learn the language. Moreover, this research examines students' attitudes to areas of LA, such as motivation and cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Thanasoulas, 2000).

An open-ended questionnaire is used for ESOL tutors to gain an insight into the ESOL context and another questionnaire is used for ESOL students to establish their attitudes towards being autonomous learners. Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used in this study.

The research found that approximately half of the ESOL students have a positive attitude towards being autonomous. They showed significantly positive attitudes to using technology in their daily language learning. The most striking result is that participants highly valued the teachers' role in using web-materials effectively which can be positively interpreted. More than half of the students agreed that the teachers should work actively in guiding and helping them.

However, some issues have been raised regarding the extent of cognitive strategies that students use which leads to a number of recommendations.

Key Words: English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), Web-based language learning (WBLL), Learner Autonomy (LA).

Short paper

Web-based Language Learning

Using technology in classrooms becomes a reality and it is a natural part of learners' lives. WBLL is the kind of learning that involves the use of web sources, materials, tools or applications that are available on the web (Son, 2007). Having various hyperlink multimedia materials on the web expands the opportunity to support language teachers to integrate web applications into the classroom activities (Yi-cheng chen et al., 2013). Numerous terms have been used to refer to the use of technology in language learning. For instance, Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) was an early term in the field of language education (Jarvis and Achilleos, 2013; Beatty, 2010). Beatty (2010) defines CALL as "*any work that a learner utilises a computer for to improve her/his language*" (pp.17).

This includes a wide spectrum of current learning and teaching at the computer. Noticeably, many definitions of CALL have one common sense, which is working on a

computer or a laptop to practise or to learn the language. Thus, CALL has not used it as it is too general and dated, as Jarvis & Krashen (2014) suggest that CALL is obsolete and they emphasise a transition phase from the CALL to the post CALL era.

We turn now to the question of how web materials should be used. Levy (1997) argues for knowing the tutor-tool framework that can be beneficial for structuring and conceptualising materials. Web-materials can be used as a tool and as a tutor. At the outset, we should define the tutor-tool framework as the original definition of computer tutor as set by Taylor(1989) which is cited in Levy (1997).The computer-tutor framework is that the computer evaluates the learner after completing a task or an activity which will give him/her an instant feedback. However, the computer-tool framework is that learners use computers as any other tool such as pen and paper. Websites that provide past papers for exams are ideal examples.

Extensive literature has described the well- established relationship between learner autonomy and CALL, WBLL, Computer-mediated-communication (CMC) and Blended learning model. For instance, in CALL studies, Schmenk, 2005; Warschauer & Shetzer, 2003; Jarvis, 2013; Yin, 2012; Smith & Craig, 2013; Traynor, 2003; Warschauer and Healey, 1998; Farrington, 1986 found that in this technological age, flexibility, autonomy and sustainability are fundamental to the success of language teaching. Moreover, for promoting learner autonomy through WBLL and Computer-Mediated-Communication studies, Karabulut et al., 2012; Kimura,Obari and Goda,2011; Mangenot & Nissen,2006; Melhuish & Fallon, 2010; Basharina, 2009; Jarvis & Krashen, 2014) support this idea. Furthermore, studies on the role of blended learning in promoting learner autonomy have been used, such as Banados, 2006; Rosset, Douglis and Frazee, 2003; Sciarone & Meijer, 1993; Stracke,2007. Finally, two studies (Son,2008; Baturay et al., 2010) discuss the relationship between motivation and learner autonomy through using web materials. They suggest that motivation comes before autonomy, which means that motivated learners are potentially autonomous learners.

Learner autonomy and learning strategies

Learning strategies are pertinent elements in promoting learner autonomy (Oxford,1999; Cohen, 2003; and Wenden,1987 cited in Jarvis & Figura, 2007). Extensive work has been done in showing the reciprocal relationship between learner autonomy and learning strategies, such as Mutlu & Tuga (2013) in which they examined the use of CALL materials with learner strategy training to promote learner autonomy. They found a more positive attitude in the group that used learner strategy training than the other group that used CALL materials without strategy training. Moreover, Figura & Jarvis (2007) articulated the dimension of the learner strategy, such as cognitive, metacognitive and interaction strategies and its link to the LA. It could not be possible to examine all aspects of learning strategies in one study. Thus, some aspects being examined in this study such as creating opportunities to use the language while using technology, for example writing text messages, or speaking with the target language, guessing the meaning of words and texts, summarising information, linking the knowledge that we already have with the new information.

In conclusion, learner autonomy is not a stable point once reached and nor is it for all, nor a method which can be taught. As Thanasoulas (2000) suggests LA is driven by many factors such as learner strategy, motivation, learner needs and language awareness.

The Study

Learner autonomy and WBLL materials and the relationship between both is an immense subject for which it is impossible to investigate every aspect in detail within one study. Thus, the study is narrowed down to some relevant aspects of the use of a variety of web materials. Whilst we examined what is the student's motivation towards web sources and what strategies they used to exploit that rich information environment to learn the

language, we are concerned in particular with the role of the tutor while working on web materials in the classroom.

Research Questions

The research questions under investigation are as follows:

1. Do ESOL students have motivation to use web-based materials on their own?
2. To what extent do ESOL students use cognitive and social strategies when they use web-based materials?
3. What are ESOL students' views about the role of the teacher while using web-based materials?
4. How able are ESOL students to plan, monitor, and evaluate their own language learning?
5. Do ESOL students appear to be digital immigrants?

Two strategies were used to answer these questions. These are the teacher's questionnaire and the student's questionnaire that are found in the appendix (1).

Participants

The participants were purposive samples. Two included 25 ESOL students and eight ESOL tutors from different language centres in the London, Newport, Chepstow and Walsall boroughs. Firstly, the students presented 14 nationalities including two Pakistani students (8%), one Yemeni student (4%), three Bangladeshi students (12%), three Polish students (12%), one Egyptian student (4%), one Sri Lankan student (4%), one Hungarian student (4%), four Kurdish students (16%), two Indian students (8%), one Surinamese student (4%), one Spanish student (4%), one French student (4%), three Chinese students (12%), and one Afghan student (4%).

This multicultural environment frequently creates opportunities to exchange cultural and linguistic knowledge. Almost 88% of the participants were female, while 12% were male. This situation, as Paton and Wilkins (2009) suggest, may be attributed to reasons such as providing crèche facilities for their children. Having problems in finding work is another factor that encourages women to attend ESOL courses.

Their average age was 34 years which is mirrored in the young age of the asylum seekers' population, which is indicated in statistical reports at the Home Office which is cited in Yai, 2005. Their periods of residence in the UK ranged from three weeks to 30 years, with the largest group of 17 students (68%) living in the UK more than six years. Having a varied level of language proficiency ranged from Entry level CEFR A1 to CEFR A2 and ESOL level one and ESOL level two CEFR B1 TO CEFR B2. This diversity in their language proficiency has a direct connection to their status as being autonomous learners. They enrolled in ESOL courses for different purposes. Eight students (32%) aimed to improve their language to find a job, 16 students (64%) aimed to learn the language for socialisation. One student (4%) aimed to get a qualification.

Teacher's Profile

The eight tutors were from four language centres. They were teaching ESOL students from Entry level to Advanced level. They included 6 females and 2 males. Their teaching experience ranged from 2 to 40 years. They were concerned about engaging the students to use the English language for real life communication. These tutors were using web materials in their daily teaching. The websites they used and for what purposes they used them can be seen in the (Appendix 2).

Tutors were using web materials for different purposes such as preparing students for exams. Using online dictionaries and movie clips to motivate the learners were another kinds of integrating technology in their daily teaching. Furthermore, student being asked

to write those web sites they used and for what purposes they used them that can be found in the (Appendix 3).

From their use of web sites we discovered that ESOL students were using videos to practise speaking skills and to know more about British culture, which sometimes seemed that they were not living in an English context. This assert what Baynham et al. (2007) suggest that ESOL learners are marginalised and have little opportunity to communicate with local communities as they are negatively represented in the media and public discussions. Another fact that disclosed is, most of the websites that used by the tutors are those that contain ready-made lessons which make teaching rather superficial. In some cases, web materials may have an adverse effect, which increase the potential of developing lazy attitude among teachers to use web materials in the lessons without giving it a deeper insight. The study found that the tutors were facing many difficulties in helping their students to become autonomous such as time, students' language proficiency, culture and motivation towards gaining IT skills. The most pertinent factor was their literacy level as first they should develop their literacy level to use ICT confidently.

Method

The methodology that used encompassed both quantitative and qualitative methods which are seen as a more practical way to analyse, and mix both data to understand the research problem (Kidder, 1981). The quantitative component involved asking close-ended questions via a questionnaire, which some principles are adopted to formulate the questions from Oppenheim (1992) such as avoiding double negatives, clarity in questions, avoiding double barrelled questions a. Also giving great attention to the design and layout to minimise potential flows and make it appealing to the eye (Anderson & Arsenault, 1989).

Students' questionnaire

The researcher invested a significant amount of time to develop the questionnaire and pilot it before administering it. The questionnaire has six sections which were (Motivation, cognitive and social strategies, Metacognitive strategies) which analysed quantitatively by using the statistical package SPSS 22. After piloting the data analysis, the "Mode" was seen as an appropriate measurement to represent the central tendency.

Teachers' questionnaire

Teacher's questionnaire consisted of 17 open ended questions that used in a triangulation mode with other type of questionnaire as a strategy to establish the validity of the data (Basit, 2010). It is necessary to point out that the researcher preferred to use " the convergence Parallel design" as a type of mixed method design to collect both quantitative and qualitative data, merging the data to understand research problem(Creswell, 2012). The rationale for this design is to provide a strong form of data to offset the weakness of the other form. In analysing the data we gave equal value to both types, by comparing the results whether they confirm or disconfirm each other.

Results and Discussions

1- Do ESOL students have motivation to use web-based materials on their own?
Twelve items covered motivational aspect which can be seen in the table (1)

Table 1: Number of students' responses and the mode of the items

Motivation: I use web-based materials because.....	Yes	No	Mode
1. They give me more opportunity to practise my English.	22 (88%)	3 (12%)	1.00
2. They give me more information about the British culture	17 (68%)	8 (32%)	1.00
3. They provide me with a greater range of vocabulary.	23 (92%)	2 (8%)	1.00
4. They provide immediate results and feedback when the teacher is not available.	20 (80%)	5 (20%)	1.00
5. They are reliable and I can trust them	18 (72%)	7 (28%)	1.00
6. They have attractive videos and games which are not available in paper-based materials.	16 (64%)	9 (36%)	1.00
7. I want to learn more by myself.	22 (88%)	3 (12%)	1.00
8. They are new and up to date.	20 (80%)	5 (20%)	1.00
9. They use spoken language which I can use in everyday life.	20 (80%)	5 (20%)	1.00
10. They allow me to listen to different English accents.	19 (76%)	6 (24%)	1.00
11. They allow me to spend more time learning English	22 (88%)	3 (12%)	1.00
12. They help me to read more.	22 (88%)	3 (12%)	1.00

N= 25, 1= Yes, 2=No

We prioritise this aspect as a more responsible factor to enhance or hinder L2 learning process (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). It is apparent from the table that third statement, which is about the amount of vocabulary given from web materials have gained almost full agreement, 23 students responded 'yes' and only 2 students responded with 'no'. This contrasts with teachers' use of websites as teachers paid attention to the videos and attractive games rather than vocabulary.

A striking result to emerge from the data is the statement number six which is about the attractiveness of videos and games available on web materials. This statement has gained least positive responses compared to other items. Of 25 participants, only 16 (64%) responded 'yes' and 9 students (36%) responded with 'no'. Whereas, it was most favoured by the tutors, 5 tutors asserted that web materials are attractive visually, e.g. tutor (SI) commented as "*They are attractive, more up to date, more attractive, and they provide instant feedback on ones' performance*" This finding in particular suggest that, may their age and their culture have an effect as they don't like games because people might think it is not serious.

If we now turn to the Cronbacks' Alpha, with a result of (9.14) which is a very good level of reliability among items, also with a mode of (1.00) in all items, we can say that students showed a high level of motivation towards using web materials. However, The ESOL tutors didn't see all their students to be motivated to use web materials, 2 tutors reported that students are not familiar with technology and another tutor thought that some of them even don't use computers at all. This contradiction in perception between tutors and students can be found in other studies such as Karabulut et al. (2012). This situation may attribute to the perception that students used web sources as a tool whereas teachers used them as a conduit of the language itself.

Research Q 2 : To what extent do ESOL students use cognitive and social strategies when they use web based materials? As the connection between learner autonomy and learning strategies is huge, in one study wouldn't be possible to examine everything. We narrowed down some aspects related to the use of learning strategies from O'mally and Chamot (1990). As there is no clear framework in the literature about the learning strategies with web based language learning, we modified some questions from other research such as (Jarvis& Figura,2007; Kaur & Amin,2007).

The table below illustrates some of the main results found from student's responses.

Table 2: Number of responses on cognitive and social strategies

Using English in their daily lives	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Mode
1. How often do you use technology to speak in English with other people?	5 (20%)	5 (20%)	0	14 (56%)	1 (4%)	4.00
2. How often do you write e-mails or text messages in English to other people?	6 (24%)	4 (16%)	0	13 (52%)	2 (8%)	4.00
3. How often do you write down new words or phrases that you see on websites?	4 (16%)	7 (28%)	1 (4%)	13 (52%)	0	4.00
4. How often do you listen in order to understand the overall meaning of a text?	5 (20%)	9 (36%)	3 (12%)	7 (28%)	1 (4%)	2.00
5. How often do you read the news in English on websites?	1 (4%)	5 (20%)	0	15 (60%)	4 (16%)	4.00

6. How often do you look at the titles and the pictures to guess what the text could be about?	3 (12%))	9 (36%)	2 (8%)	7 (28%))	4 (16%)	2.00
7. How often do you watch English TV programs?	4 (16%))	5 (20%)	0	15 (60%))	1 (4%)	4.00
8. When you watch English programmes or films, how often do you pay attention to the pictures to guess the meaning?	2 (8%)	9 (36%)	1 (4%)	12 (48%))	1 (4%)	4.00
9. When you watch TV programs or films, how often do you use English subtitles to understand?	5 (20%))	6 (24%)	1 (4%)	12 (48%))	1 (4%)	4.00
10. To what extent do you think that web-materials give you more opportunity to interact in English with your friends?	2 (8%)	7 (28%)	2 (8%)	12 (48%))	2 (8%)	4.00
11. To what extent do you think that web-materials give you more opportunity to interact with your teacher?	0	10 (40%)	1 (4%)	12 (48%))	2 (8%)	4.00

Note: N= 25, (1= very often, 2=often, 3=don't know, 4=sometimes, 5=never)

It is apparent from the table the most positive responses were both question four and question six. Firstly, question four which 21 students often or sometimes used the strategy of listening to understand the overall meaning of a text, with mode '2.00'. Similarly, question six which 19 students (76%) were often or sometimes guessed from the titles and pictures what the text can be about.

Although with the score of (.83= very good) of Cronback's Alpha, no increase were detected in question (1, 2, 3 and 9). Question one only 10 students (40%) were writing emails and text messages in English. Also in question three, 11 students (44%) were writing down new words that seen on web. Surprisingly, in response to question five which is about reading news in English on websites, only 6 students (24%) often or very often and another 4 students (16%) never read news in English on websites.

In light of these findings, it was hypothesised that half of the participants seemed less capable to exploit what technology offers to support their language learning due to their low literacy level. ESOL students, the one who find it difficult to read or write either in his or her first language Schellekens (2007) advocates our view and suggests that ESOL students with low literacy level or no formal education background have a slow pace of language achievement in comparison with EFL learners. Other factors can play role such as delay in learning the language as (Ward, 2007) pointed out that delaying in language learning may have a detrimental effect on their learning process.

Research Q 3: What are ESOL students' views about the role of the teacher while using web-based materials?

Six items related to the role of the teacher which have different measurement. This design is attributed to the view that a single question to measure perception might be biased (Oppenheim, 1990). From the figure below, 21 students (84%) viewed teacher's role as important factor to use web sources effectively. We can assert that teacher's role is essential when students work on web materials.

Figure 1: The degree of importance of teacher's role, frequency of perception

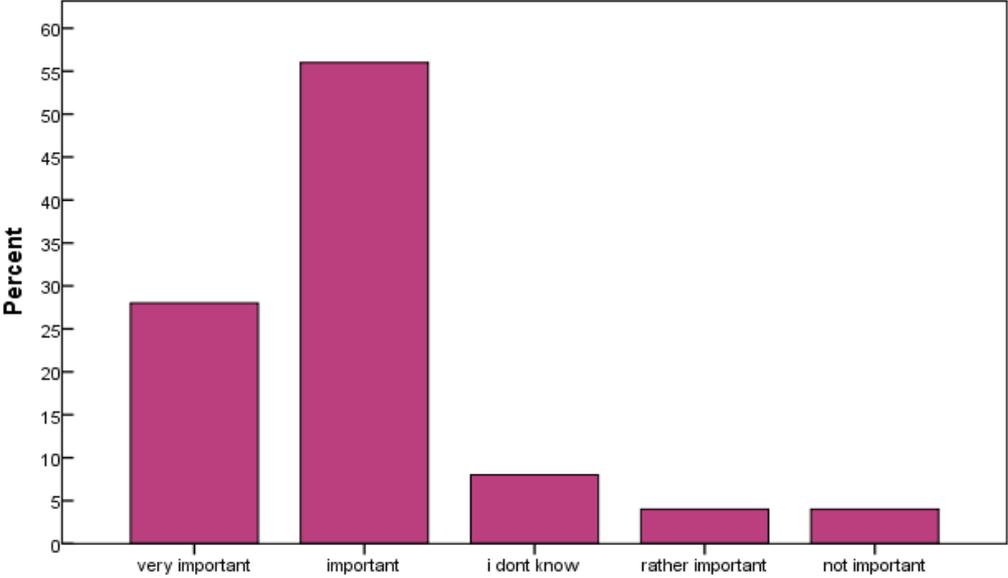
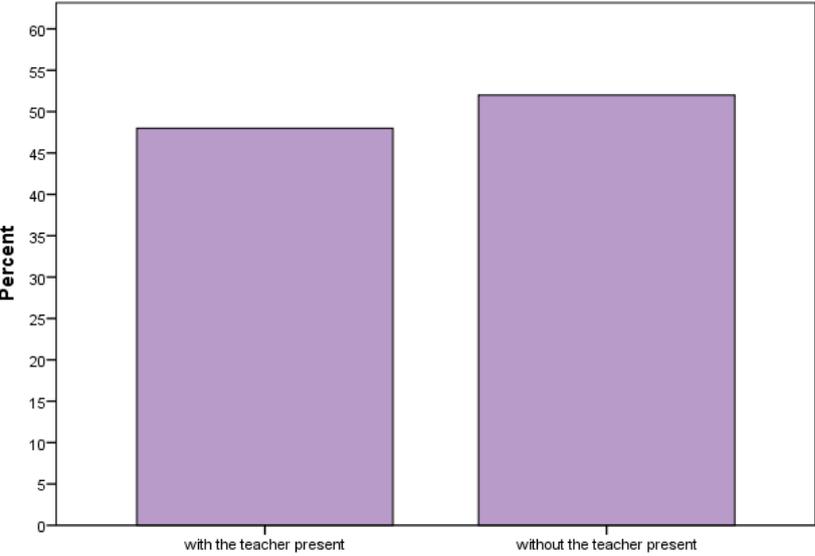


Figure 2: student's perception about web-based activities, percentage of the preferred way to use web activities.



Unexpected results was found from figure(2) as responses divided in to two roughly categories, which 12 students (48%) thought that web materials are worthwhile with the teacher, while 13 students (52%) thought the opposite. The evidence from this result suggests two explanations. First, those students who are autonomous preferred to use the materials by their own and those with little ability preferred teachers in hand to help them. Alternatively, this result occurred as the tutors had an influential role in describing how best the web materials should be used. All the 8 tutors agreed to recommend their students to use them without teachers, e.g. *"Of course, they are all self-use websites"* Tutor (SHI)

Another question asked whether the students like to be guided and monitored by the teacher. A simple statistical analysis was used to indicate their attitude. With a mode of (1.00), 19 students (76%) preferred guidance and monitoring from the teacher. Only 6 students (24%) thought they don't need that. We sought to know tutors' perceptions about whether web based materials are best used with teacher involvement or to use them independently. A degree of consistency between tutors' and students' opinion were found, only one tutor favoured to encourage self-access, while others preferred both as their learners have different educational background. For instance, *"Both approaches seem to work with different types of learners, some (with weaker study skills and motivation) need a lot of help and encouragement before they see how they can learn alone"* Tutor (Lin)

This situation support the idea that teachers are important in using web materials effectively and Farringtons' project (1986) is the best example to assert this assumption. One answer to our third research question, this is that, teachers are playing a vital role in using web materials effectively, particularly for those students that have low level of language proficiency. Teachers as facilitators can pave the way to autonomy, simply because web materials can not consider as self-access operation.

Research Q 4: How are ESOL students' abilities to plan, monitor and evaluate their own language learning? 5 items examined students' abilities to plan their language learning. Table 3: Numbers and percentages of responses in respect of planning abilities.	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mode
1. I am confident about knowing what I need to learn.	9 (36%)	14 (56%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	0	2.00
2. I use planners, a timetable, and diaries to set my learning goals.	5 (20%)	13 (52%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	0	2.00
3. I know how long different tasks in respect of learning English might take.	3 (12%)	16 (64%)	2 (8%)	4 (16%)	0	2.00
4. I am able to find suitable activities for my language learning.	1 (4%)	18 (72%)	3 (12%)	3 (12%)	0	2.00
5. I find it difficult to use web-dictionaries to learn the language.	1 (4%)	14 (56%)	0	8 (32%)	2 (8%)	2.00

N=25, 1= strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= uncertain, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree.

From table (3) the most supported item was the first statement, 23 students (92) were thought themselves as confident about what they need to learn. Similarly, item three and four gained rather positive results. However, with an adequate level of reliability found which was (.706) there is an inconsistency in statement five. As finding resources to help learning process is important for autonomous learners (Jarvis & Figura, 2007) 15 students (60%) found it difficult to use web dictionaries. Taken together, these results suggest that generally these students have planning abilities in different level. It is possible to say that, less than half of them seemed to have more planning abilities than the others.

In terms of evaluating and monitoring abilities table (4) presents students' perception about their abilities to evaluate and monitor their language learning

Table 4: Numbers, percentages, and the mode of monitoring and evaluating abilities

Monitoring and Evaluation	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Mode
1. I can evaluate my own performance in English.	2 (8%)	21 (84%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	0	2.00
2. I need feedback from my tutor about my performance.	4 (16%)	16 (64%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	0	2.00
3. Difficult tasks discourage me to continue learning.	1 (4%)	16 (64%)	1 (4%)	7 (28%)	0	2.00
4. I spend time checking my own errors to improve learning.	1 (4%)	19 (76%)	3 (12%)	2 (8%)	0	2.00
5. I think I am an independent learner.	2 (8%)	15 (60%)	1 (4%)	7 (28%)	0	2.00
6. I am able to manage my own learning.	2 (8%)	18 (72%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	0	2.00
7. I enjoyed the large amount of choices of web-based materials.	2 (8%)	18 (72%)	1 (4%)	4 (16%)	0	2.00
8. I know how to correct my errors.	1 (4%)	15 (60%)	3 (12%)	6 (24%)	0	2.00
9. I know which websites are useful and which are not so good.	1 (4%)	15 (60%)	4 (16%)	4 (16%)	1 (4%)	2.00

Note: N=25,(1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=uncertain, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree).

With the mode of (2.00) of all the items, results suggest moderately positive attitude in some aspect of monitoring such as, 20 students (80%) thought they spent time checking their errors; another 20 students (80%) enjoyed the large amount of choices on web.

Furthermore, as regards evaluating respondents indicated moderately positive attitude for instance, item one gained the most positive attitude, 23 students (92%) perceived that they can evaluate their performance.

Interestingly, results disclosed that difficult tasks discouraged more than half (68%) of the students to continue learning, only 16 students thought they know how to correct themselves. However, these findings cannot be extrapolated to all the students. To put it another way, their responses are more valuable to gain insight to assess student's abilities. One unanticipated finding was that from the eight tutors 6 of them asserted that their students don't have such abilities to evaluate ESOL websites, and the other two tutors commented that only those have such ability who have spent more time looking for web sites.

Research Q5: Do ESOL students appear to be digital immigrants? Since the study involved students to work on web materials, we thought important to examine students' IT skills. In terms of the overall students' IT skills table 7 showed significantly positive responses.

Table (7) the responses of how confident they feel in using Technology to learn the language.

Q.9: How confident do you feel in using technology (computer, tablets, and mobiles) to learn the English language?	Extremely confident	confident	Don't know	Not confident	Not at all confident	mode
	10 (40%)	12 (48%)	0	1 (4%)	2 (8%)	2.00

N=25, 1=extremely confident, 2=confident, 3=don't know, 4=not confident, 5= not at all confident.

However, all the tutors showed reluctance if there students were confident to use technology in their learning process as one tutor suggested as " Yes, if they are at a higher level" (JUL)

As a result tutors didn't think that all the students are confident technology users. This situation asserts that those ESOL students are new to technology and those who don't have literacy skills don't like to use web materials for language learning. In light of this finding, we can say that those ESOL students are "digital immigrants" (Pransky, 2001). Digital immigrants from Pranskys' view can be used to those who were not born during the digital world. But interested and adopted many aspects of technology at some point later in their lives Digital immigrants are like all immigrants, some are faster and better in adapting to a new environment. They always resist to some degree to use technology for example they don't think that learning process can be fun and fully achieved through using games.

In order to know about the place that students liked to use such materials, a question asked which can be seen in table 8

Table 8: The place that students preferred to use web materials

Q.11: where do you prefer to access and use English language web sites most of the time?	At home	At the college(without the teacher	In the class with the teacher	In the library	At the self- access centre	mode
	15 (60%)	1 (4%)	6 (24%)	0	0	2.00

N=22 , 1= at home, 2= at the college, 3=with the teacher, 4=in the library, 5= at the self-access centre.

We can clearly see a diversity of their responses and also we experienced three missing data which add substantially to our understanding that web materials can be used in many places and self-access centres cannot be an ideal place for such materials. Furthermore, as far as learner autonomy is closely related to self-evaluating, critical reflection, and making decisions(Little, 2001). Thus learner autonomy is a matter of psychology rather than organization.

Conclusion

In this paper we investigated some aspects of learner autonomy in using web materials with a small sample of ESOL learners, also thoughts from a small number of ESOL tutors enriched our finding. These findings suggest that in general, those ESOL students have motivation to use technology in their language learning, particularly those who obtain a high level of language proficiency and IT skills. Possible to state that high literacy level and IT confidence emerged as reliable predictors to develop autonomy. However, despite the student's high level of motivation, tutors believed that only few of them have the ability to use multimedia facilities effectively because of their language proficiency.

It was also shown that less than half of the participants used some strategies to learn the language. They were moderately able to evaluate and monitor their own performance. The first important finding was teacher's role was highly valued. As those students were adults and their decision to join a language class attributed to their failure in self-instruction learning as in Bensons' (2007) case when he has been living in Hong Kong for more than 14 years, and he re-registered himself to a Cantonese Language course to make some kind of commitments to learn the language.

Recommendation

The evidence from this study suggests radical solutions for future practice. The results of this project support the idea of learner training course. As long as the students found to be digital immigrants (Parnsky, 2001), learner training can be seen as a solution to the students to use CALL materials effectively (Hubbard,2012).

Learner training term is rather vaguely defined in the literature such as by Sinclair (2006,p.1) in (Hubbard,2012) as "*those who object to the term "training" for being too narrowly and too functionally focused tend to use other terms such as "learner development", "learning to learn", "learning learning" and "promoting autonomy".(p.164)*

Following Levys' (1997) tutor-tool framework, this study recommends two training domains which are *technical* training on how to operate the applications and *Pedagogical* training to support the students link their conscious use of the applications to their language learning goals. This study recommends five learner training principles for teachers adopted from (Hubbard, 2012) briefly summarised below as

- Tutors should use CALL materials themselves, from their reflective experience they can enhance students' strategies on how to use CALL activities.
- It is useful to provide the students information about the forms of language learning models and principles because of their responsibility to learn themselves.
- It is helpful to allow the students to explore a new application before any training support for gaining new skills.
- Students can learn from each other by reflecting their experiences with using technology for their language learning.
- Encouraging the students to use various CALL materials beyond those seen by the developers such as electronic dictionaries.

Furthermore, tutors should be aware in providing adequate support and to use technology pedagogically relevant, that calls for a balance "control" and "help". In controlling situation where learners are told what to do and when, then learning no longer being achieved, however, extreme freedom also would be no learning. Hence the need for a balance between two approaches can be seen as successful experience.

Many educators advocate this balance after the failure of the self-access facilities to instigate learner autonomy (Raya and Fernandez, 2002). Future research should therefore concentrate on the investigation of the role of blended learning which is combining web materials to other classroom activities in promoting learner autonomy and gaining further insights of tutor's role in that environment.

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Ufuk Balaman

Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey

ubalaman@gmail.com

A conversation analytic investigation into the impact of task design on the emergence of information gaps**Bio data**

Ufuk Balaman is a research assistant and PhD candidate in English Language Teaching at Hacettepe University, Turkey. He is also the vice-director of Hacettepe University Micro-Analysis Network (HUMAN) Research Center. His doctoral work focuses on conversation analysis for online multiparty task-oriented interaction.

Current research

This study employs conversation analysis methodology to examine interactional unfolding of multiparty online task-oriented English as foreign language (L2) interactions. The participants of the study are 20 undergraduate students who are members of a conversation club based in their department. As part of a club activity, L2 learners meet online once a week in groups of four to complete a task using "Google Hangouts" video chat environment. The task is called web-orienting which comprises of three on-screen audiovisual clues on a website in which the learners try to find a single keyword for each task and complete the task collaboratively before the opponent teams. Each week, there are three consecutive questions which the learners should answer to accomplish the task, and they cannot pass to the next question until everyone in the group finds the answer. The only rule of the task is that the participant who finds the correct answer cannot tell it to his/her teammates directly, but can add new clues to help them out. The multiparty interactions on the video chat software has been recorded via a screen capturing software, transcribed, and then examined using conversation analysis. The data is from a corpus of online task-oriented interactions across 20 weeks (i.e. 20 hours). The preliminary results showed that the design of the task has an impact on the naturally occurring interaction especially after one of the participants find the answer and starts hinting. Given that the learners align with the task rules and do not share the answer explicitly, the information gaps found in the study are dynamic, emergent, subject to constant change. Therefore, the results establish a new way to implement information gap tasks through the use of emergent gaps which unfold in and through talk-in-interaction.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This study focused on the impact of task design on online task-oriented interaction in English as a foreign language with reference to information gap as a task type. The design of the task has been informed by research findings from the fields of technology-mediated TBLT (Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega, 2014), task-oriented interaction (Seedhouse, 1999; Seedhouse, 2005; Seedhouse & Almutairi, 2009), epistemics in L2 interaction (Heritage, 2012a, b; Sert, 2013; Jakonen & Morton, 2015; Sert & Jacknick, 2015), and conversation analysis for second language acquisition (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Markee, 2000, Markee & Kasper, 2004; Kasper & Wagner, 2011, Sert, 2015) research. Technology-mediated TBLT informed the study with Gonzalez-Lloret and Ortega's (2014) five-step task framework in that the task had (1) a primary focus on meaning rather than

form(s); (2) a completion point that is a keyword; (3) engaged participants without the presence of a teacher; (4) a real-world relationship through collaboration and group discussions (5) with their own words ensuring a hands-on experience. On-screen activities (e.g. web searches and answer trials) and video chat interactions have been screen-recorded for transcription and further analytic treatment using conversation analysis which is a data-driven methodology that has been largely used in second language research in the last decade (Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Kasper & Wagner, 2011, Sert, 2015). Conversation analysis does not impose any codes or categories based on theories, hypotheses, or constructs. The analytic focus is completely on emergent interactional patterns that can be explicated on sequential basis driven by on minute-by-minute, turn-by-turn examination of the naturally occurring interaction data. CA has been used in task-oriented interaction research by some researchers (Seedhouse, 1999; Mori, 2002; Mondada & Pekarek Doehler, 2004; Seedhouse, 2005; Hellerman, 2008; Hellerman & Cole, 2008; Hellerman & Pekarek Doehler, 2010; Markee & Kunitz, 2013) particularly because it offers a robust method to describe the nature of task-as-process (Seedhouse, 2005) and puts an emphasis on the interactional processes of task-engagement rather than keeping the focus on the task-as-workplan (Ellis, 2003). The results of the investigation into these processes showed particular instances during which the learners orient to the emergence of information gaps in relation to their current epistemic status (Sert, 2013; Jakonen & Morton, 2015) in the epistemic gradient (Heritage, 2012a, b) and accomplish the task collaboratively with successful management of these gaps.

Short paper

Information gap tasks, originated in Long's seminal dissertation (1980), have been an important part of almost all widely recognized task typologies in second language research (Crookes, 1986; Prabhu, 1987; Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993; Richards, 2001; Nunan, 2004). Doughty and Pica (1986) defined information gaps as "the existence of a lack of information among participants working on a common problem" (p. 307) and divided the task type into two as one-way and two-way. Two-way information gaps are the tasks that each interactant holds a different piece of information and information exchange is required to complete the task, while in one-way information gaps, the information is held by only one interactant and the information exchange is optional. Doughty and Pica suggest that two-way and multi-way gaps promote group interaction although they do not provide any explanations to multi-way information gaps. Doughty and Pica, Pica et al. (1993), Ellis (2000, 2003, 2009), and Pica, Kang, and Sauro (2006) also refer to the existence of information gaps as one of the necessary conditions for an effective task design. Therefore, one might say that there is a consensus over the usefulness of information gaps for facilitating task-oriented interaction, however, how such interaction occurs around information gaps remains uncovered. It is mainly because the focus on information gaps as a task type were limited only to the task design process, thus to the task-as-workplan. How information gaps are talked into being in and through task-oriented interaction of the learners have not been described in detail, which means that a focus on the task-as-process have been neglected (Breen, 1989; Seedhouse, 2005). Such a focus on the process aspect of an online L2 task has shown that information gaps might be co-constructed by the interactants minute-by-minute and turn-by-turn, which adds to the notion of information gaps in that the gap unfolds in and emerges from the interaction in accordance with the current epistemic status of the interactants rather than pre-determined information flow patterns.

The holder of the information is an essential component of the ongoing task-oriented interaction in that it is what determines the direction of information flow and the learners' orientation to the information transfer (Mori, 2002). It has also been evidenced that the knowing interactant usually dominates the floor (van Lier, 1984) in a way to bring new insights to turn distribution around referential information (Jenks, 2007). In this study, I

set out to inform information transfer, flow, and gap in task-oriented interaction in light of epistemics research in (L2) talk using conversation analysis (Sert, 2013; Jakonen & Morton, 2015; Sert, 2015; Sert & Jacknick, 2015). Heritage (2013) defines epistemics as “knowledge claims that interactants assert, contest and defend in and through turns-at-talk and sequences of interaction” (p. 370), which completely aligns with information gap tasks that require knowledge claims in order to accomplish tasks through the information transfer. However, these claims occur in action on sequential basis, and it is not always possible to predict how exactly they will take place in interaction even if the holder of information is determined by the task design prior to the task-oriented interaction. It is mainly because the interactants are positioned in the epistemic gradient in accordance with their current epistemic status, that may be knowing (K+) or unknowing (K-) (Heritage, 2012a, b), and this positioning is dynamic itself in that it is altered with the knowledge claims that may emerge from the interaction at any minute of talk. Conversation analysis (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) as a research methodology provides analytic tools to understand the nature of task-oriented interaction (Seedhouse, 2005) through micro-details of online L2 talk (Jenks, 2014) and to reflect participant-relevant (emic) perspective of the learners around their dynamic epistemic status (Sert, 2013; Jakonen & Morton, 2015). Following CA analysis, I will try to exemplify how the learners manage their epistemic imbalances minute-by-minute and then accomplish a task through minimizing epistemic differences, therefore creating and filling information gaps in and through talk-in-interaction.

The following extract, which is 96 seconds long, comes from the fourth week of the process (i.e. 20 weeks) and four participants of a single team try to find the answer *gula* based on the clues on the screen (Figure 1) which are *from McCurry's lens, last name?* and a photo of the famous Afghan Girl (National Geographic cover) with her family. None of the participants has found the correct answer before the beginning of the extract, which means that there is no information gaps which has emerged from the task-oriented interaction of the participants. The extract will be presented in small fragments to make it easier to follow, therefore the subsequent extracts are actually pieces of a single extract as one might tell following the line numbers.

Figure 1. *The clues and the game screen*



Extract 1.1 – *Team1 Week5 – Gula*

1 TAN: who is mccurry?
 2 IKL: er: he is a photographer from national geographic i think
 +IKL is directed to National Geographic website as result of an image search
 3 TAN: huh
 4 (4.2)
 5 SAR: steve mccurry?
 6 YEL: yes steve mccurry (.) he has a blog.
 7 SAR: °hu:hh°
 8 (3.1)
 9 last name
 10 (3.6)

The extract begins with TAN's orientation to the clues on the game screen and his request for information in line 1. In line 2, IKL responds to TAN's request with a piece of information based on his current image search that directs him to National Geographic website. IKL ends the turn with epistemic stance marker *i think*. TAN shows uptake to the previous turn in line 3 with an acknowledgement token (*huh*) that functions as a non-minimal post-expansion, which is followed by a 4.2 silence in line 4. In line 5, SAR requests for confirmation to his contribution to the clue on the game screen, which receives a confirmation token and repetition of the clue from YEL in the turn-initial position of line 6. YEL also adds to SAR's clue and elaborates on the photographer. SAR takes up YEL's confirmation and contribution to his clue in line 7. After the 3.1 second silence in line 8, SAR orients to another clue on the screen (*last name*). TAN's information request in line 1, IKL's candidate clue in line 2, YEL's confirmation of SAR's clue, and her upgrade in line 6 all add to the first clue on the screen (from McCurry's lens). Therefore, knowledge has been co-constructed turn-by-turn by the interactants. This co-construction of knowledge is managed through the orientation of the interactants towards their peers' dynamic epistemic status. TAN positions himself in the unknowing (K-) position in line 1 while the other interactants who responds to TAN are positioned in knowing K+ position. It refers to the emergence of an information gap given that an epistemic difference is evidenced on sequential basis. It brings about the first emergence of an information gap which does not direct the learners to task accomplishment because none of them has found the answer yet, however some information which might take them to the answer has been co-constructed.

Extract 1.2 – *Team1 Week5 – Gula*

11 IKL: [ha °huhhh°.
 12 SAR: [(now)
 13 TAN: i mean the /mʌn/- >the man< who (.) took the afghan girl.
 14 (1.4) >i think< (.) the †girl's last name (0.7)
 15 i'm gonna try it
 16 SAR: yeah i'm searching for it as ↓well.
 17 [°"cover shot of the now-famous"°
 18 TAN: [it it- it didn't work (0.8)
 19 no it worked (1.2) it worked the
 20 [go- go- go into wikipedia
 21 YEL: [what's the girls name

The second part of the extract begins with IKL's acknowledgment of previous turns overlapping with SAR's possible orientation to next clues. In line 13, TAN who positioned himself in K- back in line 1 starts an *i-mean*-prefaced turn which usually projects a reformulation but does not apply in this particular turn since he has been the one requesting for knowledge and responded to accordingly, thus he has not formulated anything that can project a reformulation prior to the turn. This extended turn is continued with a same-TCU self-initiated self-repair (Kitzinger, 2013) (the /mʌn/- >the man<) which prefaces the ongoing hinting action. TAN's hint refers to McCurry (>the

man< who (.) took the afghan girl) and adds to previous turns with a new piece of information that is Afghan Girl. In line 14, he combines this clue with the one on the screen that SAR oriented to in line 9 before, and shares his opinion on the answer and marks the girl with rising intonation, therefore referring to the last name of Afghan girl as a candidate answer. He reports that he is about to try his candidate answer on the game screen in line 15. In line 16, SAR complies with TAN, however he uses the verb search instead of try which explicates that SAR does not have access to Afghan Girl's last name but he intends to search for it. In line 17, SAR reads some part of the text on the web page he is checking for a clue. This line shows that SAR has not taken up that TAN is about to try the last name of Afghan Girl as a candidate answer (lines 13-15) even though he complied with it (line 16). Line 17 also occurs in an overlapping fashion with TAN's announcement of that his candidate answer has been a wrong one in line 18 which ends with a silence of 0.8 seconds. In line 19, TAN cancels his previous announcement with no in the turn-initial position and announces that his candidate answer is correct. He repeats it again following a 1.2 second silence. His announcement shows that the candidate answer has been approved not only because he has expressed it verbally but also he has received the feedback from the game screen, and he is ready to make his change of epistemic state available to his teammates. Right after the change in TAN's epistemic status, he starts providing instructions for his teammates in line 20, which is overlapped by YEL's information requests that positions her in K- position and confirm TAN's K+ position. It brings about the second emergent information gap that is talked into being with the change of epistemic state and recognition of this change by the other participants which is evidenced in the following lines as well.

Extract 1.3. Team1 Week5 – Gula

20 [go- go- go into wikipedia
 21 YEL: [what's the girls name
 22 TAN: the a- sharbat (0.6) something (.) the-
 +Fig2



Figure 2. YEL clicks on the Google search result with Wikipedia

23 that's the answer. just go to- wikipedia
 24 IKL: what
 25 SAR: how do i type sharbat? (1.1) †sharbat?
 +Fig3



Figure 3. YEL clicks on Afghan Girl on Steve Mccurry's Wikipedia page

26 TAN: (no) ((echoing))
 27 YEL: the last name girl's last name
 28 SAR: O::hhh °o:hhh°
 +Fig4



Figure 4. SAR types sharbat to Google and automated results are provided

The third part of the extract starts with the beginning of the second emergent information gap. TAN supports his K+ status by providing a new clue which is the first name of the Afghan Girl and fills the rest with something (line 22) that signals the answer and explicitly tells that it is the answer in line 23. In line 22, YEL orients to

Google Search (Figure 2) right after TAN's instruction to visit Wikipedia in line 20, therefore acknowledges TAN's K+ position once again by following his instructions. The second TCU of line 23 is a repetition of the same instruction that TAN produced in line 20. IKL initiates a repair sequence with an information request or a problem with understanding in line 24. This is taken up by YEL in line 27 and is responded to with a reformulation of the clue both on the game screen and verbalized by TAN repeatedly across the previous lines. This line is also significant as it is the first line YEL has started producing hints. Therefore she positions herself in K+ position (line 27) after she has found out the paragraph on the Wikipedia page (Figure 3) in which the correct answer is included (line 25). It is also the line (25) that SAR requests for help first and then for confirmation. YEL's change of epistemic status (line 27) shows that she has overcome the epistemic difference thus filled the information gap. Furthermore, SAR's web search activity which follows TAN's hints has been finalized in line 28 since he has typed sharbat to the search box and noticed that automated results include the correct answer. His noticing is marked with the change of state tokens he has used twice in line 28, which also refers to that SAR's epistemic status has changed as well. Even though YEL and SAR have not announced that their status has changed into K+ as TAN did, they have marked it on sequential basis. Therefore, only IKL has remained in the K- position of the epistemic gradient and sustains the existence of information gap which has emerged twice in the previous lines and is maintained in the following lines.

Extract 1.4. Team1 Week5 - Gula

29 IKL: afghan girl's last name? (0.3)
 30 what's her name- last name?
 31 TAN: °yeah° >↑the last name of the girl<
 32 YEL: just (.) er: >hit on the afghan girl< (.) you will see it
 33 TAN: yes
 34 (1.9)
 +Fig5&6



Figure 5. IKL clicks on Afghan Girl

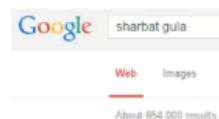


Figure 6. IKL's search page is directed to sharbat gula

35 SAR: yeah (i) found it too
 36 TAN: IKLim?
 37 IKL: alright- i think [i found it
 +IKL types guat to the game screen
 38 SAR: [i found it

The fourth part of the extract starts with a reformulation of IKL's repair initiation in line 24. In line 29, IKL requests for clarification in response to YEL's hint back in line 27. Line 29 and 30 remarks the initiation of the repair sequence in line 24 with a multi-unit turn this time in the form of a self-initiated self-repair (line 30). TAN responds to IKL's clarification request in line 31 with a turn-initial confirmation token (yeah) and reformulates and marks the hint with rising intonation and faster pace. YEL's attempt to repair (line 27) IKL's trouble (line 24, 29, 30) is enhanced by TAN, who is the first person to change his epistemic state into K+ position and the only one who has announced this change. It turns the sequence into a collaborative repair sequence. The collaborative action is maintained by YEL in line 32 in which she provides instructions to facilitate IKL's search for answer and explicates her K+ position to her teammates once again. TAN confirms YEL's instruction in line 33 and IKL follows the instruction and clicks on Afghan Girl on his search page and then he is directed to another search screen (sharbat gula) during the 1.9 seconds silence in line 34. In the next line (35), SAR announces that he has found the answer and marks his change of epistemic status once again after line 28,

but makes it explicitly available to other participants with the announcement this time. His announcement projects TAN's inquiry for IKL's current status in line 36 which is responded by IKL with a mitigated announcement of finding the answer in line 37 in which he also enters his candidate answer (guat) with a spelling mistake to the game screen. This also signals the end of the collaborative repair sequence which has helped IKL find the correct answer, even though he has failed to submit it correctly. This part of the extract is closed in line 38 with SAR's repetition of his own announcement in an overlapping fashion with IKL's announcement. In the following part, IKL's failed attempted is repaired and the information gap is filled.

Extract 1.5. Team1 Week5 - Gula

39 IKL: wait
 40 YEL: i got it
 41 TAN: just go to the wikipedia of the ↑guy
 42 SAR: just google=
 43 TAN: =steve mccur↑ry and (0.4) afghan girl's last name (.)
 44 start with sharbat.
 45 IKL: er:: sha- (.) sharbat gula?
 46 TAN: [↑yeah
 47 YEL: [↑yeah
 48 TAN: the last name of it↓ [↑last name of it.
 49 SAR: [yeah yeah yeah
 50 IKL: [yeah gula (.) i typed-
 51 SAR: [yeah gula last name
 52 IKL: oh: i i wro- i oh oh oh wa- wa- wa- wait (0.6) gula (.)
 +IKL starts deleting the letters of guat and types gula
 53 gula gula gula gula gotta gotta
 54 [>come on come on come on>
 55 SAR: [be quick be quick

Line 39 is the beginning of the final part of the extract, and IKL asks for some time to check the results of his search for answer that he has finalized entering his candidate answer to game screen in line 37. In line 40, YEL finally announces that her epistemic status has changed into K+ as well, although she has positioned herself so in the interaction twice in previous lines. This announcement also explicates that IKL is the only interactant who remains in K- position and maintains the existence of the emergent information gap. In line 41 and 42 the two K+ participants TAN and SAR initiate a collaborative hinting sequence with different instructions. TAN, who has changes his state to K+ first, takes the turn again immediately after SAR's instruction in line 42, and creates an extended multi-unit turn and lists the clues that they have co-constructed so far. IKL shows uptake and requests for confirmation in line 45 with his production of the correct answer (sharbat gula). Verbal production of the correct answer is against task rules which IKL might have oriented to with his self-initiated self-repair in line 45 that has been marked with the cut-off (sha-) and the micro pause. However, possibly because he has entered the answer but has not received a positive feedback from the game screen yet and he remains the only participant in the K- position, he breaches the task rule. Furthermore, the breach is not oriented to by other participants as is clear in their overlapping confirmation in lines 46 and 47. In line 48 TAN expands his confirmation and refers to IKL's request with a direct hint and repeats it twice. The repetition overlaps with SAR's repetitive confirmation which is oriented to TAN's confirmation and direct hint. In line 50 IKL acknowledges that he has taken up the hint and entered the answer to the game screen and once again breaches the task rule. It overlaps with line 51 that is SAR's dual confirmation of both IKL's request in line 45 and TAN's hint in line 49. These confirmations direct IKL's orientation back to the game screen and he notices that he has typed the correct answer as guat to the screen instead of gula, then he deletes and corrects his answer. This screen activity is verbalized first with a change of state token in

turn-initial position and then cut-offs and word repetitions in line 52 and is marked in line 53 with an announcement of the correct answer while he enters the answer and clicks on the answer button. This announcement also reports that IKL is not in the K- position any more and the information gap that emerged in the interaction has now been filled with the collaborative interaction of the participants. Finally, lines 54 and 55 reflect the competitive aspect and task-oriented nature of the interaction and the extract is concluded.

In this study, I have presented a single case analysis of online L2 task-oriented interactions of a group of four participants. This analysis has shown that the task design has an impact on the natural occurrence of talk-in-interaction. The task that the learners undertook has required information exchange for collaborative accomplishment. Although the process has started without an information gap, it has unfolded in the interaction as being one-way, two-way, and multi-way respectively. Given that the learners have not been given any information to transfer or exchange prior to the task except the clues on the game screen which are accessible to all participants, these labels from the literature do not apply to the present study. Therefore, the information gap that has emerged from the task-oriented interactions of the participants adds to the literature a new type, emergent information gaps. Considering the task design has required the learners to (1) provide hints instead of giving the answer directly and (2) co-construct knowledge based on the clues on the screen, it has had an impact on the interaction in that it has brought about a need to manage epistemic differences to accomplish the task. This management has created a dynamic environment in which the emergent information gaps have been filled and subsequently the task has been accomplished

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Ahmad M. Bataineh

The University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan
Al-al Bayt University, Mafraq, Jordan

amab88@yahoo.com

The effect of mobile audio-visual chat on the prosodic and non-verbal competence of foreign language learners.

Bio data

Ahmad M. Batiane, PhD, is an associate Professor of applied linguistics in the Department of curricula and instruction at Al-al-Bayt university-Mafraq- Jordan. He worked as a member of English curricula at the Ministry of Education from 1999-2002. He is (A member of the National Team of Curricula). He worked as a part time teacher in the English Dep., faculty of Arts at The University of Jordan, Petra University and Amman ArabUniversity.

Current research

This study aims to investigate the effect of using mobile audio-visual chat on the prosodic and non-verbal competence of foreign language learners. It is hypothesized worldwide that mobile audio-visual chat has a positive effect on the EFL learners' prosodic and non-verbal competence. The population of the study included 255 students majoring atJabal Amman Basic School for Girls during the academic year 2013/2014. The sample consisted of two sections, a control group and an experimental one. A pretest was administered to both groups to ensure that they were homogeneous. The control group was taught the prosodic and non-verbal aspects of language using a traditional approach while the experimental group was taught via mobile audio-visual chat. About four months later, a posttest was administered. The results of the study showed that there was much progress in the experimental group which significantly outperformed the control group in the different aspects of prosody. These findings confirm the hypothesis which read mobile audio-visual chat can have a positive effect on the EFL learners' prosodic and non-verbal competence.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Along experience of working as a foreign language teachers, supervisors, curricula designers, and university professors and lecturers at BA, MA and PhD levels has revealed that EFL students have problems in communication. One of these problems is that they cannot at most decode and encode the meaning of the prosodic and non-verbal messages. This might be due to fact that FL teachers are at most taken as models. They themselves have problems in the mastery of the prosodic and non-verbal aspects of language. As a result, this defect might lead to problems in communication because emotional tone of speech and the musicality of oral messages play a role in clarifying the speaker's intended meaning. Therefore, EFL instructors should teach English via mobile audio-visual chat to create like-life environments.

More importantly, despite the fact that EFL students study for twelve years of learning English by the time they come to university, they still seem to be incapable of decoding an encoding the paralinguistic aspects of languages that vary from one language community to another. The problem is a serious one as it frequently affects FL teaching

and learning. FLspecialists, especially FL curricula designers, and methodologist must, therefore, think of what best can be done to improve the paralinguistic competence of the target groups in FL classes. The aim of the study is to enable the learner to talk efficiently to the native speakers of English through correct paralinguistic aspects of the language.

Additionally, learning of foreign languages is not an easy task. It needs a lot of hard work and practice, especially, in the areas, which are different from the native language of the learners. Such problem should be highly taken into consideration, because the paralinguistic aspects of language are a vital part of the communicative competence of the learner, and they play a role in clarifying and deciding the exact intended meaning in the mind or in the heart of the speaker. Otherwise, a kind of misunderstanding might occur in communication. This misunderstanding might lead to misconception, clashes, hatred, enmity, and war. Therefore, to fill the gap of insufficiency, EFL teachers should teach FL languages from the mouths of native speakers in different environments depending on instructional technologies such as mobile audio-visual chat.

In a classroom, or laboratory, these elements may be introduced using mobile audio-visual chat so that the student can acquire the paralinguistic aspects of language as an aid to meaning. In such case, the FL students will have a chance to acquire the target language naturally, as they are exposed to life-like situations taken from the everyday life of language community from the mouths of native speakers. Such authentic English might develop the paralinguistic competence of the learners.

- The main procedures adopted to carry out the aims and verify the hypothesis of the study are as follow:
- Identifying the paralinguistic aspects of language to be studied. They include: Intonation, pause, stress, posture, facial expressions, gestures, eye gaze management, rhythm, and body language.
- Designing a scale for research in the paralinguistic aspects of language. It ranges from 0 to 100. Scores were distributed logically among the paralinguistic aspects of language
- A pre-test was administered to know the actual level of both groups before being exposed to the new experience of teaching.
- Then, the control group was taught traditionally, while the experimental group was taught via mobile audio-visual chat. Two months later, a post test was administered to find out if any change occurred, and in favor of which group.
- Both the pre- post-tests were in a form of oral interviews made by native speakers of English.
- The native interviewers wrote clear and detailed on each student's performance in every paralinguistic aspect of language. Their reports were accompanied by scores that range from (0 to 25). The total score of the paralinguistic aspects of language was out of one hundred.
- To get rid of subjectivity, every examiner in the team of interviewers was responsible for evaluating certain paralinguistic aspects of language with 25 scores for each category.
- The control group was taught traditionally, while the experimental group was taught via mobile audio-visual chat.
- Two months later, a post-test was administered to find out if any change occurred. If it occurred, to what extent, in which dimension, and in favor of which group. Then, the total score was calculated to be out of one hundred for every student.

The benefit of this study can be manifested in the following aspects:

- This study could be one of the few studies to be conducted about the effect of mobile audio-visual chat on the prosodic and non-verbal competence of foreign language learners.

- The importance of this study stems from making English language teachers, supervisors, examiners, textbooks writers and curriculumists feel conscious about the importance of mobile audio-visual chat on the prosodic and non-verbal competence of foreign language learners since language is an ear and a tongue.
- The study is expected to be of great use for the ministries of education in the non-native countries of English, especially for textbook writers to accompany English language textbooks with CDs that include recordings of native speakers of English as models for teaching the pronunciation of speech sounds, intonation, stress, pause, and juncture.

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Marie-Thérèse Batardière

University of Limerick, Limerick, Ireland

marie-therese.batardiere@ul.ie

Redefining the teacher's role in an online task-based language learning environment

Bio data

Marie-Thérèse Batardière is a lecturer in French at undergraduate and postgraduate levels at the University of Limerick, Ireland. She is also involved in teacher training and university-school partnerships. Her research interests include the impact of Study Abroad on L2 learning as well as the use of computer-mediated communication to enhance language learning/teaching and promote intercultural collaboration.

Current research

The paradigm shift for teachers using Web2.0 tools involves "rethinking and redesigning the teaching and learning relationship" (Garrison and Kanuka, 2004, p.99). Comas-Quinn (2011) argues that the success of the introduction of online technologies is "in great part due to how well teachers deal with the new ideas and implement them with their learners" (p.221). The influence of the instructional approach on the learning outcomes was demonstrated by Garrison and Cleveland-Innes (2005) when they found that teaching presence in the form of structure (i.e., design) and leadership (i.e., facilitation and direction) was a key factor for students' deep and meaningful (online) learning.

In light of the recent empirical evidence, my current research focuses on the type of cognitive processes that L2 learners experience during computer mediated collaborative tasks and explores the potential causal relationship between instructional strategies and students' cognitive activity.

Task-based language learning and teaching

How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?

Since I/the teacher do(es) not intervene on the online discussion board(s), my 'teaching presence' falls under the category of "instructional management" as defined by Anderson et al. (2001, p. 5). My/The teacher's role, in terms of course design, requires the structuring and integration of the online task into the language course as well the clarity of the instructions and the marking criteria; it is felt that this step by step process helps students develop a common understanding of the task learning goals and potential learning outcomes (Brindley et al, 2009).

Furthermore, I/the teacher give(s) students a chance to have personal and 'real' control over the online task as they research their own topics of interest and get involved in a cognitively challenging real-world activity (Helm, 2013).

How task-based CMC affects the teacher-student and student-student relationships?

Contextual parameters and constraints in CMC have lead me/the teacher to deconstruct the traditional roles of teacher and learner (Thomas and Reinders, 2010).

Indeed, as my/her role (of teacher) becomes less active -and more 'responsive'- during the actual performance of the task (Shea et al, 2010), student peers share the 'teaching presence' online with me/her (Anderson et al., 2001). Students' teaching behaviour is evidenced in their on-line contributions (postings); the expert peers' guidance is usually given in the forms of scaffolding and feedback (on the foreign language and the foreign culture).

Short paper

Introduction

Web-based tools, such as blogs, wikis, and online forums, allow learners to move away from a teacher controlled environment and to adopt a more active role in their learning experience while increasing the human and communicative aspect of their learning. (Guth & Thomas, 2010). However, there is a lack of consensus among researchers and practitioners on the level of instruction, guidance and scaffolding needed to promote learners' intellectual engagement in a blended or an online setting. Indeed, the teacher or facilitator's role in asynchronous communication can vary from being omnipresent to quasi-absent on the online platforms (Mazzolini & Maddison, 2003). For Anderson (2003), deep and meaningful learning can take place "as long as one of the three forms of interaction (student-teacher; student-student; student-content) is at a high level" while "the other two may be offered at minimal levels, or even eliminated, without degrading the educational experience." (p.4). Shea et al.'s (2010; 2013) and Weerasinghe et al.'s (2012) studies provide evidence that inquiry-based discussions can foster deep and meaningful learning with minimal or no teacher support.

Nonetheless, these researchers underline the critical importance of course design and students' engagement to achieve a high level of online collaboration.

In the light of the recent empirical evidence, the present study first investigates students' cognitive presence in 'peer to peer' online discussions involving Irish and French undergraduates. It then reports on students' levels of satisfaction with their collaborative experience and describes teacher's role in preparing them for this new mode of learning.

Lastly, the author makes recommendations regarding the extent of the teacher's presence in an online task-based out-of-class activity.

Theoretical Framework

The Community of inquiry (CoI) framework developed Garrison, Anderson, and Archer (2001) was used to examine students' cognitive activity as it is specifically designed to analyse text-based online interactions and also, as it is the most widely used framework in online and blended-learning research (Xin, 2012). There are three interdependent structural elements in the framework -social, cognitive and teaching presence; however, only the last two dimensions of the model were considered for this study: the Cognitive presence, which is defined as "the extent to which the participants are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse" (Garrison et al., 2001, p.11) and the Teaching presence, which is described as the "the design, facilitation and direction of cognitive and social processes for the purpose of realizing personally meaningful and educationally worthwhile learning outcomes" (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 5).

Methodology

Project outline

The online discussion forum is integrated in a larger project which promotes a three-phased approach; it is worth 25% of the specific language module. For this project entitled 'Regards sur l'actualité' students have to select a current French socio-political issue of their choice, retrieve information on the topic from online newspapers and

analyse it with a view to producing a piece of work demonstrating thorough understanding of the topic (worth 5% of the project mark). The Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) task is an out-of-class activity which starts in week 4 of their 12-week course and runs for 6 to 8 weeks depending on the group dynamic; each L2 learner submits his/her assignment on line and is paired with a native speaker who has expressed an interest in his/her topic. Students then engage in a discussion with their respective partners (worth 15% of the project mark). At the end of the online task, all participants have to reflect and report on their online learning experience (worth 5% of the project mark).

Participants' profile

A total of 16 Irish undergraduate students and 16 Erasmus students (and native speakers of French) participated in the project. The Irish students -11 female and 5 male students- were between 21 and 22 years of age and were enrolled on a Fourth Year undergraduate 'Business and French course'; the French module represents 1/5 of their programme and four contact hours per week. All Irish students had taken part in a collaborative Blog the previous year. The French students -12 female and 4 male students- were on-campus Erasmus students; they came from French or Belgian universities and were enrolled in a translation class taught by the present researcher. They were unknown to their Irish partners.

Task description

The discussion forum was set-up on the Learning Management System (LMS) of the institution for their specific module. In this case, the LMS is called Sulis and is powered by Sakai. Prior to the start of the exchanges, a discussion thread was created for each topic/each dyad. The asynchronous communication task was open and not prescriptive, the only clear requirements being that the Irish students' target language (French) was used at all times in the exchanges and that a minimum of six messages were posted by each participant over the course of the on-line task with no constraint of frequency or length. The assessment of the online task is an integral part of the whole project for Irish students; it is also a graded assignment for Erasmus students.

It is important to note that even though the teacher/moderator involved in the project had full access to students' postings, she never directly intervened in the discussions.

Task Design

This type of project has been running for the last eight consecutive years. The researcher has been guided by the methodological principles of action research which promote the improvement of practice through the cyclical process of action and reflection (Reason & Bradbury, 2001). Thus, students are encouraged to complete an anonymous evaluation questionnaire on their online experience. Over the years, their feedback has informed teacher's modifications to the planning and design of the online task in the following areas: the timing of the online exchange; the choice of discussion topics; the inclusion of a reflection component in the task.

Results and Discussion

The data analysed in this study was obtained through (i) students' postings (16 dyads produced a total of 188 messages – average length per posting: 250 words) and (ii) students' feedback collected from student questionnaires (filled two weeks after the end of the project and completed by 7 Irish students/ 8 Erasmus students).

A qualitative content analysis of students' written production was conducted to examine students' level of cognitive presence, using coding indicators from 'The Four-Phase Practical Inquiry model', as delineated in Garrison et al.'s (2001) conceptual framework. The multi-phased process of inquiry captures students' critical thinking in the postings and assesses their progress (or lack thereof) of their cognitive presence from lower- to higher-order thinking: During Phase 1, students are able to identify problems and ask

questions for further discussion, whereas in Phase 2, they exchange ideas and discuss ambiguities. In Phase 3, students begin to connect ideas to construct new meanings, often incorporating information from other sources and finally, in Phase 4, students are able to apply new ideas or to critically assess and defend solutions.

An extract from Dyad 1's interactions (see Table 1) serves to illustrate how Garrison et al.'s (2001) indicators were identified in the corpus. It also captures students' progression through the four stages of cognitive presence and brings to light how their postings built on each other. Only contributions from the Irish student are provided so as to highlight the gradual impact and incorporation of the French partner's comments into his own postings as the dialogue progresses. The topic of their discussion was: Charlie Hebdo crée la polémique avec ses caricatures de Mahomet [French magazine Charlie Hebdo runs cartoons of Mohammed - Free speech or incitement?].

Table 1. Extract from Dyad 1's interactions - Garrison et al.'s (2001) cognitive presence indicators

Categories	Indicators	NoP PpC*
Initiation Phase -1/ Triggering event	<i>Posting 1</i> http://www.lemonde.fr/societe/article/2012/09/19/charlie-hebdo-annonce-que-son-site-internet-a-ete-pirate_1762387_3224.html [...] L'idée principale présente dans l'article est la réflexion sur la liberté de la presse mais il y a une idée sous-jacente. En effet, l'article note une citation du chef de <i>Charlie Hebdo</i> : il dit qu'il y aurait des réimpressions pour satisfaire la demande énorme pour l'édition concernée. On pourrait dire que la controverse fait vendre et que <i>Charlie Hebdo</i> a publié cette caricature pour vendre plus d'exemplaires.] Donc, la question que je pose, c'est: «La liberté d'expression de la presse, jusqu'où?» (Irish student -male1)	17/ 9%
Exploration Phase -2	<i>Posting 3</i> Merci pour ta réponse et d'avoir choisi mon sujet ! [...] Quand tu dis « La caricature porte atteinte à un dogme, pas à un groupe de personne », j'ai un point de vue similaire . En revanche, si ces groupes de personnes suivent sérieusement un dogme, je pense qu'ils sentent qu'être fideles est de défendre le dogme aux agressions externes -soit des critiques, soit des blagues. Bien sur, la définition de la fidélité est différente pour chaque personne. La religion est très émotive; par conséquent les gens peuvent prendre une position qui n'est pas rationnelle. Qu'est que tu penses?	49/ 26%
Integration Phase -3	<i>Posting 5</i> En Irlande, il y a un magazine satirique hebdomadaire, <i>The Phoenix</i> . Il fait des blagues sur les nouvelles de la semaine, surtout sur les politiciens. Néanmoins, ce n'est pas du tout comme <i>Charlie Hebdo</i> , il ne fait pas des blagues sur les sujets tabous ou polémiques comme la religion. <i>The Phoenix</i> n'utilise pas l'humour noir, si tu me permets d'utiliser ta phrase ! http://www.thephoenix.ie/phoenix/welcome.do [...] En tout cas, c'est vrai que la liberté d'expression d'une personne peut offenser ou blesser une autre. Est-ce que c'est le prix qu'on doit payer pour notre liberté d'expression? Je voudrais lire tes opinions sur ça ! <hr/> <i>Posting 7</i> [...] <i>D'après moi</i> , CH ne penche pas un parti politique ou une idéologie en particulier. Je pense que son objectif est très simple : c'est-à-dire de promouvoir la controverse (leur traitement du drapeau français !) et créer les débats (comme la discussion entre nous !), donc peut-être il s'en fout ce qu'il moque, la source ou le point de vue n'est pas si important tant que le sujet est polémique, mais tu peux me dire si CH a des liens avec une certaine idéologie ou pas? parce que <i>je ne comprends pas</i> beaucoup l'environnement politique française!	106/ 57%
Resolution Phase -4	<i>Posting 9</i> Moi je suis contre la diffamation aussi. [...] [...] <i>J'ai bien réfléchi sur le sujet et je veux dire qu'une publication comme Charlie Hebdo a sa place dans le monde, même si je ne suis pas d'accord avec ce que CH dit ou représente. Je comprends bien ton idée</i> de « bienséance », mais la bienséance est différente pour tout le monde. En fait, cette différence rend le monde plus intéressant n'est pas ? A mon avis , CH habite à la frontière de <i>ma</i> propre barrière de tolérance, mais <i>j'ai le choix</i> d'ignorer CH si je veux. <i>Si je crois que</i> CH publie des caricatures choquantes pour vendre plus, <i>je ne suis pas obligé</i> de les regarder une autre fois! Plus important, <i>je n'ai pas le droit</i> d'arrêter d'autres personnes de lire CH ou dire quelque chose. J'attends ta réponse !	8/ 4%
Non-cognitive		8/ 4%
Total NoP		188

*NoP= Number of postings/ PpC=Percentages per PI category

In italics: references to the Irish student's viewpoint

In bold: references to his Erasmus partner's viewpoint

The distribution of postings for each category of cognitive presence shows that the integration phase was achieved by all dyads (15/16) and the resolution phase, by nearly half of the dyads (7/16). In addition, over half of the postings (56%) were coded at the

third phase, integration (see also Table 1). These two sets of findings suggest that students had progressed into higher-level thinking processes and were engaged in critical reflection; they concur with those of Akyol and Garrison (2011) where 'the integration phase was found to be the most active' (p.244).

The analysis of students' responses from the feedback questionnaire indicates that both Irish and Erasmus students held favourable perceptions of their learning experience. Many of them stressed the authentic dimension of the online dialogues:

"It was a real exchange where we had to discuss and have arguments to support what we were saying." (French student)

"I was able to have an intellectual conversation with a complete stranger and still felt as if I knew them." (Irish student)

Some students referred to the preparatory phase of their online participation:

"I had to put a minimum of 3 hours into each response because I had to research and think of questions to ask my partner." (Irish student)

Students saw the online platform as a learning place where they were given the chance to discuss the topic of their choice:

"I had the opportunity to speak at length about a subject that interests me." (Irish student)

-to test hypotheses about the L2 and the C2 (i.e., partner's language and culture):

"I found that the discussion challenged my French. I learned new phrases and expressions and improved my vocabulary." (Irish student)

"I better understand the Irish culture which is not like I imagined." (French student)

-to benefit from the scaffolding and feedback provided by their peers:

"We were 'forced' to speak in another language and sometimes received comments so it was a useful experience." (Irish student)

"While discussing a topic I discovered other issues that I would not have thought about at first." (French student)

The above comments highlight students' self-awareness and self-regulation of their online and offline learning. They also underline the fact that students recognised the demands of their online experience and also its potential: an engaging real-world activity (Helm, 2013) which allowed them to take on more responsibility for their own learning (Hanna & de Nooy, 2003; 2009) and gave them the opportunity to collaborate with a 'knowledgeable' peer (Lee, 2009).

As mentioned earlier, the teacher did not comment on the discussion forum, any communication with the participants (technical support, gentle reminders etc.) was carried out via emails and short VLE announcements. It is nevertheless worthy of note that the teacher's name came up in students' discussions on a few occasions; this finding would suggest that the teacher's presence, while not visible, was felt in the background.

In contrast, her teacher's role was prominent at the pre-task stage (i.e., during the four weeks prior to the online task); it fell under the category of "instructional management"

as defined by Anderson et al. (2001, p. 5). In their respective classes, French and Irish students familiarised themselves with the CMC tool (Fuchs et al., 2012) and with the structure of the task: instructions and guidelines were provided, assessment criteria explained, learning goals and expectations outlined (Brindley et al, 2009), and temporary access to online discussions from previous years given (Lamy and Goodfellow, 2010). In addition, the Irish students worked on their pre-task assignment (refer to section 3.1). The selection of a topic (related to a thorny issue in the French newspapers) was rightly perceived by students as a critical decision; the teacher was thus consulted for a second opinion. This also ensured that no two students picked the same topic. The teacher's advice was again sought when students formulated their thought-provoking question to be posted later on the forum to kick-start a dialogue with their topic-related partner (Bai, 2009).

Conclusion

Similar to several CMC research studies, the teacher in this case-study had a decisive role in the design and implementation of the task but became deliberately less active - and more responsive- during the actual performance of the online task. It can therefore be stated that the instructor had an indirect, albeit significant, influence on the positive outcomes of students' collaboration (Arnold & Ducate, 2006). Moreover, the fact that students were able to reach the advanced phases of cognitive presence on their own demonstrates that 'overt teacher facilitation' is not always necessary to support students' cognitive learning (Shea et al., 2010) and that teachers might consider spending more time preparing the asynchronous discussions rather than moderating them (Andresen, 2009).

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Anke Berns, Manuel Palomo-Duarte, Alicia Guerrero Garrido & Mercedes Paez Piña

University of Cadiz, Cádiz, Spain

anke.berns@uca.es

Learners' expectations and needs: some practical clues for designing foreign language apps

Bio data

Anke Berns is currently working as a German Lecturer in the English and French Department at the University of Cadiz (Spain) where she received her Ph.D. in 2002. She has been working for more than 19 years as a teacher and teacher trainer. Her research interests focus specifically on the design of teaching and learning materials in the area of CALL and MALL.

Manuel Palomo-Duarte has a Computer Science degree from the University of Seville and a Ph.D. from the University of Cadiz. He is currently a lecturer and Degree Coordinator for Computer Science at the University of Cádiz (Spain). His teaching focuses on subjects related to web science and serious games using open-source software. His main research interests are learning technologies and collaborative development.

Alicia Guerrero Garrido is in the second year of her English and Spanish Degree at the University of Cadiz (Spain). She is interested in mobile applications for foreign language learning and has recently participated in the design of several foreign language apps.

Mercedes Paez Piña is in the second year of her French and Spanish Degree at the University of Cadiz (Spain) and is interested in foreign language teaching and learning processes based on CALL and MALL. She has recently participated in the evaluation of several game-applications.

Current research

Our current research interests focus especially on the use of new technologies in the teaching and learning of foreign languages. We are particularly interested in design-based research, learner motivation and learner assessment. More specific interests relate to particular languages such as German and English. In the last 4 years we have designed several applications in the area of CALL (see: <https://code.google.com/p/daifceale/>) and MALL (see: <https://bitbucket.org/matrunks/deutschuca/wiki/Home>); (<https://github.com/AlbertoCejass/GermanLearningUCA>); (<https://play.google.com/store/apps/details?id=es.uca.tabu&hl=es>), analysing their impact on students' foreign language learning.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Abstract

Our paper aims to provide designers and teachers with some practical guidance on the development process and implementation of mobile apps for foreign language learning. This is done by providing the reader first, with some critical reflection on a number of key-issues related to the design of meaningful, enjoyable and useful learning tasks for MALL, taking into account both, its affordances as well as constraints. And second, by

offering an analysis and evaluation of a recent experience, the authors made with the development of a foreign language app and its implementation in a compulsory German language course. The here described experience aims to underline the importance of an *iterative development process* (experimentation-evaluation-enhancement), in which learners are directly integrated, giving them a voice and bringing their comments, ideas and preferences into the development process itself.

Introduction

The increasing rise of mobile technologies provides designers and practitioners both with new possibilities for creating more diversified teaching and learning materials, as well as with new challenges, which should not be underestimated. As outlined by Stockwell and Hubbard (2013) these challenges are mainly related to three aspects: The physical, pedagogical as well as psycho-social aspects of mobile devices. All three need to be taken into account before integrating them effectively into language learning environments.

In the following we will briefly summarise what is meant by each of them: The physical aspect refers to the fact that mobile devices are small and handy, integrating multi-functionalities, which regardless of their enormous potential for learning might sometimes entail even significant constraints. These constraints refer mainly to the small screen size, storage capacity, processor speed, battery life as well as the compatibility of devices (Thornton & Houser, 2001; Stockwell, 2008; Koole, 2009; Reinders & Hubbard, 2013; Stockwell & Hubbard 2013).

Another aspect, which is strictly related to the physical aspect, is the pedagogical area, which underlines the importance of task-design considering both, the affordances as well as constraints of mobile devices. Thus several researchers have stressed the importance of exploring the interactive potential (Levy, 1997) and mobility of handheld devices (Godwin, 2011) without forgetting possible technical constraints.

Finally, the third aspect to be taken into account refers to psycho-social aspects, which imply that mobile devices are usually employed for personal and/ or social purposes rather than for working or studying purposes (Stockwell & Hubbard 2013). This means that learners as well as teachers might be sometimes either reluctant to use their mobile devices for other than personal purposes or, even, do not know how to use them effectively for teaching or learning purposes (Prensky, 2001). Hence teacher as well as learner training becomes another important issue when implementing mobile devices in learning contexts (Hubbard & Levy, 2006; Winke & Goertler, 2008; Kennedy & Levy, 2009).

The aforementioned aspects illustrate that mobile devices, as any other tool, are not effective for their own sake, but instead, they need to be carefully integrated in learning processes and environments (Hubbard & Levy, 2006). To take advantage of the real potential of mobile devices, features such as ubiquity, anonymity, communication and collaborative learning anytime and anyplace should be considered in the app design. This way mobile devices are able to provide learners with enriched learning environments, which are usually difficult, if not impossible, to create in traditional classroom settings.

Furthermore there is another aspect to be taken into account, when designing learning tools. And thus several researchers have stressed the importance of the iterative development process, which requires "(...) experimentation, evaluation and enhancement (...)" (Kennedy & Levy, 2009). As outlined by Nelson and Levy it is impossible to design an "effective project a priori". Instead it has to be tested, evaluated and revised in order to ensure that its design meets learners' needs and expectations and thus becomes an effective learning tool (Nelson & Oliver, 1999; Levy, 2009). The same researchers conclude that a learning tool is then considered to be effective when it accomplishes mainly two conditions: firstly, it has to meet learners' needs and secondly,

it must help them to address these needs efficiently by improving their language proficiency significantly.

Given this it becomes clear that the learner themselves plays a fundamental role in the design process and hence should be given a voice in it. Researchers have argued that by bringing learners' comments, ideas and preferences into the development process, the final product is not merely determined by the learners' needs, but they will also want to use it (Nelson & Oliver, 1999). In this paper, we respond to such demands, by presenting an analysis of a trial version of the VocabTRAINER A1 app (Berns & Palomo, 2015). The app had been designed by us to support our students in their vocabulary learning out of class.

Method

Game-design

The VocabTRAINER A1 app represents, at first glance, a very traditional language app design, based on several mini-games, following a multiple choice pattern. However, whilst the first part of the game provides learners with a lot of vocabulary input from different areas (places, physical appearances, everyday objects, etc.), the second part offers learners the opportunity to apply the previously acquired vocabulary in a gymkhana which is based on a collaborative role-play, called Catch me, if you can! (Berns & Palomo, 2015).

The experience

Participants

The target group of the experiment was made up by more than 100 students of a German foreign language course from a Spanish university. All students were from the A1 level (CEFR) and thus had a very basic knowledge of the target language. The app was tested in the second semester of students' German language course, during a period of 4 weeks. The content of the app was strictly related to the language course students were taking part in and aimed at fostering as well as complementing some of the previously in class introduced language items. To familiarise students with the app and its dynamic, we first gave them a one hour training session in which students were encouraged to play as many of the 9 VocabTRAINER mini-games as possible. Hereafter students were encouraged to continue playing from home to complete or even, repeat the already played games, to foster and widen their language knowledge.

TAM questionnaire

To gather students' feedback on their experience with the above described app, we asked them to fill in a questionnaire at the end of the experiment. The questionnaire was based on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) proposed by Liu (2010). A total number of 92 students filled in the anonymous questionnaire.

1. Mobile app design
1.1 The content of the app is interesting.
1.2 The content of the app meets my learning needs.
1.3 The regular feedback is very useful.
1.4 In general I am satisfied with the content and quality of the app.
2. Perceived usefulness
2.1 I believe that this kind of app is very useful to improve my language competences.
2.2 I believe that this kind of app is very useful to improve my writing skills.
2.3 I believe that this kind of app is very useful to improve my reading skills.
2.4 I believe that this kind of app is very useful to acquire vocabulary.
2.5 I believe that this kind of app is very useful for learning to communicate more fluently in German language.
3. Perceived interaction
3.1 I used the chat to collaborate with my teammates.
3.2 I used the chat to ask my teammates for help.
3.3. I used the chat very much to communicate with my teammates.
3.4 In general, I think mobile apps combined with multiplayer online-games provide good opportunities for foreign language practice.
4. Intention to use mobile apps
4.1 I intend to use this kind of apps more often to improve my language level in German (or other languages).
4.2 I would use this kind of apps to improve my writing skills.
4.3 I would use this kind of apps for other learning activities beyond the classroom (vocabulary learning, grammar or writing).

Table 1: Selected questions from the questionnaire

The results of the TAM questionnaire have shown that the game-experience was in general very positive as students got first of all very excited about the idea of learning German through a gamified app. Secondly, students reported that not only the content of the app was quite interesting (more than 95 per cent of the participants) but so were game features such as the regular feedback on their game performance. And thus almost 90 per cent of the learners confirmed that the feedback helped them during their learning process to focus on their particular weaknesses improving their language competences especially in terms of writing and reading (see Table 1, questions 1.1-1.4). Additionally about 98 per cent of the learners outlined that the app helped them to acquire new vocabulary and up to 97 per cent considered the app even useful to improve their communication skills and to interact with others in the target language. Fluency was improved not only through the *VocabTRAINER* mini-games but also through the multiplayer online game (*Catch me, if you can!*), in which students were asked to perform in teams and via text-chat, a cooperative game task (see Table 1, questions 2.1-2.4). At least 97 per cent of the learners highly valued the fact that the app provided them with opportunities for interacting with other users in the target language (see Table 1, questions 3.1-3.4). More than 90 per cent of the surveyed students concluded that they

would like to use apps like the one we have designed more often to improve their foreign language proficiency (see Table 1, questions 4.1-4.3) (Berns & Palomo, 2015).

Focus group interviews

Once the course was over and grades were given to all students, we aimed to gather a more detailed feedback on students' game experience and evaluation of the app, to eventually revise and enhance its content and design. To obtain a more diversified feedback we asked students with very different learning profiles to participate in the interviews, a total number of 16 students took part. The interviews were carried out with 4-5 students per group and lasted each one between 60 to 70 minutes. To make students feel more comfortable, when expressing their personal opinions on the app, we asked two external supervisors to carry out the interviews. In the following we will summarise some of the main results obtained from the interviews, which were based around the following questions:

Question 1 (How was your experience with the app?):

Students confirmed that their game-experience was in general very positive, considering the app helpful for their German language learning. The integration of several game-features (score-system, time-limit, levels of difficulties) and multimedia (photos, videos, audios) made the learning experience challenging and fun. Even though most of the interviewed students got excited about the gymkhana (second part of the app) and the opportunity to apply their previously (in part one) acquired vocabulary knowledge to a challenging role play game, there were other students, who reported several difficulties. These were mainly related to students' communication and game coordination via text chat, especially when playing with weaker students, who had difficulties in making themselves understood in the German language. And thus communication problems in some cases during the gymkhana negatively affected the game experience, resulting in a chaotic and frustrating experience.

Question 2 (What did you like most about the app?):

From students' reports they very much appreciated very much the app's interactive and competitive nature along with the fact that vocabulary was introduced through many visuals supported by audio-recordings. Furthermore learners stressed the app's motivational impact due to its student focused learning environment and gamification (time-limit, score system, levels of difficulties).

Question 3 (What was the app's main challenge with regard to your language learning?):

One of the main challenges, students mentioned, referred to some of the targeted grammar items (articles and adjectives), which would have needed more explanations on the part of the teachers before playing the app. And thus some of the targeted grammar items (adjectives) turned out to be too complex to be learned through drill-based activities such as the *VocabTRAINER* mini-games. Other challenges referred to the gymkhana, which required students to fluently communicate amongst each other and via text-chat to perform a joint game-task. From students' comments communication became sometimes difficult, since several players had enormous difficulties when expressing themselves in German.

Question 4 (What does the app mean to your language learning?):

Students confirmed that the app helped them a lot much in their vocabulary learning, especially in terms of writing. Whilst the first part of the app (*VocabTRAINER*) provided them with rich vocabulary input, the second part (*Catch me, if you can!*) gave them the opportunity to apply and foster the previously learnt vocabulary. Some of the interviewed

students reinforced the positive impact of the anonymised text chat (the app had been implemented with) on their writing, since they felt less anxious when communicating with other classmates in the target language.

Question 5 (Did the app engage you to study more beyond the classroom?):

Even though almost all of the surveyed students underlined, that the app made vocabulary learning process much more fun and easier than other learning materials (wordlists, flashcards or LMS learning platforms), they also stated that the app did not influence their learning beyond the classroom, since their motivation was already very high before the game-experience.

Question 6 (How did the app influence your opinion on using apps for your autonomous language learning?):

The results from question 6 have shown that the app had a greater impact on students' learning than expected due to the answers given in previous questions (question 5). And thus several learners reported that the app motivated them to browse the internet looking for further foreign language apps. Nonetheless students confirmed that it was rather difficult to find interesting and useful as well as freely available apps.

Question 7 (What do you suggest to make the app more efficient for your language learning?):

Students' suggestions focused mainly on the implementation of levels of difficulties and vocabulary input to keep the app challenging. Vocabulary input represents still one of learners' primary demands, especially when they are at beginner level. Students also requested more meaningful and everyday language input. Other students, in turn, mentioned problems with their teammates when performing the collaborative role-play (gymkhana). Complaints referred to the number of teammates they had to play with. To make players' coordination and communication more fluent they suggested reducing the number of players in each team, from three to two players (one detective and one policeman). Moreover students stressed the importance of making learning apps accessible from different platforms and operating systems (iPhone, Windows Phone, PC, etc.), rather than being constrained just to Android devices.

Conclusions

The current study has shed some light on the affordances as well as challenges mobile devices such as smartphones entail for foreign language learning. Whilst the results from the TAM questionnaire have highlighted the motivational as well as educational potential of gamified apps, the results from the focus group interviews allowed us to obtain a deeper analysis of the challenges the design of mobile apps entail. And thus the interviews have once more stressed the importance of taking into account physical constraints such as the compatibility of devices. Several students reported problems with accessing the app, since their devices were not compatible with the operating system our app had been implemented for. To ensure students' access designers and specially programmers need to consider those requirements in the development process, using multi-platform programming languages and libraries in order to provide the app on devices running different operating systems. An additional issue is that sometimes the different versions of a certain operating system are not compatible, so a satisfactory balance between the development effort and product compatibility must be met.

Another important aspect when exploring the potential of mobile apps for learning refers to the pedagogical area and opportunity to create highly interactive learning environments, bringing real-world experiences into the classroom and vice versa. Despite some communication problems, participants reported with regard to the gymkhana, an

all in all positive feedback on their game-experience which has underlined the motivational as well as educational potential of highly interactive and gamified learning environments. Additionally, the use of different kinds of multimedia (photos, videos and audio-recordings) along with personalised, student-centered environments and versatile opportunities to get and produce foreign language in- and output was highly appreciated.

The current study has further shown the importance of bearing in mind possible psychosocial barriers on part of the learners when using mobile apps for their foreign language learning. Training sessions might therefore help make learners aware both of the advantages as well as opportunities mobile apps might entail for their learning. Ubiquity and learning through multimedia enriched collaborative learning environments are only some of the aspects that make smartphones highly attractive and potential learning tools, which offer unprecedented opportunities for learning.

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Christel-Joy Cameran

University of Koblenz-Landau, Koblenz, Germany

cameran@uni-koblenz.de

The role of corrective feedback in the L2 German grammar teaching system COMPASS

Bio data

Christel-Joy Cameran is a PhD Student at the University of Koblenz-Landau. She works in the workgroup of Prof. Dr. Karin Harbusch at the Department of Computer Science and supervises tutorials in artificial intelligence and human computer interaction.

Current research

Context of our research is the development of our L2 German grammar teaching system COMPASS (Harbusch, Härtel & Cameran, 2013). It is based on the Performance Grammar (Kempen & Harbusch, 2002) formalism and has an interactive workspace that provides the possibility to build syntactically correct sentences by connecting words in the form of tree graphs from a thesaurus. One of the latest extensions is the implementation of the Underspecification in the Unification rules of the leaf nodes that contain the whole feature structure of the single word or the sentence so far. The basic idea of the Underspecification rules was to enable the production of nonconforming syntactic constructions based on the user's learning expertise. The different learning stages are comparable to the learning sequences mentioned by Diehl (2000) and Ballestracci (2005). As Pienemann (1989) already stated in his processability and teachability theories we also set the focus on errors the user is actually confronted with at his personal learning stage. The Underspecification was integrated to ignore the errors we don't want to focus on at a certain learning stage and to provide user and context focused corrective feedback. Currently we set up a study that is going to take place in the ISL language school early march. Our goal is to show that students can overcome their fear of the so called "white paper blocker" by using our task-based L2 grammar learning system. The role of our individual corrective feedback will be shown in a first study where students will be asked to rebuild self-produced text in COMPASS. We want to show that students can profit from autonomous learning with COMPASS and gain more self-esteem in writing.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Especially for the students of the ISL language school our grammar teaching system COMPASS seems to fit perfectly to their needs. As they come from different countries, they have several cultural backgrounds and bring along various levels of proficiency. It is a tough challenge to support all of them in an appropriate way in just one class. For being able to serve this high diversity and still not only produce meaningful and useful tasks but also enjoyable tasks we decided COMPASS to be an input-driven system. It supports every free text task and provides corrective feedback for every possible sentence construction, even the several combinations that result from the linearisation. Every student has the possibility to work on his own text, at his own proficiency level and his own learning rate. The produced texts can contain letters, narrations or some kind of descriptions. In any way they represent a form of communication our students want to learn. So that they are able to benefit from a continuing education, to get an

employment or simply to communicate in the country they are living in. It is an important part of the intercultural competence the students want to learn at the ISL language school. As mentioned before COMPASS is a user centered system, it provides authentic corrective feedback while it's analyzing the learner's activity by running the Unification process in the background that contains the linguistic features so far. In the system every Unification is based on the features the leaf node has. The stated learner's proficiency level influences the conditions under which features clash. A possible provided feedback answer could be for example "Have a look at the subject-verb agreement.". The student gets a concrete linguistic impulse to achieve his goal. As Ellis (2001) quoted, there is a difference between focused and consciousness-raised (CR) tasks. CR-tasks rather support the explicit learning process and draw the learner's attention to a particular linguistic feature. Students need to be confronted with linguistic phenomena to be able to reproduce the correct forms. The psycholinguistic development demands a positive error handling. Therefore COMPASS combines CR-tasks with a workspace for unfocused tasks, which don't focus on the production of a special linguistic feature, by allowing to perform the task in many different ways. Our proposal for this combination is to show that students can profit of being able to work on their personal skill level with full linguistic background, that stimulates the exploration of different linguistic structure on different ways by performing one and the same task, without focusing on a certain linguistic feature form. Another interesting research approach will be to sit two students synchronously together for a collaboration working group. The analysis of their interaction in the workspace of COMPASS can give information about their individual learning process and whether they profit from each others proficiency level. Of course the levels between two students shouldn't differ too much, else the gap could provoke that one of them would take over the whole task handling. Furthermore the result would lead to an incomprehensible feedback for the one with the lower syntactic learning level. For now we are looking forward to introduce you to our latest research results of the following study

Short paper

In the first cycle of our test series we focused on the different ways users approach the system. Therefore we needed to use an appropriate data collection method in order to analyse the learner's behaviour. As the results of the provided task were less important than the solving strategy, we captured their first usage of COMPASS with a screencast. In an ensuing view of the video material, every single film has been coded in a sequence of appearing strategy phases. According to the coding technique of the grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) the individual phases were not been specified before analysing the videos, instead they were determined inductively by their appearance. For this reason we can not show a complete corpus of all possible incurring phases and hence neither of all phase transitions. None the less some interesting examples could be determined.

Through the individual sequence of strategy phases we wanted to gain insight about the learner's process of comprehension. One of the key issues for a better understanding is to get an idea of the reasons that lead to a transition from one phase to another.

For this purpose phases had to be analysed in respect to ones before and after them. The following case demonstrates the necessity of this procedure: one word is repeatedly incorrectly connected to the sentence tree built so far. As a result the not conforming nodes continuously jump apart and turn red for some seconds. The following phases can give insight about the learning process. Possibly after a following break in which the user decides about his/her further actions, the learner could recall and profit from already learnt knowledge or decide to find the correct connection of the words into the sentence tree by trail and error or the learner concentrates on another part of the structure, for

example the linearisation or a less problematic word. Only the complete study of several phases can lead to a proper interpretation of the collected data.

To ensure that the collected data contains such detailed information we decided to observe every user at once. So we were able to take memos about mentioned annotations, gesture or facial expressions. Given that the participants of our study have very different cultural backgrounds and the communication in German was tough, we communicated in broken English. Because of these language problems a written inquiry had not been useful, therefore we decided to obtain the information in interviews that took place before and after the supervised test sequence.

As mentioned before we wanted the users to rebuild their own written sentences in the COMPASS working space. For this purpose the participants edited a conducted written exercise in their normal lesson at the ISL language school. In the task the students were asked to write a postcard to their best friend from Berlin. We investigated the content of the handwritten text and picked out some stereotypical sentences of their learning stage including incorrect syntactic structures for the study. The exercise in the ISL language school had been done one week before the study took place. It is assumed that the student's learning had not changed notably within one week.

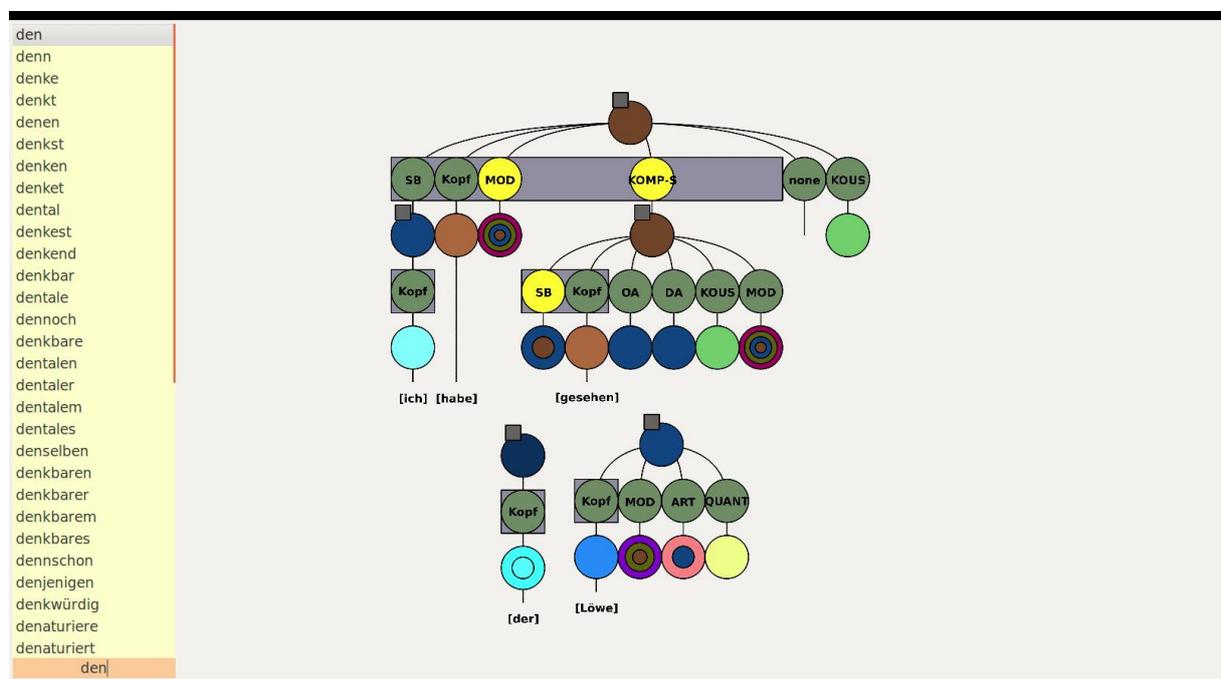
After showing them an instruction video the learners were asked to rebuild their own sentence, that was handed out to them in an orthographic corrected printed form. This was necessary because COMPASS does not contain an autocorrect function in the search form of the thesaurus yet. Every participant got to see the same video that showed how an example sentence is build in COMPASS including possibly occurring mistakes. The sentence that was used to demonstrate the functionalities was "Anna baut ihm die Rakete"/"Anna builds him the rocket". All students heard the same explanations regarding to the workspace and the thesaurus, how to type in words, entering the words by using the "enter" button, always to start with the verb of the sentence, distinguish the syntactic functionalities by respecting the color-coding and use the linearisation by drag and drop all used branches in the left sided grey squares for switching them till a correct form is found highlighted by yellow nodes turning into green ones. For the beginning it seemed to be a lot of information to process and a relative unfamiliar schema to work with, but most of the participants started right away to work on their composing goal.

Overall five students attended our study. They were between 17 and 33 years old and had different cultural backgrounds. One of the participants was even German but immigrated from Ecuador eight months ago and started to learn the German language half a year ago as most of the other students. All of them spoke three or even four languages, but it has to be pointed out that their skills of the third and fourth language are only on basic level. The length of the taken screencasts differ from seven minutes to seventeen minutes. In the following one of the student's tests is exemplary described to show how the working environment influenced the learning manner. For this purpose the coded sequence of our student, lets call him Ila, is going to serve us for further analysis.

Ila startet right away building his prepared sentence "ich habe der Löwe gesehen"/"i have seen the lion", in which the declination of "der Löwe"/"the lion" had been written in the nominative case and not in the correct case of the accusative "den Löwen"/"the lion". The first two words were typed in the search form of the thesaurus one by one, loaded into the workspace and connected by joining the anchor node of the subject "ich"/"i" with the fitting subject leaf node of the auxiliary verb "habe"/"have". Then the next word "der"/"the" was loaded and connected to a not matching leaf node of the "ich habe"/"i have" tree so that the nodes jumped apart and turned red to signalize the nonconforming connection. In the second trial the word "der"/"the" was connected correctly. Ila went on building the sentence and accomplished to build the syntactic tree: "ich habe der Löwe gesehen"/"i have seen the lion" by trial and error. In this process single words were also disconnected and reconnected several times to the sentence tree.

For the following linearisation every student got an additional explanation how to drag the modified branches of the sentence tree into the linearisation box of the particular layer. After including all necessary branches and completing the switching of the branches for the linearisation some nodes remained yellow and did not turn green because of the declination error. Ila was able to detect the problem and correct the form by loading the two words "den"/"the" and "Löwen"/"lion" from the thesaurus. Through the replacement Ila achieved to self-correct his sentence and made a progress through the highlighted parts.

No concrete linguistic details were mentioned by the system so far. Only the colour coding attracted Ila's attention to the syntactic complexity. Afterwards Ila described the usage of COMPASS from his view and mentioned suggestions for improvements. The labeling of the different nodes seemed to be confusing because they were not exactly like the ones used in the lessons of the ISL language school. Even the colour-coding caused some confusion because some colours were already reserved for syntactic functions. Ila also mentioned that a precise linguistic feedback would have helped and prevented to



think about the possible problem.

Fig.1: Screenshot of Ila's screencast. At this point Ila already detected the problem and disconnected "der Löwe"/"the lion". You can see both words below the rest of the syntactic tree. On the left side you can see how he is typing in "den"/"the", afterwards he also loaded "Löwen"/"lion", to replace the two words.

Due to the fact that most of the participants started working with the tool right away indicates that it might help students to overcome the so called "white paper blocker". One even asked if he could write more than the given sentence and about a topic he was thinking about at this moment. The high intrinsic motivation could arise especially from our tool but also just because of the usage of a computer assisted language learning tool in general. An indication of the effects that are conducive to language learning and caused by the special features provided by COMPASS is that no one in the test group could stand the fact that nodes in their workspace remained yellow - the sign for a not complete syntactic correct sentence. Every participant continued working patiently till they corrected the mistake in the sentence. Otherwise they would have gotten the explanation at the end of the study, how the proper sentence looks like and how it could have been generated in COMPASS.

Errors have been treated as a normal step in their working process they had to focus on. The handling with the incorrect parts had no noticeable negative effect on the participants. It even seemed to make them more interesting. Even though the feedback was reduced to minimal effects in form of the traffic light colour coding red yellow and green, the student's recognisable behaviour implies that COMPASS has the potential to encourage the learner to work in mode of self-correcting learning.

Despite the positive effects we find out some distinct limits of the system. One of them is traced back to the diverse cultural backgrounds for instance one of the participants had big difficulties to read the node labels in the Latin alphabet, because he is born in Syria. He also took long breaks during the interaction with COMPASS and noted that he is not used to work with computers at all.

This leads to another limiting precondition: obviously all students had highly differing computer skills, that is why some of them had difficulties in interacting with the interface or even to operate the computer in general. In respect of these facts and that nobody knew COMPASS before, the students made a great job using it.

The next step is to determine how to advance the software for our study. There are several important issues as there is for example the adaption of the color-coding, the node labelling and the auto correction for the type in field in the thesaurus. But also alternatives in the feedback structure could help the learner at a certain learning stage. A detailed linguistic feedback could support the user in detecting the problem but would also prevent the learner to solve it on his or her own just as Ila did. A differentiated policy how to present linguistic feedback is necessary particularly from the didactic point of view. Simply presenting the correct declination form "den Löwen"/ "the lion" taken from Ila's example would not be a good choice until the user explicitly asks for help or until a time trigger signalizes that a hint could prevent frustration.

Therefore following studies must be conducted in order to determine an individually balanced way of creating demanding and encouraging feedback. Furthermore they should reveal if students are able to produce a longer text by using COMPASS as in common text generating tasks on paper. In this case more syntactic incorrect forms can serve as language learning opportunities without negative effects on motivation. The assumption that this generally leads to a rapid progress in language learning has also to be confirmed in future studies. For all those propositions the data collection and analysing methods need to be analysed due to their suitability.

The results of the study described here point out that COMPASS already provides a motivating learning environment in its early stage of development. "I wish we could work with this tool fifty percent of the time we spend at the language school", a participant asserted after using the software.

Although, as stated above many improvements have to be applied to the interface and the way feedback is presented the software already grants the opportunity to correct sentences by the learners themselves. The rather simple feedback given on the fly while building the sentence affects the user to recall different problem-solving strategies for example remembering learnt grammar structures as described in the case above. Even the trail and error method used by another participant contributes benefits to learning progress because it evokes the willing to understand why a certain combination is correct. This was noticeable in two further cases. One user rebuilt the wrong sentence after coming across the correct form in order to figure out the mistake's cause and another user was able to name the incorrect form and correct it on the printed paper where his sentence was written on because he was struggling to work on a computer. This indicates the amount of support that COMPASS already provides to foreign-language learners who want to discover and comprehend the German language.

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David Campbell

Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine, Obihiro, Japan

campbell@obihiro.ac.jp

A simple four skills activity using the Moodle database module

Bio data

David Campbell is an assistant professor in the Department of Human Sciences at Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine in Obihiro, Hokkaido, Japan. He has over 30 years of experience teaching English to all ages of students.

Current research

My current research interest is the use of Moodle, a learning management system, and the impact on students, who lack intrinsic motivation to learn English, when an instructor provides detailed feedback on the learner's interaction with the course materials from the logs and reports that it generates. Will this feedback change student learning strategies? Can this form of extrinsic motivation lead a student to develop intrinsic motivation to learn English?

Task-based language learning and teaching

A simple four skills activity using the Moodle database module provides students the opportunity to practice speaking, listening, writing and reading quickly and easily. In many task based learning activities in the foreign language classroom there are logistical problems that can be overcome using computer-mediated communication (CMC). For example, in a class with a large number of students it can be difficult and time consuming to create pairs or groups, but this can be simplified by using a learning management system like Moodle. If you want people to have multiple partners, again there is the problem of moving students around and the delays involved in the process, but having the students interact with different classmates online eliminates this issue. If the activity is paper based then there is the problem of distributing and collecting the paper, but using Moodle does away with this step. When the instructor wants to get an idea of the students' output, there is the added burden of sorting through all those pieces of paper and the time that it involves. Because the information created in this activity is in a database it can be easily sorted, searched and exported which allows the instructor to study students' output and create further activities to work on the weak points that instructor identifies.

Using the Moodle database module in a blended learning environment students share information in a face-to-face exchange followed by synchronous online interaction where students ask questions to or comment on their classmates' posts about what they learned from their partner. Using the Moodle database module allows the instructor to monitor student output and provide timely feedback. Students also take part in the feedback process and negotiate the meaning of the information being shared by asking questions and posting comments.

This activity demonstrates the potential of using the Moodle database module to create task based learning activities that are authentic, meaningful, useful in addition to being enjoyable.

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Daniel Castaneda

Kent State University, Ohio, United States

dcastane@kent.edu

The use of synchronous and asynchronous activities to improve cultural knowledge.

Bio data

Daniel A. Castaneda is an Associate Professor of Spanish at Kent State University, Stark Campus. His research interests include the application of synchronous and asynchronous text-and oral-based technologies in the teaching and learning of a foreign language.

Current research

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which synchronous and asynchronous input as well as synchronous and asynchronous output tasks improve college students' cultural knowledge in Spanish as a second language. In regard to the input tasks, students accessed online sources (e.g., read newspaper articles and watched news clips). With respect to the output tasks, students summarized and reacted to the content before sharing their responses with their peers in both face-to-face and online settings. Seventeen students enrolled in an intermediate Spanish 2 class participated in this study for 13 weeks. Preliminary analysis, using descriptive statistics and qualitative data, indicates that asynchronous input and synchronous output activities help to improve the students' cultural knowledge. In addition, indications are that, overall, students were satisfied with these activities

Task-based language learning and teaching

In this section, I intend to answer the following question: Which tasks are more appropriate for developing cultural knowledge? The implementation of synchronous and asynchronous input and output tasks, using face-to-face and online components, seems to be one appropriate way to develop intercultural competence or cultural knowledge. In the following paragraphs, I will briefly describe the activities developed for this specific project and their task-based aspects.

Synchronous and Asynchronous Input tasks

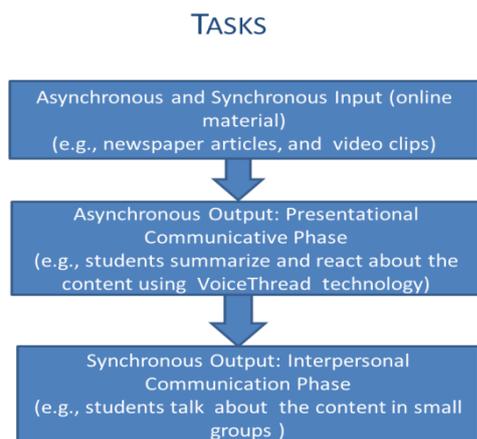
In the first phase of the task, students were exposed to multimodal authentic input material (e.g., online newspapers present the information in text and/or video). In addition, they had the flexibility to select their preferred topic (e.g., economy, crime, and gastronomy). These input activities also exposed learners to current content and language (e.g., latest news) beyond the affordances of classroom input (e.g., academic Spanish). Furthermore, they were exposed not only to cultural content but also to other modes of natural language per se (e.g., dialects, slang, body language, and behavior).

Synchronous and Asynchronous Output tasks

In the second phase, the students summarized the information, reflected on the content, and recorded their findings using VoiceThread technology, an online multimedia slide show. They were allowed to have notes or a script. In that sense, Phase 2 was not truly

communicative, but its main purpose was to help them prepare for the next communicative phase.

In the third phase, learners met face-to-face in small groups in separate study rooms of the school library to share their findings. In these weekly meetings students not only talked about their cultural content findings but also about what was going on in their daily lives. Students were highly encouraged to use the target language without the help of notes or a script. They were also encouraged to focus on content (e.g., news from a Hispanic country) instead of form (e.g., correct grammar). Each meeting was video recorded, and the instructor was not present at the time of discussions. It is important to note that students also interacted via Skype or FaceTime for the same purpose.



Short paper

With globalization, learning cultural knowledge is vital to successful interactions with people from the target language. Acquiring this knowledge from classroom textbooks, professors, or personal experiences may provide information on one side of the spectrum; however, global media (e.g., online newspapers) may provide further opportunities (e.g., rich input) to acquire new cultural knowledge. The goal of this study was to explore how synchronous (e.g., real time) and asynchronous (e.g., prerecorded) tasks enhance students' new cultural knowledge, defined in this study as the new content students acquire via global media.

The Importance of Input, Output, and Learners' Interactions as Task Design Principles in Second-Language Acquisition

In second language learning (L2), clear evidence exists that the role of input, output and learners' interactions are key components in the language learning process.

In regard to input, Krashen (1981) asserted that exposure to the target language is crucial and that the amount and quality of comprehensible input ($i+1$) learners receive determines how fast they will learn a second language. With respect to output, Swain (1985) argued that comprehensible output also plays an important part in language acquisition; that is, the learner encounters a gap in his or her linguistic knowledge, becomes aware of it, and may modify his or her output so that new knowledge can be acquired. As for interaction, Long (1996) stated that the effectiveness of comprehensible input is increased when learners have to negotiate meaning. The latter occurs when a breakdown occurs in communication and interlocutors try to use communicative strategies (e.g., requests for clarification) to help the interaction process. In doing this, learners may receive more input from their interlocutors (e.g., feedback), which can lead to the learning of new language forms.

Most researchers and practitioners would probably agree that the aforementioned key components are crucial to facilitate language acquisition and that they should be taken into account when designing effective instructional environments or language learning tasks. In fact, Ellis (2005) mentioned the following three major components as part of his 10 principles to maximize language acquisition: (a) successful instructed language learning requires extensive L2 input, (b) opportunities for output, and (c) opportunity to interact in the L2. Design principles with similar characteristics have also been incorporated in some CALL studies (e.g., Jauregi, Canto, de Graaff, Koenraad, & Moonen, 2011; Lys, 2013) as well as in the current study.

Research Questions

This descriptive study was guided by the following research questions:

- To what extent do synchronous and asynchronous tasks enhance students' cultural knowledge?
- What satisfaction and experiences did students have with synchronous and asynchronous activities?

Method

Participants

Seventeen students enrolled in Intermediate Spanish 2 for 13 weeks participated in this study during two consecutive semesters: spring and fall 2014. Eleven students were female, and six were male. Participants' average age and year in school were 23.80 (SD = 5.55) and 3.13 (SD = .89), respectively. Fifteen students self-reported as Caucasian, one as African American, and one as Other.

Procedures

Except for the face-to-face small group meetings, all synchronous and asynchronous tasks were performed as supplementary to classroom instruction. All activities were considered part of classroom assignments. In the orientation session, students were told that the aim of these activities was to learn new cultural content (e.g., current issues in Hispanic Countries) and develop speaking skills. Detailed instructions for each task were posted in Blackboard, the course management system. These activities were implemented in three phases for 13 of the 16 weeks in the following way (see summary in Table 1.)

In the first phase of the task, students were exposed to multimodal authentic input material (e.g., online newspapers present the information in text and/or video). In addition, students had the flexibility to select their preferred topic (e.g., economy, crime, and gastronomy). In the second phase, the students summarized the information, reflected on the content, and recorded their findings using VoiceThread technology, an online multimedia slide show. They were allowed to have notes or a script. In that sense, Phase 2 was not truly communicative, but the main purpose was to help students prepare for the next communicative phase. In the third phase, learners met face-to-face in small groups in separate study rooms of the school library to share their findings. In these weekly meetings students talked not only about their cultural content findings but also about what was going on in their daily lives. Students were highly recommended to use the target language without the help of notes or a script. They were also encouraged to focus on content (e.g., news from a Hispanic country) instead of form (e.g., correct grammar). Each meeting was video recorded, but the instructor was not present at the time of discussions. That students also interacted outside class via Skype and FaceTime for the same purpose was important.

TASKS

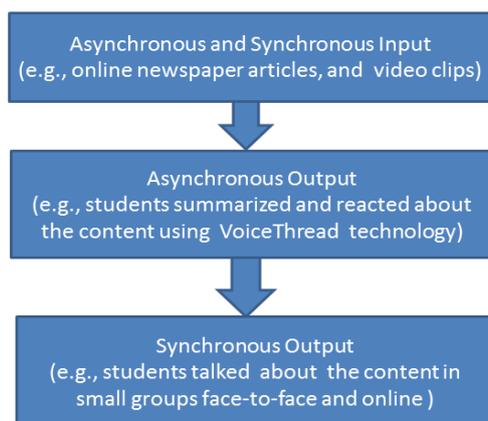


Figure 1. Asynchronous and Synchronous Input and Output Tasks.

Measurements

First, to examine cultural knowledge gains and satisfaction levels, a survey with a 7-point Likert scale was used, where “1” represented “completely untrue” and “7” represented “completely true.” Second, the recorded face-to-face group videos for speaking Activity 2 and Activity 12 were analyzed to identify the enhancement of students’ cultural knowledge. These videos were selected because students answered the same prompt about culture (what they knew before and after) and also because they were asked not use notes or scripts to produce knowledge and language. Third, students’ weekly journals and responses to open-ended written questions were analyzed to investigate their perception of improving cultural knowledge. Fourth, three interviews were fully transcribed and analyzed.

Results

Gains in Students’ Cultural Knowledge

Gains in cultural knowledge were examined from two angles: the type of input and the type of output. First, the researcher examined the students’ perceived cultural gains according to the type of input activity (see Table 1 below). The results indicate that students were more comfortable acquiring cultural knowledge by watching online news and reading online newspapers. Online radio seems to be the least preferred source of input. The latter may be so because the radio stations assigned neither provided visual cues (e.g., text) nor allowed students to replay content.

Table 1
Students’ Perceived Culture Gains According to the Type of Input

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Asynchronous Input		
1. Because I watched online news, I learned about current events and news of some Hispanic countries.	5.71	1.49
2. Because I watched a TV series or movies, I learned about current events and news of some Hispanic countries.	4.94	1.75
3. Because I read online newspapers, I learned about current events and news of some Hispanic countries.	5.88	1.45
Synchronous Input		
4. Because I listened to online Spanish radio, I learned about current events and news of some Hispanic countries.	4.18	1.98
Note: A 7-point Likert scale was used: 1 = “Completely untrue” and 7 = “Completely true.”		

Second, to examine new gains in cultural content the researcher qualitatively examined two video-recorded face-to-face group conversations (synchronous output) for speaking

activities 2 and 12. Both activities served as the pre- and posttest, respectively, where students were asked the same prompt: what they knew, or not, about Hispanics (e.g., people, places, etc.). The results of this observation are as follows.

In the pretest, the researcher observed students mostly discussed content related to tourist attractions, food, pre-Hispanic cultures, and major celebrations of Hispanic countries. In the posttest, the students mostly discussed current issues in politics, crime and violence, and immigration in Hispanic countries (see Table 2). The posttest content shows indications that students acquired new cultural content, which is typically not included in elementary and intermediate level textbooks or taught in the traditional classroom.

Table 2
Cultural Topics Discussed in Group Speaking Activity 2 (Pretest) and Activity 12 (Posttest)

Speaking Activity 2	
Themes	Examples
Tourist attractions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Galapagos Island Machu-Picchu Capital cities Cozumel Puerto Vallarta
Artists	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pablo Picasso
Pre-Hispanic cultures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mayas Aztecs
Food and drink and celebrations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Paella Tacos Tequila Coffee Bullfighting
Mission church trips	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Central America and Mexico (e.g., work in hospitals with poor people)
Speaking Activity 12	
Themes	Examples
Politics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Local and national elections in a particular country Corruption of politicians and the government Popularity and unpopularity of some presidents
Economy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Exports to the USA Oil Industry of Venezuela
Crime and Violence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drug trafficking Guerrillas Kidnapping Drug cartels Human trafficking Police corruption
Human rights	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> LGBT rights Protest of US-based Hispanics in front of the White House
Accidents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bus/car accidents Fires (e.g., Valparaiso, Chile)
Inmigration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Immigration from Central America and Mexico to the United States Problems at the US-Mexican border Legalization of illegal immigrants in the United States

Students' Satisfaction and Experience with Synchronous and Asynchronous Tasks

Students' satisfaction and experience were also examined from two angles via a survey and two short essays questions. First, students' overall satisfaction levels were very positive (see Table 3). Among all activities, students seemed to be more satisfied with

the synchronous output activities perhaps because the weekly meetings allowed students an opportunity to develop some rapport with their peers and become more likely to use their knowledge and language in a comfortable environment.

Table 3
Overall Satisfaction Levels

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Asynchronous and Synchronous Input Activities		
1. I am satisfied that the professor introduced these input activities (e.g., online radio and newspapers) to our class.	5.76	1.75
2. Overall, I am satisfied with the input activities.	5.82	1.91
Asynchronous output Activities		
3. I am very satisfied that the professor introduced VoiceThread speaking activities to our class.	5.65	1.41
4. Overall, I am satisfied with the speaking activities I did with VoiceThread.	5.71	1.26
Synchronous Output Activities		
5. I am very satisfied that the professor introduced group-speaking activities to our class.	6.24	1.52
6. Overall, I am satisfied with group speaking activities.	6.35	1.22
Note: A 7-point Likert scale was used: 1= "Completely untrue" and 7 = "Completely" true.		

Second, two short essay questions were administered (with regard to what students liked best and least about the synchronous activities). Students' positive and negative responses are summarized in Table 4. Overall, students indicated that these activities provided an opportunity to learn new content and to speak in Spanish. They also indicated difficulties with the some input activities (e.g., listening to the radio) as well as some limitations with the output (e.g., lack of vocabulary) and the time constraints that affected their ability to complete the activities.

Table 4
Students' Experiences With Asynchronous and Synchronous Activities

<i>Examples</i>	
Positive	
Asynchronous and Synchronous Input	
1. Acquiring knowledge about culture	"I was able to learn something new and something different about Spanish speaking countries that I had not known prior to this course."
2. Ability to be active in in current events	"I liked being able to learn about current Hispanic news and culture"
Asynchronous Output	
3. The opportunity to speak in Spanish	"It gave me a reason to speak in Spanish, and summarizing helped me understand what I was reading."
4. Content provided	"I liked the content we discussed. The news was interesting, and we could express our opinions."
Synchronous Output	
5. Ability to receive assistance/ help from peers	"I enjoyed being able to discuss our weekends and other current events in our lives in Spanish. It was also nice to get help from other classmates when describing something in Spanish."
6. Opportunity to speak the language	"Talking in Spanish, communicating with the Spanish I knew and could create on spot for building confidence in the language"
Negative	
Asynchronous and Synchronous Input	
1. Comprehension	"Sometimes it became frustrating to understand what was being read or heard, and the assignment would take much longer than expected."
2. Time commitment issues	"I kind of like experiencing new things in Spanish, but did not have the time to commit to it."

Asynchronous Output	
3. Feedback on progress	"Give feedback more. I heard others say things wrong this semester, but there was no correcting them. I don't know what mistakes I've made but thought were correct."
4. Vocabulary knowledge	"There were words I didn't know when trying to express my summaries."
Synchronous Output	
5. Materials allowed during activity	"Thinking of words on the spot. Couldn't take any notes with us."
6. Structure of activity	"We would get stuck in awkward pauses sometimes, and it would be difficult to continue conversation."
Note: The order of positive and negative perspectives reflects neither the importance of the comments nor the frequency of the comments.	

Discussion

In this section, the results are discussed in terms of the research questions.

Gains in Students' Cultural Knowledge

Results of this study indicate that students felt comfortable acquiring cultural knowledge from online video news and newspapers. In addition, the qualitative content analyzed in the pre- and posttests videos indicate that students acquired new cultural content related to current issues in Hispanic communities, including the US. The new content also seems to offer students opportunities to observe certain similarities with their own culture. For example, some students commented "...una cosa importante que he aprendido es cómo los Estados Unidos no es tan diferente en noticias [*...an important thing I learned is how the United States is not that different in news*]" and "Another thing I learned is that Hispanic countries have a lot of the same problems we have, such as natural disasters and economy issues." The new content also exposes learners to content they would not read or listen to in their own language and awaken some self-interest. Examples of students' comments included the following: "...There probably wouldn't have been any chance for me to learn about the protests going on in Mexico if it weren't for the speaking activities. Since first hearing about this issue, I have been following it and learning more about their culture and politics." These activities also offered further opportunities to learn from their peers. Students' comments included the following: "...Hearing the others' news stories informed me of things happening in the Hispanic world" and "I liked hearing that some people read about the same as me and we understood different things, so I have a better understanding now."

Students' Satisfaction and Experience with Synchronous and Asynchronous Tasks

Overall, students seemed very satisfied with the asynchronous and synchronous activities. In regard to the input activities, it seems that students liked the variety of multimodal media. Examples of students' comments include the following: "I liked that we could read/watch/listen the [and] summarize [sic] about what we learned, being exposed to other media was helpful" and "I think the wealth of input was best—there were so many media to interact with." With respect to the asynchronous output activities (VoiceThread), students liked its anytime-anywhere nature and their ability to listen to themselves and rehearse what they were going to say. Examples of comments included the following: "Being able to record whenever I felt like doing it"; "I could listen back and see what needed improvement"; "I like being able to practice what I wanted to say before recording it." Among all activities, students seem to be more satisfied with the face-to-face group speaking tasks. It seems that the recursive interactive opportunities allowed them to develop a sense of community gradually and feel at ease when discussing personal and cultural content as stated in the following excerpt from a student's interview.

I mean, all of us, when we first went into the group discussions, were very shy. Like, we didn't want to talk at all, and then by the end, we just—it was like you

were with your regular group of friends outside of class. So we just sat down and started talking about the weekend, what are we doing the rest of the day, and then we started talking about whatever assignments we did.

Conclusion

The researcher is aware that these results partially indicate cultural knowledge gains; however, the current study positively contributes to the existing body of task-based research; that is, the tasks designed for this study offered students flexible multimodal opportunities that may help them enhance their cultural knowledge and language. Creating this type of opportunity for language learners is crucial because it exposes students to a realistic and pragmatic language experience that may complement or expand regular classroom instruction.

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Luis Cerezo*, Ronald P. Leow & Nina Moreno*****

American University, Washington DC, United States*

Georgetown University, Washington DC, United States**

University of South Carolina, Columbia SC, United States***

cerezoce@american.edu - leowr@georgetown.edu - morenon@mailbox.sc.edu

Are tasks at all possible in fully online language learning? Introducing talking to avatars and the maze game**Bio data**

Luis Cerezo is Assistant Professor of Spanish Linguistics and Director of the Spanish Language Program at American University in Washington, D.C, USA. His research, published in journals such as *Language Learning & Technology* and *Computer-Assisted Language Learning*, investigates the effects of practice and corrective feedback in CALL. He developed *Talking to Avatars*, a language learning simulation with pre-filmed actors.

Nina Moreno is Associate Professor of Spanish at the University of South Carolina, Columbia, USA. Her areas of expertise include second language acquisition, applied linguistics, CALL, and teacher education. She has published articles and software reviews in peer-reviewed journals such as *Language Learning*, *Foreign Language Annals*, and *CALICO*.

Ronald P. Leow is Professor of Applied Linguistics and Director of Spanish Language Instruction at Georgetown University in Washington, D.C, USA. His areas of expertise include second language acquisition, psycholinguistics, research methodology, and CALL. He has published in prestigious journals such as *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *Language Learning*, *Applied Psycholinguistics*, and *The Modern Language Journal*.

Current research

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) resources have progressively embraced the methodological principles of task-based language teaching (TBLT), evolving from behavioristic “drill and kill” e-tutors to sophisticated videogames and simulations that use authentic tasks. There is, however, limited evidence showing that these more TBLT-inspired resources can promote second language development, particularly in fully online learning environments. To discuss this, we present a five-section paper. First, we propose a classification of CALL technologies. Second, we revisit Doughty and Long (2003), discussing the potential contributions of CALL to TBLT and identifying the technologies that are best suited for Long’s (2014) ten TBLT methodological principles. Third, we define the notion of task and present a list of ten task-criterial features based on Ellis (2003, 2009) and Lai and Li (2011). Fourth, we present a catalog of CALL activities, discussing whether or not they comply with TBLT methodological principles and task-criterial features. We organize this catalog in two sections, less controlled activities, which impose relatively few constraints on learners (e.g., *En Busca de Esmeraldas*, *Mentira*), and more controlled activities, which require learners to recognize/produce the targeted forms under highly regulated circumstances (e.g., *Talking to Avatars*, *The Maze Game*). Fifth and finally, drawing on our previous discussion, we underscore the importance of effectively combining task-essentialness, corrective feedback, and individualized instruction to promote the use of developmentally helpful cognitive processes, advocating for a balance between less and more controlled CALL activities to facilitate time-effective instruction.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The current version of TBLT (Long, 2014) includes ten methodological principles (MPs) referring to the nature of the pedagogical *activities* in the language classroom (MP1: "Use tasks, not texts, as the unit of analysis"; MP2: "Promote learning by doing"), the *input* (MP3: "Elaborate input"; MP4: "Provide rich input"), the *learning processes* (MP5: "Encourage inductive/'chunk' learning"; MP6: "Focus on form"; MP7: "Provide negative feedback"; MP8: "Respect developmental processes and 'learner syllabuses'"; MP9: "Promote cooperative/collaborative learning") and the *learners* (MP10: "Individualize instruction").

Deeply rooted in TBLT—from its very first MP—is the notion of *task*. While tasks are differently understood by different authors, Ellis (2003, 2009) defined them using seven "task-criterial features", according to which a task (1) is a workplan; (2) is intended for semantic and pragmatic use of language to convey meaning; (3) does not impose the linguistic forms to be used; (4) involves situational or interactional authenticity; (5) includes a "gap" that triggers extra-linguistic cognitive processes; (6) stipulates a non-linguistic outcome; and (7) promotes any of the four language skills, or a combination. In addition to these features, Lai and Li (2011) posited that tasks in online environments (8) promote digital literacy; (9) promote Internet-based communicative competence; and (10) promote intercultural understanding.

Clearly, these criterial features must not be interpreted as a "conditio sine qua non" checklist to divide pedagogical activities dichotomously into tasks or exercises, but rather, to assess whether an activity is more "task-like" or "exercise-like." Two recent examples of "task-like" CALL resources are *En busca de esmeraldas* (González-Lloret, 2003) and *Mentira* (Holden & Sykes, 2012). In the former, learners work individually or in pairs to complete a virtual adventure, including navigating a map of the University of Hawai'i. In the latter, learners follow the instructions on an iPod touch to solve a murder mystery in a real neighborhood in Albuquerque, interacting with real people on the streets and virtual characters.

While these resources clearly check off most of the criterial features of tasks and are purportedly inspired by the MPs of TBLT, their effectiveness for second language development (more complex, accurate, or fluent language) remains to be documented. In fact, the only cases in which TBLT-inspired CALL activities have been proven to promote significant second language development involve the use of technology as a medium to interact with a more competent interlocutor or tutor who is able to provide pedagogical interventions such as corrective feedback or focus on form (Baralt, 2013; González-Lloret & Nielson, 2014).

Does this mean, however, that stand-alone task-like CALL resources cannot promote second language development, or that they can do that at the expense of sacrificing the methodological principles of TBLT? The present paper seeks to answer this question, using two recent CALL resources for illustration purposes: *Talking to Avatars* (Cerezo, 2010) and *The Maze Game* (Leow, 2015).

Short paper

Abstract

Starting in the 1980s, psycholinguistically-motivated methodological principles of task-based language teaching (TBLT) transformed the foreign language classroom, as researchers and practitioners in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) turned tasks into the guiding unit for research and lesson planning. With the development of the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL), we have seen that computer-delivered tasks have also gradually evolved from behavioristic "drill and kill" e-tutors to

more carefully designed psycholinguistics-based e-tutors and sophisticated videogames and simulations that use authentic tasks. While there are clear criteria that help distinguish whether a pedagogical activity is more “task-like” or more “exercise-like,” (cf. Ellis, 2003 & 2009), the question that stands is: can stand-alone, task-like CALL resources promote second language (L2) development without sacrificing the methodological principles stipulated by TBLT? The description of two separate CALL resources: *Talking to Avatars* (Cerezo, 2010) and *The Maze Game* (Leow, 2015), will help us answer this question.

Introduction

The term *task*, the core unit of what constitutes task-based language teaching (TBLT), made its debut into the field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) after the technologies used in a CALL environment gradually evolved from the “drill and kill” approach of the first e-tutors in the 1960s to more carefully designed psycholinguistics-based e-tutors and TBLT-motivated videogames and simulations (cf. González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014).

We will start by defining what a task is, specifically what a task in a CALL environment looks like, and how it differentiates from an exercise or an activity, following a list of 10 task-criterial features based on Ellis (2003, 2009) and Lai and Li (2011). We will then briefly present a catalog of CALL activities, and determine whether or not they comply with TBLT’s methodological principles and task-criterial features. We will focus our attention on two of such CALL activities, *Talking to Avatars* (Cerezo, 2010) and *The Maze Game* (Leow, 2015) and examine how these stand-alone tasks help develop L2 proficiency.

Tasks

Ellis (2003, 2009) distinguished a series of “task-criterial features” that are applicable to courses which are delivered in a traditional format, that is to say, face-to-face (F2F): (1) A task is a workplan, a series of steps that students follow to reach an outcome through meaning-focused communication. (2) The scope of a task is to engage learners to *use* language semantically and pragmatically to convey meaning. (3) Learners must be free to choose any linguistic forms to convey information. (4) A task involves situational authenticity (i.e., activities that people usually carry out in the real world) or interactional authenticity (i.e., it triggers language behavior comparable to real world tasks). (5) A task must include a “gap” that pushes learners to activate extra-linguistic cognitive processes, ranging from the mere use of perceptual skills (e.g., to notice, detect, or identify the differences between two pictures) to deeper cognitive skills (e.g, selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing, evaluating, and transforming information from one form of representation to another). (6) A task stipulates a non-linguistic outcome. And (7), a task promotes any of the four language skills, or a combination.

For courses in which the content is transmitted online, the need to adapt these features to a new environment was noticed by Lai and Li (2001), who address how the use of technology (a) contributes to the development of digital literacies, one of the fundamental aspects of language learning in the 21st century (e.g., Hampel, 2006; Murray, 2005); (b) redefines the notion of communicative competence as a complex matrix of linguistic-functional, sociocultural, institutional, and environmental competence (Lamy, 2004); and (c) promotes intercultural understanding, enabling learners to enact cultural identities (Lam, 2000; Lamy, 2007). Therefore, keeping in mind Lai and Li’s reconceptualization of task in a CALL environment, we could add the following to the Ellis’ (2003, 2009) list of task-criterial features: (8) An online task promotes digital literacy, (9) an online task promotes Internet-based communicative competence, and (10) and online task promotes intercultural understanding.

Of course, it may be that an exercise contains a few of these “task-criterial” since they are not all exclusive to tasks. Therefore, rather than using the list of features as a rigid

tool to identify what constitutes a task and what does not, we propose that we evaluate an activity by how “task-like” or “exercise-like” it is. The next section will illustrate this point with a few examples of recent CALL activities.

Recent CALL activities

The next two sub-sections will focus on different CALL activities, which have been organized in two groups: less controlled and more controlled. The activities in the former group abide more closely to the methodological principles of TBLT, while the activities in the latter require learners to recognize/produce the targeted forms in a more regulated and monitored manner.

Less controlled CALL activities

One of the first documented CALL resources developed off the principles of TBLT was Gonzalez-Lloret’s (2003) *En busca de esmeraldas*. In this three-dimensional simulation, learners working individually and/or in pairs must respond to a job offer from a Spanish native speaker and navigate the University of Hawai’i campus as they seek a mysterious document. Throughout their journey, they are exposed to multi-modal input (aural or written), and working with a peer is encouraged in an info-gap manner. Writing is a skill that is practiced via e-mails that they must compose and send to the Spanish speaker as they report on their progress.

Mentira (Holden & Sykes, 2012), is another TBLT-based reality game; it is a mobile, place-based game designed to develop Spanish general language skills. In *Mentira* learners must prove their innocence in a local murder case. Student leave their physical classroom and, equipped with an iPod Touch, venture out into their community and experience Spanish in a real-life environment (Los Griegos neighborhood in Albuquerque, NM), interacting in the target language both with real people on the streets and non-player characters in the game.

In both *En busca de esmeraldas* and *Mentira* there are opportunities for peer-to-peer interaction and heightened sociolinguistic awareness. Other methodological principles of TBLT are integrated, such as: the development and sequencing of tasks based on a small-scale analysis of instructors’ and students’ needs; the delivery of rich and elaborate input in written and audio texts deemed natural by Spanish native speakers; the input’s saliency was achieved by enhancing the text with a different color font; and the promotion of individualized instruction by granting learners the autonomy to choose the input modality (written or aural) and the work dynamic (in solitary or with a classmate) of their preference. Yet, neither resource has been able to show a clear connection with L2 development or evidence of general gains in proficiency. In fact, TBLT-inspired CALL activities have shown improvement in L2 development only when the computer is utilized as a medium or when a human instructor oversees the completion of the task, such as the work by Baralt (2013) and González-Lloret and Nielson (2014). If these activities, soundly based on TBLT principles do not yield us the desired outcomes, what are we to do in a CALL environment?

More controlled CALL activities

The use of E-tutors with controlled activities (cf. Cerezo, 2012 for a complete review) have been linked to the development of a variety of L2 grammatical structures in Japanese, Latin and Spanish. The main difference between these CALL activities and their less controlled counterparts is that in the more controlled activities learners work with a problem-solving task in which they have to select or produce (partially) controlled responses to complete a battery of “meaningful drills” (cf. Paulston, 1970).

Building on previous work by Bowles (2008) and Hsieh (2008), Leow (2015) created *The Maze Game* – a new videogame in the form of a maze that provides immediate, corrective feedback, specially designed to induce greater depth of processing of the target linguistic structure (Spanish multi-layered *gustar* verb). In *The Maze Game*,

similarly to Hsieh's (2008) task, learners must compose Spanish translations of English sentences ("I like the house") by choosing constituents from a number of choices ("Yo" or "A mí"). With each selection, learners receive feedback messages (including prompts) that do not include the grammatical rule, but that push learners to formulate hypotheses (e.g., "¡Muy bien!", "Oops, seems like *yo* doesn't work with *gustar*", "Do you know why this option is correct?"). Once learners complete correctly all the sentences on one level, they receive a list of potential rules, both accurate and inaccurate. They select the rules they deem correct, and then they move on to the next level. As with a regular video game, learners win or lose points based on the accuracy of their selections, which means that a bad streak could take them back to a previous level.

Clearly, the pedagogical activities in the e-tutors above do not contain many of the task-criterial TBLT features discussed earlier in that, for instance, they may not always have a workplan and do not normally encompass extralinguistic goals, but they *do* have a carefully designed structure that promotes developmentally helpful cognitive processes such as attention to form, activation of prior knowledge, higher (levels of) awareness, greater depth of processing, and opportunities for the proceduralization of declarative knowledge. This is possible because: (1) they follow task-essential practice, understood as learners' need to pay attention to the targeted grammatical form in order to successfully complete the task (Loschky & Bley-Vroman, 1993); (2) they provide corrective feedback of different types, allowing learners to form and confirm hypotheses; and (3) they provide learners with opportunities for individualized instruction, making them responsible for their own learning at their own pace.

In the simulation game, *Talking to Avatars* (Cerezo, 2010), learners are exposed to meaningful drills in the context of real-life situations, along the lines of Ellis' (2009, p. 223-224) "situational grammar exercises." Learners are immersed in two real-life situations during a year abroad in Spain. One situation involves finding an apartment and a roommate, and elicits the Spanish present subjunctive in relative clauses. The other situation involves reporting a theft, and elicits Spanish prepositional relative clauses. Each situation contains 15 communicative episodes in which the learners interact with an avatar, a native-speaking human actor pre-recorded in a video (over 200 different avatar reaction possibilities were pre-recorded in order to cater to learners' different responses). Each mini-episode consists of four steps: 1) "Question": the avatar asks a question orally. Learners may replay the video and obtain a transcript or a translation. 2) "Activity": the screen displays a sentence with blanks and learners are instructed to fill them in by providing a written translation of the targeted forms and selecting content information. 3) "Answer": the learner produces an answer. 4) "Feedback": the avatar provides oral corrective feedback.

Talking to Avatars then contains characteristics of both tasks and exercises. It is an exercise because the rubric requires the use of a specific language form. However, it involves a focused balance on form and meaning, it bears situational and interactional authenticity, it triggers extra-linguistic cognitive processes, and it has a clear non-linguistic outcome. Additionally, it provides rich input (in written and aural form), encourages "chunk" learning through repetition, and provides corrective feedback via task-essential practice.

Conclusion

CALL is full of potential when it abides by TBLT principles because the utilization of new technologies maximize learners' use language to interact, raise their sociolinguistic awareness, and even increase their motivation in fun and exciting ways. At the same time, other more controlled CALL resources have effectively combined task-essentialness, corrective feedback, and individualized instruction to activate cognitive processes such as attention to form, activation of prior knowledge, increased (levels of) awareness, increased (levels of) depth of processing, and opportunities for the proceduralization of declarative knowledge, propelling truly outstanding rates of (receptive and/or productive)

development of a variety of L2 grammatical structures. Cerezo (2010) found that after only 40 minutes of practice with *Talking to Avatars*, learners achieved learning gains of up to 65% in written production of Spanish prepositional relative clauses and 40% in written production of Spanish present subjunctive.

In conclusion, it seems like a sound combination of both more and less controlled activities would be ideal; more controlled activities allow learners to maximize the time spent exposed to or interacting with the L2 in preparation for a task or to reinforce learned knowledge after a task, while less controlled activities in simulations and reality videogames allow learners to achieve a real-life like task in the L2. Which we choose should be hinged on the type of outcomes we seek; more importantly, the CALL activities we choose should be psycholinguistically-motivated and follow the methodological principles that have proven to lead to successful L2 learning.

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Ching-Fen Chang

National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu, Taiwan

cfchang311@gmail.com – cfchang@mail.nctu.edu.tw

Case study of EFL students' learning to write through an online corpus-based corrective feedback system

Bio data

Ching-Fen Chang, PhD. is associate professor of Institute of TESOL in National Chiao Tung University, Taiwan. Her research interests include computer-assisted language learning, social networking and L2 writing, and activity theory and L2 teaching and learning.

Current research

Corrective feedback (CF) may be one of the most widely researched and hotly debated topics in second language (L2) writing. Although a number of studies have been devoted to the investigation of issues related to CF in the past decades, few studies have attempted to explore how CF may serve as self-learning tools in writing tasks. In the past decades, with the advent of computer technology, compiling diversification of corpora for various purposes has become possible and feasible. This study first introduces the construction of an online searching system in which a learner corpus from is compiled from 573 corrective feedback made by writing teachers. Then, the study presents a case study examining four EFL students' perception of corrective feedback, their use of the system on the process of their writing, and their self-revision. The results of the case study is expected to provide an in-depth understanding of how CF may play an role in the learning process of writing through a corpus-based approach.

Task-based language learning and teaching

My research highlights the role that corrective feedback plays in EFL students' writing process and their self-corrected tasks. Previous studies have intensively discussed corrective feedback in L2 writing from a wide range of aspects. Although its effectiveness and usefulness are mixed and controversial, corrective feedback is still commonly used in L2 writing classrooms as an important instructional means to enhance the accuracy of writing product. However, it has seldom designed as a learning tool in writing classrooms. The presentation first introduces a corpus-based corrective feedback system. Then, the presentation describes how the system is incorporated in writing tasks to facilitate the process of writing and self-revision.

Short paper

Corrective feedback (CF) may be one of the most widely researched and hotly debated topics in second language (L2) writing (e.g. Ferris, 1999, 2004; Lee, 2003; Riazantseva, 2012). Although a number of studies have been devoted to the investigation of issues related to CF in the past decades, research findings about its effectiveness and usefulness are mixed and controversial (Bitchener, 2005; Ferris, 2004; Lee, 2003, 2005, 2011). In the past decades, with the advent of computer technology, compiling diversification of corpora for various purposes has become possible and feasible. Learner

corpora, a type of corpora, provide second language acquisition and foreign language teaching specialists a new resource. Although numerous studies have attempted to use learner corpora in L2 teaching and learning, very few studies have attempted to examine how learner corpora with corrective feedback may play a role in students' writing process.

This paper reports part of a two-year ongoing project, in which a corrective feedback corpus was constructed and is served as a learning tool for students to learn how to write and self correct their writing problems. The system, an online corpus-based error treatment system (OCWETS), collected 573 commented writing works written by undergraduate and graduate students in various levels of writing courses in a public university in Taiwan. The writing work, including various writing genres (e.g. sentence writing, paragraph writing, essay writing, thesis writing), had been commented by their writing teachers in a university of Taiwan. Each comment was tagged as one of 54 categories under four major writing areas—content, organization, language use, and mechanics. While searching a specific writing problem, the learner may obtain a list of writing pieces associated with the writing problem. While selecting any from the list, the learner may check the original student writing piece with the writing problem and the teacher comment on it.

To understand how CF may play a role in students' learning how to write and how to revise their writing problems, the second half of the paper reports a case study examining four students' learning through OCWETS. The four EFL college students are required to use OCWETS when writing their homework in their writing courses for a semester. The data are collected from three interviews and the system logs. The first interview is conducted before they are introduced to use the system, aiming to elicit the students' demographic information, writing experience, and their perception of CF. The second interview, including retrospective recalls, aims to retrieve how they use OCWETS and how to use what they learn from the writing examples in their writing or revision. The last interview, conducted at the end of the semester, explores the students' learning experience through OCWETS and their perception of learning writing through CF. The interview data will be analyzed based on the themes emerged. The system logs will display the search history that each student used to triangulate with the interview data and their writing work. The results of the case study is expected to contribute to the literature of CF by providing an active learning tool to maximize the role of CF in the learning process of writing through a corpus-based approach.

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Howard Hao-Jan Chen

National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan

hjchenntnu@gmail.com

Investigating in-service teachers' perceptions on using a serious game for second language learning

Bio data

Howard Hao-Jan Chen (Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania) is Professor of Applied Linguistics at National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan. He also serves as the Director of Mandarin Training Center. His research interests include second language acquisition, computer-assisted language learning, and corpus linguistics. He also serves as an editorial board member of Computer Assisted Language Learning Journal.

Current research

Professor Howard Chen is currently working on a national self-access English learning website designed for all the elementary and junior high school students in Taiwan. This big e-learning project is fully sponsored by Ministry of Education. This website include various e-learning materials and even 3D video games. It will help Taiwanese students improve various language skills and vocabulary knowledge. The project website is located at <http://coolenglish.eng.ntnu.edu.tw>. In additional, Prof. Chen is also developing various Chinese corpora and tools for students learning Chinese as a second language learners. He is also working with several graduate students to analyze the interlanguage produced by various learners of English at different proficiency levels.

Short paper

Digital games have become increasingly popular among young students around the world. There are various types of digital games, including MMORPG games, simulation games, serious games, adventure games, augmented reality games, mobile games, and many other games. Many researchers have begun to explore the potential of digital games for education. For language educators, some studies have found that various digital games can significantly improve second language learning (Peterson, 2013; Reinders, 2012; Sykes & Reinhardt, 2013). Given the idea of using digital games in language education is still quite new, not many schools are willing to try these new resources. School teachers play a key role in spreading the concept of using digital games for second language learning. It is clear that advocates of Game-Assisted Language Learning (GALL) will need to have a better understanding about teachers' views on using digital games in schools. Few empirical studies, however, have been conducted to uncover language teachers' perceptions toward games. It is essential to better understand teacher's perceptions toward digital games.

In this study, we investigated 20 Taiwanese high school teachers' perceptions toward using digital games. These in-service teachers were taking a summer computer assisted language course as a partial requirement for the TESOL master degree. To allow these teachers to have hands-on experiences with digital games, a commercial 3D serious game called "Playing History, Episode 2- Slaves Trade" was purchased and the user accounts were created for each participated teachers. This game was developed by SGI, a Danish game company. The game was a RPG game, users need to play the role of a

slave Tim, the main character of this game. Tim needs to save as many slaves as possible in this game. Tim thus needs to talk to different characters and seek for various clues and solutions to problems. These language teachers took several hours to complete this game after they were given the accounts. After completing playing the serious game, teachers were then asked to write a formal evaluation report discussing the strengths and weaknesses of using this type of games for English learning.

After analyzing the 20 reports submitted by teachers, this study found that teachers enjoyed playing this game and they indicated that this type of digital game can enhance students' various English skills such as listening, speaking, reading, and vocabulary knowledge. In addition, teachers also believe that game players can also gain various useful content knowledge about slave trade and also learn how to solve problems and make decisions in various contexts. Moreover, many suggested that the game should be able to motivate young learners. Overall, the teachers found that digital games have great potentials for second language learning and they look forward to obtaining good games designed for their students.

Although teachers found this game very engaging and beneficial for language learning. However, they also identified several problems about this game. They found game-playing is time-consuming, and they suggested that the game content can be further divided into smaller chunks so each gaming session can be completed during the class time. Some also found that some vocabulary items are difficult and it is necessary to provide either glosses or a mini-dictionary in this game. Some complained that the dialogues cannot be replayed easily, and they hope that this option can be changed. Some found that the instructions for the mini-games were not clear. Few indicated that they never played any video game and they needed some help because they spent much time playing this game.

It is clear that these suggestions *made by teachers* should be *very* useful for serious games developers and designers. These preliminary findings suggest teachers are willing to use digital games and even recommend good games to students. *GALL* researchers can collaborate with game developers to create *more* pedagogically sound *digital* games. *Once good games can be made available, researchers can further* collaborate with school teachers to allow more students to *experience GALL*.

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Howard Hao-Jan Chen

National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan

hjchenntnu@gmail.com

Uncovering the collocation errors of Asian learners with the help of automatic corpora comparison

Bio data

Howard Hao-Jan Chen (Ph.D., University of Pennsylvania) is Professor of Applied Linguistics at National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan. He also serves as the Director of Mandarin Training Center. His research interests include second language acquisition, computer-assisted language learning, and corpus linguistics. He also serves as an editorial board member of Computer Assisted Language Learning Journal.

Current research

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Short paper

There have been many studies showing the significance of collocation in developing learners' mental lexicon and suggesting collocation's strong influence on learners' success of language acquisition (Lewis, 2000). Various studies, however, have consistently revealed that EFL learners had insufficient knowledge of English collocations (Gitsaki, 1999; Nesselhauf, 2005). Among various types of collocations, V-N collocations are also found to be particularly difficult for language learners to acquire and frequently misused by learners. To provide more effective collocations learning tasks, some studies have tried to uncover miscollocations in various learner corpora. Most past studies were mainly based on manual analysis (Zhang & Yang, 2009; Nesselhauf, 2005; Shih, 2000). For a smaller learner corpus, manual marking and tagging of collocation patterns is possible. This manual analysis will not be able to handle larger learner data. Facing these challenging tasks of analyzing collocations in large learner corpora, corpus researchers need a more robust tool. To overcome these difficulties, an innovative automatic data comparison method is proposed in the current study. This automatic retrieval approach is achieved through the use of The Sketch Engine (<http://www.sketchengine.co.uk>), an innovated corpus query system developed by Adam Kilgarriff and his associates (Kilgarriff et al. 2014). The Sketch Engine (SKE) also provides the Sketch-Diff function, a unique function that is often utilized to compare a keyword's collocates in two different corpora, e.g., one native corpus with another learner corpus.

In this study, the 1.3-million-word International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE) was used. The ICNALE-Written holds 1.3 million words of controlled

essays written by 2,600 college students in 10 Asian countries and areas. The ICNALE corpus was compiled by Professor Shin'ichiro Ishikawa of Kobe University, Japan. The learner corpus was uploaded onto the SKE for automated comparison with BNC corpus (about 100 million words). To identify the common collocation errors, a list of the most frequently used 100 core nouns from the ICNALE corpus was first compiled. These high-frequency nouns, together with their common verb collocates used in both the ICNALE learner corpus and BNC, were examined with the help of Sketch-Diff function.

Through this computer-aided corpus comparison method, about 100 types of V-N collocation errors were identified within several days. Take the noun "health" as an example, many NNS writers used "hurt". However, NS only used "harm" and "damage". For the noun "smoker", many learners used "damage" and "injure", but NS only use "hurt" and "harm". It is interesting to note that NNS writers with different L1 backgrounds have great difficulties with this synonymous set of verbs (damage-harm-hurt-injure). Many other V-N errors were also found in this study. With the help of the Sketch Engine, many miscollocations were uncovered. These corpus-based research findings can be very useful for designing ESL collocation learning tasks and materials.

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Yueh-Tzu Chiang

Cardinal Tien Junior College of Healthcare and Management, New Taipei City, Taiwan

lapiz6@hotmail.com

Attitudes and learner autonomy of EFL Students toward filmmaking task in a semi-flipped classroom context

Bio data

-Assistant Prof., Holistic Education, Cardinal Tien Junior College of Healthcare and Management, Taiwan

-Ph.D, TESOL, Department of English, Tamkang University, Tamsui, Taiwan

-Master of Arts, TESOL, University of San Francisco, San Francisco, USA

Current research

This study investigates the use of pre-fabricated web clips as one source of semi-flipped classroom as well as task-based filmmaking activity for language learning in second language classrooms in Taiwan. Learners' attitudes toward receiving instructions online by viewing clips outside the classroom and then sharing ideas or doing drills with groups in the class are under examination. Learner autonomy, learners' self-perception on learning any kind of linguistic forms and their willingness of implementing filmmaking task, is as well under observation. One intact class with fifty students was guided to view the clips online which corresponded to the theme of each lesson. The same group of the students was required to complete filmmaking task, three to four scenes to choose from any film they enjoyed and they had to perform the exact same way. The other intact class with fifty students was instructed with a more conventional way, teacher-centered method. Data collected show that students' attitudes toward viewing clips are positive and they regard online learning combined with filmmaking task as an effective way of learning English. They also claim to be more willing to learn English independently and consider themselves absorbing at least some vocabularies. Further studies are suggested to explore the kinds of forms (i.e. syntax or lexicons) they truly learned with the comparison of what they think they have gained.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In this study, we designed a filmmaking task for EFL students to complete. In order to make the task enjoyable and meaningful, we guided students with two steps. One is to allow students to be acquainted with video watching and clips on Youtube. We encouraged students to view clips outside the classroom and therefore the clips should be authentic, enjoyable and close to their daily life. By encouraging students to watch video clips, we tacitly combined the idea of flipped classroom; that is some clips were for supplementary purposes and some were embedded vocabularies which might be quizzed surprisingly later in class. In answering question: "How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?", as far as I am concern, filmmaking is one of the tasks that can meet these expectations. Students were able to choose the film they enjoy, they had to listen and watch the film before they performed and they were required to remember the lines. Instead of letting students create their own films (i.e. they have to write the story and scripts), the purpose of this task is to help them raise their awareness of noticing the pronunciation, vocabulary and sentences and acquired them incidentally. Although we did not examine whether they acquired these linguistic

forms incidentally at this moment, their self-confidence increased and their willingness to become an independent English learner have improved.

Once students were acquainted with these clips, the next step was to assist them to select the film they were fond of and helped them listen and write down the scripts, the scenes they chose. They could also refer to the subtitles shown on the film and wrote them down. They need to internalize to their own lines with the help of body language, intonation stress and so forth in order to perform.

In regard to the linguistic competence, filmmaking could be considered as one type of focus-on-form tasks that linguistic form (i.e. vocabulary) could be acquired incidentally with the help of input enhancement. Students selected the input (i.e. scenes) and connect meanings to the input with multiple exposures. They watched the selected scenes over and over again, input then is enhanced and noticed with repeated exposures. Data collection demonstrated a high correlation between their perception of acquiring vocabularies and their willingness of learning English via online learning with films.

Short paper

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Introduction

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has become a pervasive trend for medium of instruction either serve as supplementary resources in remedial courses or in main courses. There have been positive effects being reported on learners' performance and attitude with the use of CALL (Bulut & AbuSeileek, 2006). Hashemi and Aziznezhad (2011) pointed out that the big benefit of CALL is that it facilitates autonomous learners. Within CALL context, the class becomes more student-centered rather than teacher-directed and hence invites more discussion and cooperation among peers (Brandl, 2001). CALL is considered as helping learners use language in authentic situations compared with traditional drill practices (Warschauer, 1997; Kelm, 1998).

Technological advances may have overcome real physical barriers to access handy information, the so-called technological movement (Bishop & Verleger, 2013) is eager to remove the dependence to multimedia, CD-ROMs. Studies show that lectures on videos outperform lectures in person (Cohen, Ebeling and Kulik, 1981) and assignments that are done online is as effective as paper-and-pencil ones (Bonham, Deardorff and Beichner, 2003). An intriguing educational approach has arisen, flipped (or inverted) classroom. Its definition which breaks the prototype of what a traditional classroom might be, "inverting the classroom means that events that have traditionally taken place inside the classroom now take place outside the classroom and vice versa" (Lage, Platt and Treglia, 2000, p.32). A more specific definition given by Bishop and Verleger (2013) is "interactive group learning activities inside the classroom, and direct computer-based individual instruction outside the classroom". In other words, flipped classroom can be lectures at home (with asynchronous instructional videos), homework (learning list and discussions) in class.

Since web-based lecture is done outside the classroom, what matters instructors are the interactive activities operated in class which connects the way to examine what have taught and what have been learned. Task-based language teaching (TBLT) fits the need appropriately and at the same time mediates the disadvantages of teacher-centered, form-focused second language classroom practices (Branden, Bygate and Norris, 2009). Language learning was once regarded as the output of an accumulation of discrete linguistic features, individual forms rather than the holistic learning. Researchers started to consider the functional purposes of English which second language learners encounter in the real world. With more and more access-free online websites and Youtube, they

give instructors more space and manageability to operate their classrooms with more authentic teaching materials. Language learning occurs best when the learner is self-motivated and the task entails multiple interactions and cooperation and facilitates the learner's cognitive processes. "Active learning", defined by Bonwell and Eison (1991) is "anything that involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing." When learners take the lead and serve as an active role in learning, they become more responsible for the task that they are heading to do and in return they gain more self-confidence. The act of responsibility enhances learner's awareness of learning and can lead them become autonomous learners.

Filmmaking task and input enhancement

The process of filmmaking task encourages learners to be exposed to different culture and to the usage of the target language (i.e. English). In this particular filmmaking task, we do not need learners to create a brand new story, instead we invite them to select the one they enjoy the most and imitate the lines, expressions and even body languages. By doing this, learners lower down their learning filter more and at the same time language acquisition can occur. Teodoskis (2001) describes the key points filmmaking process assists learners from their initial film-decision stage to the production stage:

- It improves oral, visual, writing and presentation skills
- It develops leadership, negotiating, communication skills and gives a sense of team spirit to the students. Students who hardly talk to each other start working together.
- It creates awareness of the community, friends and self.
- It bridges the gap between the curriculum and the world outside the classroom.
- It fosters research, organization, planning, analysis and synthesis skills.

Learners need to negotiate and discuss the film they select and they need to watch the film over and over again in order to remember the lines and imitates the tones and/or body languages. Input (movie scenes) is exposed by the learners with multiple times in order to be fluent in performance. Input is also connected to the meaning when learners watch the film with Mandarin Chinese subtitles provided. It is a kind of focus-on-form approach (Long, 1991) that rests on the premise that meaning and use should be executed in real-time processing. The key to FonF approach is that "it is the learner who focuses on the form; the teacher, material designer, or researcher can hope only to set up the conditions for such a focus" (Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995, p. 185). *Input enhancement*, proclaimed by Sharwood Smith (1993), states that enhanced input may increase the chances to foster learners to focus on the perceptual saliency part of the form and promote focal attention. Learners, in order to memorize the lines, need to be exposed to the scenes multiple times with Chinese subtitles serving as the perceptual salient part to appeal their attention. It is believed that some linguistic features, say vocabulary, formulaic sequences (i.e. dialog logs) and so forth may be acquired incidentally with multiple exposures.

Methodology

Participants

The participants are two intact classes with a total of one-hundred second language learners in a junior college in Taiwan, and their ages are around 18-19, all majoring in Nursing. Their English proficiency is claimed to be low-intermediate level on average. The majority of the students have passed TOEIC A2 level, some of them have achieved higher level.

Setting

One instructor is responsible for two classes, and there are two hours per week for a regular English class. One class is taught with a traditional direct instruction and teacher-oriented method, while the other is the experimental one. Students are required to watch the videos outside the classroom in order to do group discussion, cooperation and even quizzes in class. Some video clips are from Youtube which serve as supplementary

resources and are closely related to the theme of the lesson; while others are made by the instructor and are form-oriented, that is focus more on grammar rules and vocabularies. A semi-flipped classroom is called in this study is because the curriculum shows a mixture of prefabricated videos offered by the instructor as well as Youtube clips. It is also designed to integrate TBL by utilizing filmmaking assignment. Several scenes (not the whole film) of the films can be viewed from the videos provided by the instructor which students can access to and can choose from and others can be found in school's library or other available channels. Students do not need to perform the whole film, they choose three to four scenes they love and make it a show. The purpose of this task is an endeavor to encourage students to be exposed to the usage of authentic English both orally and visually for multiple times. Students have to watch the film, listen to the lines, write down the scripts and memorize all things. Thus, the task entails multiple functions intertwining simultaneously in cognitive processing.

Research Design

One intact class underwent a traditional teacher-directed instruction (i.e. control group) and the other (i.e. experimental group) with a semi-flip plus TBL instruction for eighteen weeks. It is a general English reading class accompanying with a reading-oriented textbook which contains articles, vocabulary and grammar and post-reading drills and exercises. Both classes experienced pretest, posttest and attitude and learner autonomous questionnaires. Students were tested during the ninth week with pretest and the eighteenth week with the posttest. Both pretest and posttest are summative exams which include common vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items related to the articles in the textbook. Reliability statistics for 50-item multiple-choice pre and posttests are Cronbach's α .80 and α .84. Attitude and learner autonomous questionnaire were distributed to the students on the eighteenth week.

Results and Discussion

Pretest and Posttest

The result of descriptive statistics showed that mean scores of pretest for both groups are close, control group 68.16 and experimental group 66.12, respectively (see Table 3-1). Scores of posttest demonstrated a progress for both groups, but experimental group had bigger portion of progress. The result of paired-sample T-test for pre-to-post test for control group did not show significant differences ($p=.18$); while the experimental one, a significant difference was yielded ($p=.00$) (Table 3-2). A significant difference was detected for the posttest of two groups ($p=.00$). Pretest for the two groups had no significant result ($p=.59$).

In accordance with the statistics result, two groups performed equally the same as shown on the pretest. Traditional teacher-directed teaching and flipped teaching plus filmmaking task lead to equivalent performances in terms of vocabulary and grammar acquisition for the initial stage. However, as times went by, the result of the posttest indicated tremendous differences between these two groups. The experimental group improved a lot from pretest to posttest. This might due to the motivation that triggered self-learning and increase the likelihood of learner autonomy. The more the students engaged in the filmmaking task as well as being exposed to the instruction online, the more they had the urge and willingness to learn English. Once the motivation is elevated, learning occurs subsequently. The significant difference from the statistics result between the posttest of control and experimental group is another evidence to prove that students having two types of instructions result in different learning attitude and language acquisition. Due to the nature of manageability of repeated viewing for online videos, learners were exposed to the videos multiple times as long as they wish to do so. Input (i.e. the content they have watched) were enhanced and repeated and were made perpetually salient to the learners. When learners came to the class, they had to complete the learning list, say vocabulary and syntax and group discussion and thus the information of the content they watched had to be processed again as well as the utilization of metacognitive skills to deal with the discussion part.

Table 3-1
Descriptive Statistics of Pretest and Posttest for Both Groups

	Number	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Experiment pretest	50	34	96	66.12	14.63
Experiment posttest	50	46	96	84.12	10.59
Control pretest	50	34	92	68.16	14.44
Control posttest	50	35	96	69.86	13.33

Table 3-2
Paired-Sample T-Test

	Mean	SD	SE	95% Confidence Interval		T	df	Sig.
				LB	UB			
Exp pre – Exp post	-18.00	13.44	1.90	-21.82	-14.18	-9.47	49	0.00
Con pre – Con post	-1.67	8.80	1.23	-4.14	0.81	-1.35	50	0.18
Exp pre – Con pre	-1.80	23.30	3.30	-8.42	4.82	-0.55	49	0.59
Exp post – Con post	14.50	18.39	2.60	9.27	19.73	5.58	49	0.00

Attitude and Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

The result showed positive attitude among students in experimental groups, with overall average of 92.7% of positive responses. There were 36% of the students prefer only teacher-centered instruction without activities. 86% of the students enjoyed pre-created web-based videos and classroom discussion, the same percentage for filmmaking task. 81% of the students confronted that they did watched the web-based videos and 80% of the students admitted that they put efforts on this course a lot. These figures can assure the premise that students care about this class and made the questionnaire more credential and reliable.

With regards to learner autonomy, over 90% of the students indicated their willingness to access to English films and clips in order to improve their English ability. 88% of the student perceived themselves as independent learner and are motivated to learn English outside the classroom. 86% of the students thought that filmmaking task-base activity is one of the good approaches to learn English.

Table 3-3
Attitude and Learner Autonomy Questionnaire

5= strongly agree, 4= agree, 3= slightly agree, 2= disagree, 1= strongly disagree

	Average rating
1. I enjoyed the pre-created web homework.	4.0
2. I learned a lot from the web videos and classroom discussions.	4.1
3. I could share my ideas more through web videos and classroom discussions.	4.0
4. I earned more feedback through web videos and classroom discussions.	4.1
5. I could learn English vocabulary from watching the films and web videos.	3.9
6. I could learn English sentences and utterances from watching the films and web videos.	3.9
7. Learning English through watching films is a way to release my anxiety.	4.0
8. I learned some vocabulary (at least five) through filmmaking task-based activity.	4.5
9. I learned pronunciation (at least five) through filmmaking task-based activity.	4.4
10. I enjoyed filmmaking task-based activity.	4.3
11. Compared with regular English reading class, I prefer watching pre-created web videos and classroom discussion.	4.3
12. I prefer stay quietly on seats with only teacher's instruction for English reading class.	1.8
13. I prefer traditional instruction plus interactive learning to learn English.	3.5
14. I committed my effort and time in this English reading class a lot.	4.0
15. I watched the pre-created web video all the time.	4.1
16. After this course, I will try to watch short clips or films to learn English vocabulary and/or sentences.	4.5
17. After this course, I will try to watch short clips or films to learn their pronunciation.	4.3
18. After this course, I know how to reach English clips or films to improve my English competence.	4.5
19. Filmmaking task-based activity is one of the good ways to learn English.	4.3
20. Through this class, I became an independent English learner gradually.	4.4

Conclusion

From the result of tests and questionnaires, we found that pre-created online videos and filmmaking task-based activity had great potential and had proved by far positive effect for EFL learners to learn English. Although the pretest and posttest are content-oriented,

(i.e. vocabulary and grammar and reading comprehension test), the experimental group still outperformed the control group. The control group had steady performance from pretest to posttest, while the experimental group improved a lot. The improvement indicated learners' positive attitude toward learning English and the inclination of regarding themselves as autonomous learners. The questionnaire further supported that learner preferred this kind of instruction and helped them learn English more independently. Once learner's self-motivation and interests rise and this can lead to more enjoyable learning experience and hence encourage more autonomous and active learning.

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Ka Yu Kelvin Chong, Allen Ho, Olive Cheung, Ella Leung & Peter Clarke

University of Arizona, Tucson, United States

chongk@email.arizona.edu

Automated prediction of the written errors of tertiary level ESL and EFL learners

Bio data

At the time of research, all authors of this article were affiliated with the English Language Teaching Unit (ELTU) at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Peter Clarke was the leader of the IOWA project at ELTU, and throughout his service there developed numerous software and valuable teaching resources. Olive Cheung, Allen Ho, and Ella Leung remain at ELTU as lecturers teaching academic writing to university students across different disciplines. Currently, Kelvin Chong is a PhD student in Second Language Acquisition and Teaching at the University of Arizona. George Jor, an experienced ESL teacher, had served many years at the Chinese University Hong Kong's ELTU before recently retiring and moving on to the next chapter of his life.

Current research

My current research is situated in the interface between TBLT and CALL. I am interested in exploring the potential synergy between CALL and TBLT, in particular how TBLT can be mediated by technology in the implementation phase to achieve maximized learning outcomes in foreign for speakers of English as a second or language. Following Skehan's work, I take a cognitive approach in examining online communication of non-native speakers of English and appraise their performance based on the CAF framework (i.e., complexity, accuracy, fluency). I am interested in exploring how post-task consciousness-raising activities can free attentional resources from focusing on meaning (fluency) to focusing on form (FonF): accuracy in particular and plausibly complexity.

Recently, through Skype and Facebook, I have been gathering data from three Chinese learners of English from different parts of the world outside the US. I hope to tighten the gap between TBLT theories and practice in CALL and TBLT. A considerable amount of knowledge has been trapped in the ivory tower, and it has not been realized in daily teaching practices to impart effective learning in the evolving contexts both inside and outside the classroom. Yet, an impetus for realizing TBLT theories is CALL. Currently, with the on-going technological advancements in cell phones and handy devices, 50% of the communication is now achieved through digital media.

This has brought in not only immense pedagogical convenience (e.g., easy access of culturally-based materials of images, video clips, and songs from the Internet) but also many research potentials with easy self-monitoring devices (audio-recording function on a cellphone).

Task-based language learning and teaching

This paper summarizes a two-year project at the Chinese University of HongKong (CUHK) from 2006 to 2008. IELTS Online Writing Assistant (IOWA) is a computer-based teaching system designed for students in support of their preparation for the writing module of the

International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Situated in Error Analysis (EA) (Corder, 1981; Mitchell, 2004; Lightbown, 1998) and Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), the system is designed to address both students' local (i.e., word and sentence) and global (i.e., discourse) errors. It attempts to predict which types of error tertiary level ESL and EFL learners in Hong Kong are most likely to make by assessing their ability to find errors in a prepared script. There are two major research questions: How effective is the system in predicting students' predispositions to committing writing errors and to creating discourse problems? How can teachers better use such a diagnostic tool to complement their teaching practice to address different issues of error categories? The study concludes that: (1) its predictive performance varies greatly depending on the types of error; (2) testing alone—with limited feedback—is effective at reducing the incidence of certain types of error, especially low-frequency and structural errors, in students' productive writing; (3) certain types of error, which are most difficult for IOWA to predict, could be better instructed by teachers in an ordinary classroom context. Overall, the study has laid important foundations for enhancing our students' IELTS writing test preparation.

Short paper

Abstract

This paper summarizes a two-year project at the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) from 2006 to 2008. IELTS Online Writing Assistant (IOWA) is a computer-based teaching system designed for students in support of their preparation for the writing module of the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). Situated in Error Analysis (EA) (Corder, 1981; Mitchell, 2004; Lightbown, 1998) and Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), the system is designed to address both students' local (i.e., word and sentence) and global (i.e., discourse) errors. It attempts to predict which types of error tertiary level ESL and EFL learners in Hong Kong are most likely to make by assessing their ability to find errors in a prepared script. There are two major research questions: How effective is the system in predicting students' predispositions to committing writing errors and to creating discourse problems? How can teachers better use such a diagnostic tool to complement their teaching practice to address different issues of error categories? The study concludes that: (1) its predictive performance varies greatly depending on the types of error; (2) testing alone—with limited feedback—is effective at reducing the incidence of certain types of error, especially low-frequency and structural errors, in students' productive writing; (3) certain types of error, which are most difficult for IOWA to predict, could be better instructed by teachers in an ordinary classroom context. Overall, the study has laid important foundations for enhancing our students' IELTS writing test preparation.

Keywords

Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Error Analysis (EA)

Introduction

The International English Language Testing System (IELTS), an international high stake English proficiency test, has been seen by many local universities and companies in Hong Kong as one of the most reliable tests for the English ability of incoming students, graduates, new job seekers, and employees. With a satisfactory score of the IELTS, English users display an important credential on their CV and resume, which in return opens doors of opportunities for their future career and academic development. For example, an overall band score of 6.5 or above with no individual score below band 6 obtained in one sitting in the Academic Module of IELTS within the two-year validity period is accepted as equivalent to the highest grade, "Level 2", in a test called *Use of English* in the government's *Common Recruitment Examination*, which is a compulsory test for those who are seeking a contracted civil servant position in Hong Kong.

IELTS tests a candidate's four areas of language abilities. Under the current exam format, IELTS can be taken as an academic or general training mode, both assessed on a 9-band scale. Each module (i.e., Listening, Academic Reading, General Training Reading, Academic Writing, General Training Writing, and Speaking), reported in either a half or whole band, carries equal weighting towards a total band score. According to the scoring descriptors, candidates scoring Band 6 are considered competent users who have a generally effective command of the English language, despite systematic errors that could interfere with meaning; those who score Band 7 are considered good users who generally handle complex language well with some systematic errors that do not interfere the meaning; Band 8 indicates very good users who have attained a full command of using complex language with occasional unsystematic errors; and Band 9 indicates expert users.

The academic version of the IELTS writing test consists of two tasks to be completed within one hour. Task 1 requires a 150-word description of a diagram or some data; Task 2 requires a 250-word argumentative essay. We analyzed error types separately for the two tasks, although the final selection of error types was based on the combined error frequency (see Methodology for more details).

In Hong Kong, under the 2010/11 Common English Proficiency Assessment Scheme (CEPAS), all graduating university students are currently encouraged and subsidized by the *University Grants Committee* (UGC) of Hong Kong to take the academic version of the IELTS. The numbers of candidates taking the exam have been constantly high: in 2009/10, for example, 68% of Hong Kong's graduandsⁱ accounting for 12,063 final-year students participatedⁱⁱ (UGC, 2010); in 2012/13, 60% of Hong Kong's graduands of UGC-funded undergraduate degree programs participated in the IELTS (UGC, 2013).

The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) offers workshops to prepare students for the test. These are generally popular, reaching around 22% percent of those intending to take the test. However, due to time constraints, the students are able to spend only one three-hour session on each of the four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). It would clearly be beneficial for both students and teachers to optimize the training provided in such a limited time. In line with this belief, by focusing on writing skills, we have devised and tested an online system that attempts to predict the types of error an individual student would make in their writing. Based on these predictions, the student can then be directed to appropriate remedial teaching and exercises. For example, a 'task bank' of online remedial exercises has been constructed by our team.

Based on 295 authentic writing scripts (147 scripts of IELTS Task 1 plus 148 scripts of Task 2) produced by ESL students at the tertiary level in Hong Kong, we present an analysis of their typical error types. We found discernible patterns in the ability of the online test to predict and/or reduce the occurrence of errors in the students' IELTS scripts, depending on the types of error. In this paper, we describe our methodology for selecting the types of error to target as well as the design, construction, and testing of the predictive tool. Related work in the literature is discussed in the following section.

Literature Review

Over several decades, local tertiary institutes have faced the challenge of improving students' English proficiency, especially after the adoption of the IELTS by Hong Kong's University Grants Committee (UGC) as the English language exit test for university graduates in 2002. Helping tertiary students enhance their writing skills has become one of English instructors' toughest tasks, as they are confronted by timetabling constraints with limited contact hours with students. As Warschauer and Ware (2006) describe:

At the same time we are cognizant of the high stakes for both ESL and EFL students in attaining English language writing proficiency, we are painfully aware

of the steep odds that learners face in reaching this goal. The reality is that the need for expanded and improved instruction in English language writing simply cannot be matched by the capacity of educational institutions to offer corresponding instruction. (p.176)

To address the problem, Dodigovic (2002) maintains that developing and incorporating computer-based learning tools is a possible solution, as the flexible learning mode of such tools could enable writing practice and feedback to be ideally organized around the learners' individual study and casual work schedule.

History and Background: Error Analysis (EA) and Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI)

In the 1950s, behaviorists viewed language learning as a process of habit formation via repeated responses to stimuli. This implies that foreign language (FL) or second language (L2) learning would be heavily influenced by a learner's mother tongue (L1). This tradition consequently held that effective L2 teaching and learning should focus on the differences between L1 and L2, which brought about Contrastive Analysis (CA). CA focuses on the scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. Later research findings showed that CA did not perform as satisfactorily as expected in predicting learner difficulties by looking at the parallel linguistic features between languages. Meanwhile, increased attention was focused on learner language, i.e., language actually produced by learners themselves, which then brought about Error Analysis (EA), the systematic investigation of L2 learners' errors. Corder (1981) focused on this area, claiming that errors reflected learners' current understanding of the rules and patterns of the L2 (also, see Mitchell, 2004). EA research during the 1960s showed that most L2 learners' errors in fact did not originate from their L1 (Lightbown, 1998). In other words, to a certain extent, language produced by L2 learners neither resembles their L1 (as shown by EA) nor resembles their L2 (due to all the unexplainable mistakes made). The term interlanguage (IL) was then coined by Selinker to refer to the condition where the learner language lies somewhere in-between their L1 and the target language (TL) that they aim at mastering. Under a framework which investigates data on utterances observable from learners' NL, IL and TL, Selinker (1972) established various phenomena and processes underlying IL behavior, including fossilization, language transfer, and overgeneralization.

These breakthroughs in the areas of EA and IL had a significant impact upon research and pedagogy in L2 instruction throughout the world. As a result, research efforts and resources in Hong Kong were drawn to areas that were not given sufficient attention before. A wide range of rising issues at that point include language transfer interference (Chan, 1991; Chan, 2004; Sung, 1991; Green 1991b); error gravity (Green, 1991a); relation between errors and teaching contexts (Hepburn, 1991); and error avoidance (Lee, 1990), with particular consideration given to the local context (Yip and Matthews, 1991; Li and Chan, 1999) and to both the local and international contexts (Bunton, 1991). Data regarding IL produced by English as a Second Language learners in Hong Kong's classrooms have been collected at different levels of instruction and further processed and analyzed by researchers in various ways. For example, educational professionals have often supported the idea of categorizing errors into sub-types. Apart from ranking error types according to their gravity (degree of error seriousness), Lee (1990) suggested that errors be distinguished according to their linguistic levels, i.e., morpho-syntactic errors, discourse errors, phonologically-induced errors, and lexical errors; whereas Li and Chan (1999) advocated the establishment of error taxonomies that collect lexical and structural errors with attention paid also to error teachability. Collection and analysis of this nature may very well contribute to the development of computer-assisted tools in correcting writing errors as well as teaching correct language forms.

In the 1960s, work in computer assisted instruction (CAI), or more precisely in question here, Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE), began; the first two products being *Project Essay Grade* developed by the College Board, a national network of universities in the United States, which aims to help score high school student essays, and the *Writer's Workbench*, which was a set of writing tools running in Unix systems providing feedback on writing quality. At that time, due to technological constraints, CAI/ AWE operated on a very narrow definition of such quality. For example, *Writer's Workbench* only allowed for limited functions, such as performing readability tests on the text to report a statistical count of sentence length, and for flagging wordy, clichéd, misspelled or misused phrases. However, the development of such pilot CAI/ AWE software essentially pointed the field in an important direction: evaluation and feedback (Burstein, 2004; Warschauer, 2006).

Functions and Design of Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) Tools for Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE)

A wide range of CAI tools has gradually been developed either by educational practitioners or by researchers in commercial companies offering systems that perform AWE. The two most currently and widely used AWE systems in the field are *Criterion* and *MY Access!*, developed by Educational Testing Service and Vantage Learning respectively, both of which are commercial enterprises (Warschauer, 2006; Chen, 2006). Three recent examples of AWE systems developed by researchers/ practitioners within academia are the *UNED Grammar Checker* developed by the Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia in Spain (Lawley, 2004), the *Cyber Coach* piloted with a grant at Macquarie University in Australia (Dodigovic, 2002) and *HARRY*, developed by Loughborough University in the United Kingdom (Holdich, Chung, & Holdich, 2004).

In terms of function, most of the products run in two major steps: to evaluate and then to give feedback, though each of them may approach the two steps in different ways or with a different focus. In our paper, we use 'evaluation' and 'feedback' in a broad and loose sense to refer to the general design aims of AWE products instead of directly translating them into the more well-defined and narrowed definitions in the area of language testing. Generally speaking, although all forms of writing assessment include students' written output, followed by evaluation and feedback on students' work, these terms could differ in different contexts. In traditional language testing on writing, these terms of assessment, evaluation, and feedback usually include the process of learners' writing part of an essay, followed by the correction of errors, and showing rankings, scores or percentiles that inform students of their performance in a testing group or a learning community. On the other hand, in AWE, looser definitions of evaluation and feedback include any form of written or textual organizing output, which becomes the input to the system, followed by the diagnosis and comments on room for improvement or comments on categories that need suggestions, the direction for attention, and provision of remedial exercises.

The function types of the various AWE systems reviewed are summarized in Table 1.

Steps	Types of Functions	Details
Input	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Receive input from students 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Students copy and paste entire written texts (writing assignments/ exam compositions) into computer program • Students produce short answers to diagnostic prompts
System Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assessment/ Scoring of text quality • Diagnosis of students' weakness/ areas requiring attention 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Holistic scores for texts • System identifies the errors • System evaluates areas including: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -spelling/punctuation -grammar -writing style - organization/ discourse structure
System Feedback	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Give comments to learners • Suggest ways to improve writing quality / to correct errors • Direct students to required teaching points 	

Table 1. Steps in a typical Automated Writing Evaluation system

As summarized in Table 1, all of the AWE systems require learners to produce writing input for analysis, the input being either full word processed texts copied and pasted into the system or short answers in sentence form given by students in response to prompt questions. The systems will then process the input to give scores for the writing and/or to identify weaknesses and errors in terms of the writing style and textual organization (macro, top-down approach) and/or of the grammar and mechanics on the word or sentence levels (micro, bottom-up approach). (For more details, refer to Dodigovic, 2002, pp.11-15.) Lastly, the systems will give feedback in the form of comments, suggestions for possible changes, and/or explanation of error formation and correction.

Previous AWE approaches have focused mainly on addressing students' errors in retrospect, that is, after a writing task has been completed. Complementary to this, our project aims to adopt a proactive approach: predicting the errors that individual students are likely to make, and coaching them ahead of the writing task. A proactive approach is useful in the sense that it is preventive rather than curative. Since writing is a complicated process that requires high cognitive thinking, having an agenda of what to write before the actual writing can help students organize their ideas. For this purpose, a proactive approach can act as a reminder for learners' future writing.

Methodology

First, our IOWA team, consisting of six English language instructors, prepared a list of 75 types of error commonly committed in IELTS writing scripts. The list was narrowed down to 26 error types appearing in 174 mock IELTS writing scripts by selecting the most frequent error types. The 26 error types were further divided into 20 local (word and sentence level) errors and 6 global (structural) errors, e.g., weak or absent introduction, absent conclusion, and coherence.

We then carried out a computer-based test with ten students, which was a manageable size, considering the limited human power of the team. The test consisted of a teacher-

written IELTS script spiked with examples of all the local errors and some of the global errors. Students were asked to identify and correct all the local errors and evaluate the severity of the global errors on a 4-point scale. For instance, the script reads: "According to the bar chart, the number of cars in British was on an increase." The student should change the word "British" to "Britain." As for the global errors, they saw a list of potential global problems/errors (e.g., weak introduction, weak conclusion). They would then need to assign a number from 1 (the most severe) to 4 (the least severe) to each of those listed global writing errors. The performance of the students in the test was compared with their tendency to commit the same errors in a mock IELTS writing test carried out immediately after the online test, as shown in Table 2. We also compared their performance with that of the other 148 students who attended one session of a two-hour long preparation workshop consisting of lectures and paper-and-pencil exercises in small groups rather than the online test.

We explored the effectiveness and challenges of the automated prediction system of the writing errors of tertiary level ESL learners. There were five research questions:

- What are the most frequent written errors that appear in IELTS writing scripts?
- Are there any notable patterns in the types of error and their frequencies of occurrence across the two writing questions of distinctive genres?
- Do the coders code consistently? Is there high inter-rater reliability?
- How effective is the system in predicting students' predisposition in committing writing errors and discourse problems?
- How can teachers better use IOWA as a diagnostic tool to complement their teaching practice to address different issues of error categories?

Selection of Target Error Types

Based on our experience of preparing students for the academic IELTS test from 2002 until 2006 when the study started, we prepared a list of 75 error types that we considered both common and significant (in terms of adversely affecting the writer's score for the test). Examples of error types are: Inappropriate choice of verb, Faulty use of supporting data and Weak conclusion. The complete list is shown in Appendix 1.

Next, in order to make our task manageable, we narrowed this to a list of 26 target error types. To do this, we asked 147 CUHK students preparing for the test to complete a mock IELTS writing test, which was done after attending the conventional IELTS preparation workshop on writing skills. In the resulting scripts, every instance of the 75 error types was identified and coded. The error frequency was analyzed, and 26 of the most frequent error types chosen for the target list on the basis that these 26 error types comprised around 70% of all errors found. The error analysis results are also shown in Appendix 1. In order to validate the choices of our original 75-item list, we tried to see if the original list of over 9,000 errors (raw data) that we coded at the beginning of the study would fall into these 75 categories. Results showed that only five out of a total of 9,825 instances of error did not fit any of these categories; thus, the errors accounted for more than 99.949% of coverage. We divided the error types into two categories:

- 'local' errors: word- or sentence-level errors that could recur within a single script;
- 'global' errors: structural features (such as poor paragraphing) that would refer to a script as a whole.

Our initial list of 75 error types included 63 local errors and 12 global errors, in addition to an 'any other error' code. We analyzed the local and global errors separately because local errors can occur more than once in a script and, therefore, carry greater weight in the error ranking.

Our final selection of error types on which to focus consisted of 20 local errors and 6 global errors. The 20 local errors are drawn from the 22 most frequently occurring

errors; the two omitted from the list are *misspelling* (as this cannot be readily addressed with a short remedial task) and *faulty use of supporting data* (a logical or rhetorical error rather than a fault of language use). The 6 global errors are drawn from the 8 most frequently occurring errors; the two omitted are *over-complexity* (not readily addressed with a short remedial task) and *irrelevant content*. Full rankings are shown in Appendix 1. With regard to local errors, three types of error ranking were prepared for comparison:

- the total number of instances of each error type (as shown in Appendix 1);
- the number of scripts containing each error type; and
- the number of scripts containing each error type more than once.

The last of these rankings was designed to check how many single-instance errors were made, perhaps indicating lapses or slips rather than misunderstandings. In practice, we found that the rankings from all three approaches were very similar; 19 of our selected 20 local error types appeared in the top 22 of all three rankings.

The top four local error types were singular-plural, verb tense, misspelling and missing article, reflecting the typical interlanguage issues of the participating Chinese-L1 students. The top three global error types were perhaps more surprising: poor conclusion, poor introduction and unsatisfactory answer to task question; these are compositional skill issues rather than language mastery ones.

Comparing Error Types Selection with the Literature

In order to check if the error types under study are of importance to IELTS takers, we made a comparison between our list and three textbooks written by Berry (1961), Moore (2007) and Cullen (2007). Comparison of our target errors with the coverage in the books showed that all kinds of error covered in the books are within our scope of study. In addition, we included three kinds of error that we believe are crucial to IELTS writing, i.e. word order; missing connectives; and inappropriate connectives. These errors are not discussed in the three books. Also lacking in these textbooks are the structural aspects of IELTS writing as none of these books discuss global errors. In view of these problems, we include these additional error types in an attempt to conduct a more comprehensive study.

Results & Discussion

Patterns of error occurrence in relation to the genre differences

Based on the 147 scripts, we can see some types of error occurred more frequently in one task than in the other. Some examples are shown in Figure 1, in which error types near the top are more likely to occur in Task 1 (descriptive essay) while those near the bottom are more likely in Task 2 (argumentative essay). The distribution displays a pattern; for example, "sentence structure too simple" is more likely in descriptive Task 1 while pronoun errors occur more often in the argumentative Task 2. These findings could give insights into the relative weight that should be placed on various types of error when teaching writing of different genres.

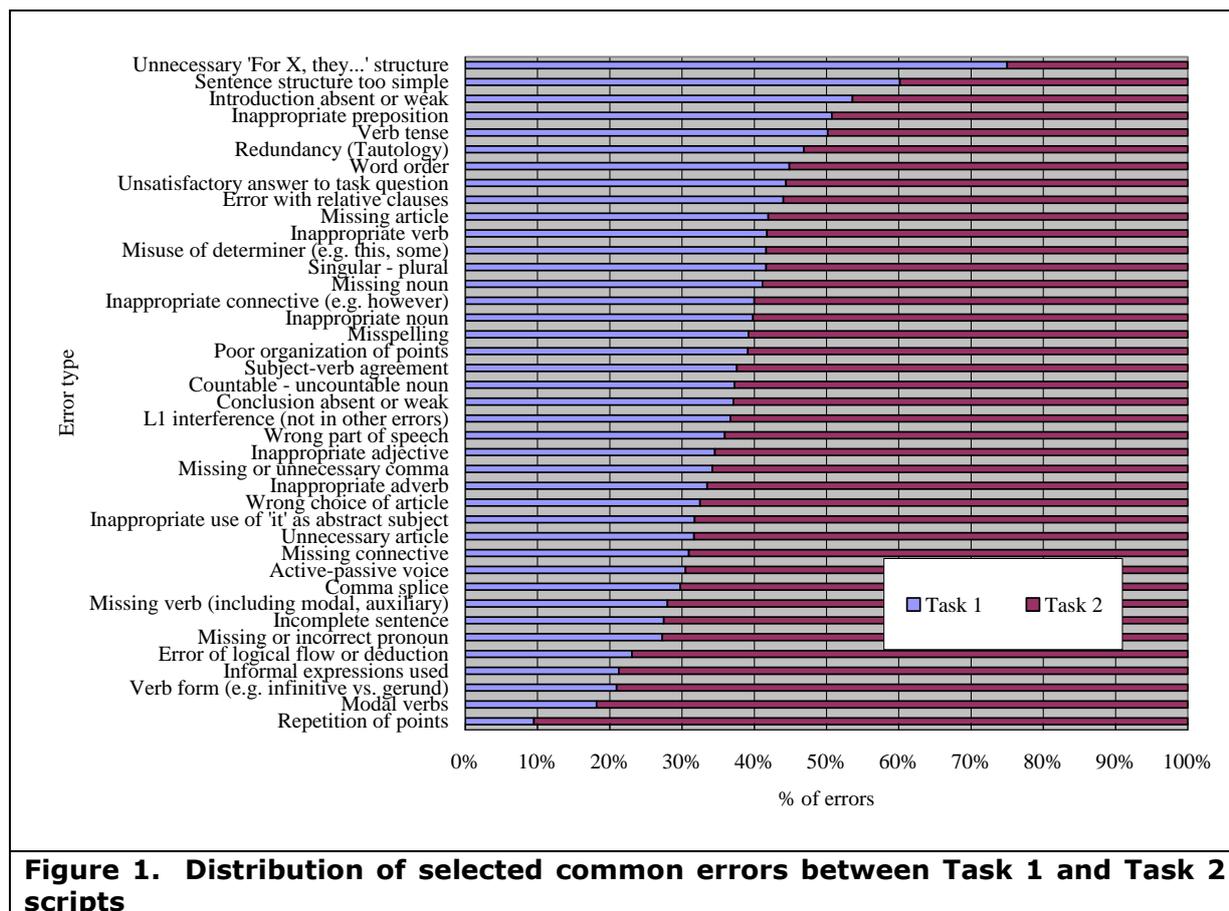


Figure 1. Distribution of selected common errors between Task 1 and Task 2 scripts

Inter-rater reliability- Checking for Error-coding Consistency

A detailed guideline for error coding was given to a team of ten teachers, who were experienced in preparing students for IELTS. Before coding, each coder was given the draft coding scheme and guideline, along with two 'standardization' scripts to code (the same scripts were issued to each coder). The resulting codings were analyzed for consistency.

We checked the coding in the first ten lines of the Task 1 and Task 2 scripts separately. The error codes used by each coder in those 20 lines were tabulated. For each error type, we counted how many coders used each error type. We also counted how many of the actual errors were found by each coder, and how many incorrect codes were used (e.g. against non-existent errors, or where the wrong code was selected to mark an error), terming these 'false positives'.

In the first ten lines of task 1, there were about seven error types, some occurring several times. Five of these types were found by more than half of the coders. Overall, 58% of the "true errors" were actually found. However, 28% of the codes used were 'false positives'. About two-thirds of the 'false positives' were error types that did not appear in the passage at all. Thus, the overall effect of the faults in coding would be to decrease the apparent occurrence of common errors, and increase that of uncommon errors—in other words, a 'levelling' effect.

The Task 2 passage studied contained about eleven actual error types. Of these, five were found by more than half of the coders. Overall, 49% of the "true" errors were found, and there were 10% false positives, nearly all of which were error types that did not appear in the passage. Thus, Task 2 seemed more difficult to code correctly, and many less common errors were under-represented in the coding (e.g. word order and transitivity errors).

Based on these findings, we revised the coding system and guidelines to coders, removed ambiguities, and encouraged coders to find all errors in the scripts.

In order to conduct ongoing checks, each coder received 'calibration' scripts with their bundle of scripts for coding, at a ratio of one calibration script to 9 regular scripts. The coders were not aware of which scripts were for calibration. We compared the coding of the calibration scripts between coders. These showed a slight improvement in consistency compared with the earlier study; however, this may have been partly due to increased familiarity with our coding system.

Given that precisely accurate coding was not critical to the overall purpose of our study, the coding reliability achieved was reasonably adequate.

Prediction of Errors

The key objective of our project was to devise an online test that would predict which errors a particular student would be most likely to make. The criteria for the design of our predictive test were as follows:

- It should give accurate predictions, i.e. the actual errors made by a student in a mock IELTS writing test would match those predicted by the system.
- A short time (less than, say, 30 minutes) should be required for completion of the test, given our overall time constraints.
- It should be self-evident as to how to complete the test without detailed explanation given by the teacher.
- It should run as an online application in a normal web browser for maximum portability.
- It should look professional and be simple to navigate.
- It should work smoothly without ambiguous questions.
- It should give meaningful feedback.

Design of the Predictive test

In attempt to predict a student's predisposition to commit a certain error type, it is important to remember the cognitive distinction between 'production'—actual writing—and 'reaction'—responding to a test question about some aspects of writing. It is common and possible that students can be fully aware of the rules concerning, for example, subject-verb agreement, and are able to answer a related test question correctly. Nevertheless, they still commit this kind of error frequently in their own productive writing. Thus, the predictive power of a test question may well be weak, and we, therefore, elected to avoid this approach.

Logically, then, the best predictions could be expected to arise from analysis of a student's actual writing sample. This, however, would require the software to have capabilities not yet developed even in state-of-the-art writing analysis systems. It may soon be possible for software to analyze grammatical errors in terms of their underlying cause—indeed, some parsers already have capabilities that take some steps towards this. However, higher-order errors relating to, for example, word choice, semantics, coherence, logical flow and structure, are likely to prove much more intractable to automated analysis.

Our chosen approach was to generate an extended text containing each of the target local errors and to have the user find and correct the errors—a 'proofreading' approach. Some global errors were also present in the text, and the user was required to assess their severity on a 4-point scale. When devising the text, we kept the following criteria in mind:

- The errors must be unambiguous—i.e., definite errors of a certain type, not open to question.
- The errors must not be made obvious from the way the text was presented. For example, if The was missing from the start of a sentence, the following word would be capitalized, and the space closed up, so as to 'conceal' the error. Nor can an error be readily deducible by comparison with another point in the text; for example, in "Both man and women enjoy sport", the incorrect use of singular man is made obvious by the plural women.
- Errors must not be extended over more than 2-3 words, in order to keep them clearly defined. (An exception to this may be word order errors.)
- Errors must be discrete, i.e. each phrase must contain no more than one error, and there should be no overlap between erroneous phrases.
- Errors must have one or more clearly identifiable corrections, one of which could be to delete the erroneous word or phrase.

Implementation of the Predictive Test

Our system was written in C++ with .net framework 2.0 including JavaScript and AJAX and hosted on the CUHK e-learning server. We prepared two error-spiked texts—one for Task 1, one for Task 2—although only the Task 1 text was used for our studies. The texts are shown in Appendix 2.

The test was conducted in two parts. In the first part, our 20 targeted local errors are addressed. First, users of the IOWA were presented with the text and told that it contains 35 underlined errors. The users should correct each error (by replacing or deleting a word or phrase); their amendments appear in the text, whether correct or not.

The second part focuses on the 6 target global errors. The original text is shown again (without underlining). The 6 global errors are listed below the text, and users were asked to assess the text in terms of each global error, on a 3-point scale from 'satisfactory', 'weak' to 'very weak'; plus a 'don't know' option also available, since the user may not know what constitutes, for example, bad paragraphing.

After completing the two tests, users are offered detailed feedback. For the first part, the corrected text is shown, with the errors highlighted. Hovering the mouse over each error reveals the user's amendment, whether the amendment was correct, and all possible acceptable corrections. For the second part, the user's and 'correct' evaluations of the global errors are shown; explanations are offered via 'Help' buttons.

Finally, the system evaluates the user's performance and lists the top 10 error types in terms of significance to that particular user. The user is intended to use this list as a recommendation for further study. To carry out the evaluation, a "priority-score" is calculated for each error type: $\text{priority-score} = \text{mistake-score} \times \text{priority-value}$.

For local errors, the mistake-score is 0 if the user amended an error correctly, 1 if the user made an incorrect amendment to the error, or 2 if the user did not attempt a correction. For global errors, the mistake score is 0 if the user selected the correct option on the scale, 1 if the user's selection was adjacent to the correct option, or 2 if the user's selection was far from the correct option or the user selected 'Don't know.' The priority-value is a list of fixed values per error (on a 1-9 scale), reflecting the significance or importance of each error type, in the view of a panel of teachers. The teachers were asked to assign a score, and an average was taken to be the priority-value. For example, 'weak introduction' was assigned a value of 7, whereas 'number incorrectly expressed' was assigned 3, reflecting the teachers' perception of how heavily these factors influence performance in the IELTS test.

When the priority scores have been calculated, they are ranked in descending order, and the top 10 are reported to the user for further study.

Evaluation of the Predictive Test

A group of 10 students were asked to complete the predictive test, and then to write a mock IELTS writing test script immediately afterwards. The students consisted of those who self-registered for our normal IELTS preparation workshop, unaware that they would be invited to attempt the predictive test. Thus, the students can be regarded as a representative sample of those who normally take our workshops. When they arrived at the workshop, all the students consented to participate in the study.

The students' performances in the predictive test were recorded by capturing screenshots at each stage of the test and analyzing their responses on an error-by-error basis. Their performance in the mock writing test was error-coded as described earlier.

To evaluate the effectiveness of the test, we prepared a grid showing each type of error (in columns) and each student (in rows). We inserted codes into the cells of the grid as follows:

Code	Meaning
W	The student made this type of error in their mock IELTS writing test.
P	The student made this type of error in the predictive test.

We then examined the correlation between occurrences of the codes W and P in the grid. Ideally, the codes would appear together in the same cells, indicating that predicted errors (P) and actual errors (W) were in agreement. In practice, we found varying degrees of correlation depending on error type. To assess this quantitatively, we calculated *correlation scores* (r) for each error type, where c ranges from +1 (perfect match between W and P) to -1 (no match between W and P). The detailed method of calculation is shown in Appendix 3. The values of c for each error are shown in Table 2.

Analysis of Global Errors

Naturally, it was not possible for the predictive test to contain examples of all the global errors. If it had, the test would have been ineffective because the students were required simply to evaluate the global error on a crude scale. Hence, it was not possible to analyze global error types in the same way as local errors and, thus, global errors are excluded from Table 2. However, the effectiveness of the test (and normal workshop) in reducing the occurrence of global errors could still be analyzed, and the results are presented in Figure 2.

Global errors should not be neglected, as they are likely to contribute significantly to the student's IELTS score, especially at higher band levels. Also, students tend to focus more on word- and sentence-level problems due to their relatively limited ability level.

Error code	Error description	c	Error category (see Table 3)
14	Inappropriate noun	0.33	A
61	Inappropriate connective	0.25	D
25	Missing word or phrase	0.20	B
13	Inappropriate verb	0.11	A
39	Redundancy	See note ^{iv}	E
35	Missing article	□0.10	A/C
63	Missing connective	□0.20	D
51	Comma	□0.43	D
20	Wrong part of speech	□0.50	B
17	Inappropriate preposition	□0.60	B
26	Singular-plural	□0.60	C
36	Unnecessary article	□0.60	E
29	Number incorrectly expressed	□0.67 ^v	B/E
30	Verb tense	□0.67	C
56	Word order	□0.71	B
15	Inappropriate adjective	□0.78	B
27	Countable-uncountable	□1.00	C
32	Active-passive	□1.00	B
41	Subject-verb agreement	□1.00	C
45	Relative clause	□1.00	E

Table 2. Correlation scores *c* between errors in the predictive test and in students' actual writing; listed in descending order of *c*

Discussion of Evaluation Results

Examination of the results in Table 2 above shows that word choice and structural errors (e.g., punctuation) generally occur near the top of the table, showing better correlation than classic grammar errors such as subject-verb agreement and verb tenses. This suggests a general distinction between these two types of error; for the word choice errors, students are unaware of their weakness—and so commit the error both in the test and in their writing—whereas for the grammar errors, students are often well aware of the rules and so do well in the predictive test but still commit the errors in productive writing.

Based on close examination of the data, we divide the errors into five categories, as shown in Table 3. For each, we list our observations on the patterns of manifestation of this error, and a possible way the error could be more effectively predicted.

Error category (from Table 2)	Observations from results of predictive test	Possible strategy for improved prediction
A	These errors were made by most students, both in the test and in their writing.	Since these errors are so common, it can be assumed that students will commit them: no need to predict.
B	These errors were moderately common, but poorly predicted.	A different testing approach is required. These errors may tend to follow characteristic patterns (we call these recurrent errors) that can be identified; see Table 4.
C	Students generally corrected these errors appropriately in the test, but frequently committed them in their writing. This suggests high awareness of the principles involved, but failure to follow them in productive writing.	A productive writing task is required to test for these errors. Since the errors are, for the most part, well-defined issues of grammar, it may be possible to detect these errors automatically using a parser.
D	These errors were commonly made in the test, but not in students' writing. This suggests the students were either not attentive enough in looking for these types of error in the test, or not able to correct them despite the identification of the errors. However, these errors are unimportant as they do not appear in the actual writing.	A shorter proofreading task can be used, specifically focusing on these error types. The students can be informed which types of error to expect.
E	Similar to category C, except less common in students' writing.	Use a productive writing test, or make the proofreading test more difficult.

Table 3. Error categories

Effect of Predictive Test on Writing Performance

We were interested in discovering whether the process of conducting the predictive test—even without any follow-up remedial teaching—had an impact on students' performance in a mock writing test. To this end, we examined the numbers of scripts containing each of our 26 target errors, as written by the students who had just taken the predictive test described above. These were compared with the corresponding numbers from the original cohort of 147 students, all of whom had taken a 'traditional' workshop (two hour lecture style, with some individual or small group interactive activities, no computer usage) just before writing their scripts. The results are summarized in Figure 2.

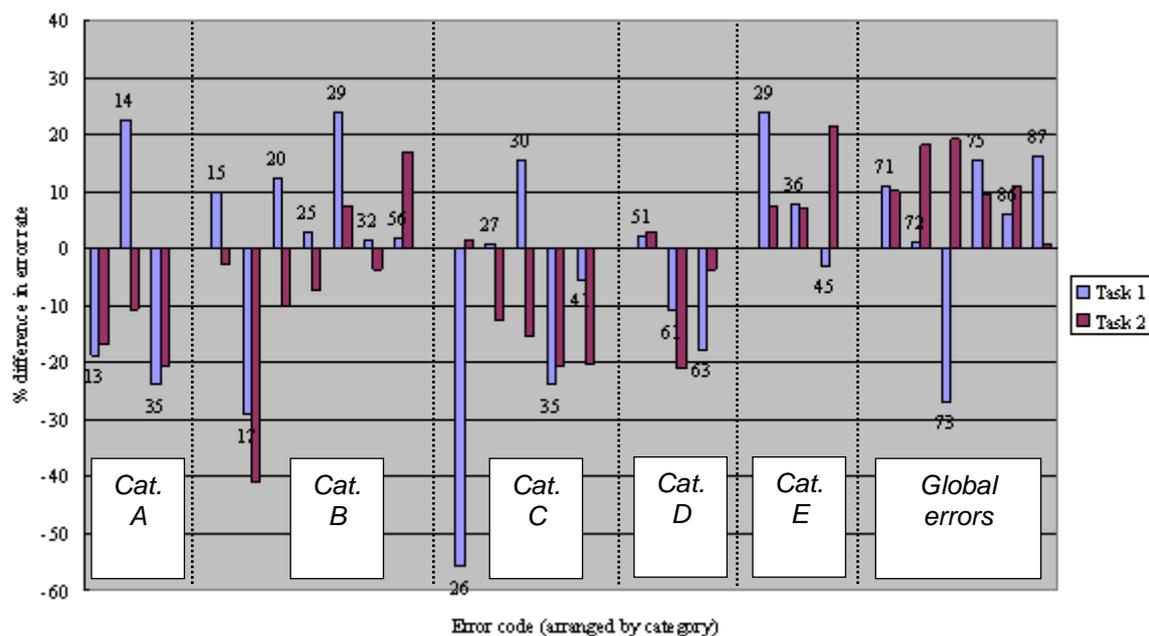


Figure 2. Difference between % of scripts containing each error type from students completing the 'traditional' workshop and those completing the predictive test. Positive values denote that scripts written after the predictive test having fewer occurrences of the error. The errors are arranged according to the categories shown in Tables 2 and 3; errors assigned to two categories appear twice in this Figure.

These results show a discernable pattern for all categories of error, except A and B. Categories C and D are errors which are poorly predicted by the test; Figure 2 shows that students who did the test instead of the normal workshop made significantly more of these types of error (as indicated by the negative difference scores in the Figure). This suggests that teacher input is important for reducing the incidence of these types of error; therefore, teachers should focus on these categories in the workshops.

On the other hand, the incidence of category E errors was lower among students who took the test. Category E errors are low-frequency errors that are poorly predicted by the test. This intriguing result suggests that the test itself is capable of increasing students' awareness of these less common errors, suggesting this is a useful teaching approach for this class of error. However, we do not know if these effects would last and result in eventual acquisition of those language structures.

Most interesting of all is the finding, shown in Figure 2, that the incidence of global errors was significantly reduced as a result of taking the test. This suggests that the process of working with a model text—albeit one with intentional weaknesses—helps the students focus on structural aspects of writing. This result has clear implications for classroom teaching of writing.

Limitations

Recurrent Patterns of Error

Our collection and error-coding of 147 mock IELTS writing scripts has generated a substantial corpus of authentic error examples. Many error types have hundreds of instances in this 'error bank'. In order to better understand how to predict and prevent such errors, we examined some of them in detail, aiming to identify recurrent patterns. One limitation that should be mentioned is that all the scripts were written in response to the same pair of IELTS questions, which may cause certain patterns of error to occur frequently in response to the specific subject matter of those questions. In IELTS, Question 1 is about describing some figures and patterns in one of the many different

formats (e.g., pie charts, bar charts, flow charts, etc.), whereas Question 2 is pertinent to argumentative writing genre.

Error code	Error description	Patterns identified (with approximate percentage of errors of that code)
15	Inappropriate adjective	Unnatural collocation (25%), e.g., <i>impossible laws, reinforcing way, sustainable fossil fuels</i> Confused items (20%), e.g., <i>further (□future) generations, raising (□rising) numbers</i> Overly common word chosen (15%), e.g., <i>enough chance</i>
20	Part of speech	Adverbs (32%), especially writing adjective for adverb or <i>vice versa</i> Noun/adjective confusion (20%), e.g., <i>presence/present, Britain/British</i>
25	Missing word or phrase	Many different patterns observed; no single pattern particularly prominent
32	Active-passive	Misuse of passive (30%), e.g., <i>The number has been kept increasing; habits are difficult to be changed.</i> Misuse of active (30%), e.g., <i>These problems can be solving.</i> Malformed construction (25%), e.g., <i>The problem will be worsen in the future.</i>
36	Unnecessary article	Use of <i>the</i> for abstract or concept noun (40%), e.g., <i>The public transport is greener.</i> Use of <i>the</i> for abstract plural nouns (30%), e.g., <i>Some ways are better than the others.</i> Use of <i>the</i> + singular noun when abstract plural noun would be better (25%), e.g., <i>encourage the citizen to...</i>
45	Relative clause	Use of unnecessary relative pronoun with contact clause (containing <i>-ing</i> or <i>-ed</i> verb) (25%), e.g., <i>problems that created by</i> Use of <i>that</i> before noun phrase (25%), e.g., <i>The graph shows that the number of cars in Britain.</i> Omission of relative pronoun (25%), e.g., <i>The number ^ took the test increased.</i>
51	Comma	The most common error is to omit commas, especially before <i>-ing</i> adverbial clauses, around non-defining subordinate clauses, and in lists.
56	Word order	Misplaced adverbials (25%), e.g., <i>it increased to 200 slowly</i> Misplaced modifiers (25%), e.g., <i>the number of choosing part-time education males; the percentage of CO₂ decrease</i> Misplaced auxiliary verb (15%), e.g., <i>There may be not enough space.</i>
72	Introduction	Failing to 'set the scene'—identify the subject area—is the most common error. Another common weakness is simply to repeat phrases from the question verbatim.

Table 4. Recurrent patterns identified in the error bank

One caveat to the results shown is that the sample of students taking the predictive test was small—only ten students completed it, compared with 147 taking the 'traditional' workshops before completing the writing test.

Another possible distortion arises from the fact that the scripts of the students taking the predictive test were coded by the project team, not by the original coding team, due to a different combination of the project members over the two-year project. The project

team may have been more meticulous in finding every instance of the errors present; this would tend to increase the apparent incidence of errors among test-takers, making the difference scores in Figure 2 more negative.

It should also be emphasized that the test-takers in this study received only the limited feedback offered by the software. They did not work with the follow-up tasks in the 'task bank.' It is to be expected that working with the task bank should improve the students' performance further, especially if tasks are focused in the light of the findings reported above.

Conclusion

In this investigation, we have developed a comprehensive list of error types made by EFL students at the tertiary level in Hong Kong and rank-ordered the errors based on frequency by using a substantial sample of authentic scripts. We have also devised an online test system that attempts to predict which error types will be committed by a particular student, and we have demonstrated that:

- Its predictive performance varies greatly depending on the type of error;
- Testing alone—with limited feedback—is effective at reducing the incidence of certain types of error, especially low-frequency and structural errors, in students' productive writing;
- Certain types of error benefit particularly from teacher input. Interestingly, these types of error are the ones that proved most difficult to predict under our testing system.

For teachers preparing students for the IELTS, implications are as follows. First, there should be different foci when teaching task 1 and 2 of the IELTS. Referring to Figure 1, error types near the top of the figure (e.g., *Sentence structure too simple*) should receive more attention for task 1, and error types near the bottom (e.g., *Informal expressions used*) for task 2.

Second, from a post-hoc analysis of the results of the improvement of each error type by students conducting the online test (not a control group), surprisingly, students' propensity for committing certain types of error is reduced more by teacher input than by conducting the online test. Therefore, teachers should focus on these types of error, shown as negative (downward) bars in Figure 2, e.g., *Inappropriate preposition*, *Inappropriate verb*, and *Missing/inappropriate connective*.

Third, students can effectively be reminded of their tendency to commit infrequent errors by performing a test. Therefore, a short test focusing on errors in Category E (as defined in Tables 2 and 3), such as *Redundancy* and *Number incorrectly expressed*, may be an efficient teaching aid for IELTS writing preparation.

Fourth, based on our data, working with error-spiked model texts helps students focus on structural aspects of writing, such as *Introduction absent or weak* and *Sentence structure too simple*. Therefore, students who are weak in these aspects may benefit from this kind of learning activity.

Fifth, analysis of recurrent instances of some errors (e.g., *Inappropriate adjective*) revealed specific topics that may benefit from teaching input (e.g., collocations), in order to reduce the incidence of these errors most effectively. Refer to Table 4 for details.

Overall, the study has laid important foundations for enhancing our students' IELTS writing test preparation. Further developments should focus on varying the approach to predictive testing according to the type of error, as detailed in Table 3. We also need to test the effectiveness of our bank of learning objects to determine their value compared with a traditional one-size-fits-all teacher-led classroom session.

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Ka Yu Kelvin Chong & Marie Durand

University of Arizona, Tucson, United States
Paris 8 University, Paris, France

chongk@email.arizona.edu

Investigating the effectiveness of a post-task transcription activity on focusing on form

Bio data

Kelvin Chong is currently a PhD student in SLAT at the University of Arizona (UA), USA. His primary research area is the tip-of-the tongue phenomenon, and bilingualism. His secondary interests are the interface between TBLT and CALL. Mr. Chong was a former teacher of English at the Chinese University of Hong Kong, responsible for academic writing, local target-oriented curriculum, workplace English, and IELTS.

Current research

My current research is situated in the interface between TBLT and CALL. I am interested in exploring the potential synergy between CALL and TBLT, in particular how TBLT can be mediated by technology in the implementation phase to achieve maximized learning outcomes in foreign for speakers of English as a second or language. Following Skehan's work, I take a cognitive approach in examining online communication of non-native speakers of English and appraise their performance based on the CAF framework (i.e., complexity, accuracy, fluency). I am interested in exploring how post-task consciousness-raising activities can free attentional resources from focusing on meaning (fluency) to focusing on form (FonF): accuracy in particular and plausibly complexity.

Recently, through Skype and Facebook, I have been gathering data from three Chinese learners of English from different parts of the world outside the US. I hope to tighten the gap between TBLT theories and practice in CALL and TBLT. A considerable amount of knowledge has been trapped in the ivory tower, and it has not been realized in daily teaching practices to impart effective learning in the evolving contexts both inside and outside the classroom. Yet, an impetus for realizing TBLT theories is CALL. Currently, with the on-going technological advancements in cell phones and handy devices, 50% of the communication is now achieved through digital media. This has brought in not only immense pedagogical convenience (e.g., easy access of culturally-based materials of images, video clips, and songs from the Internet) but also many research potentials with easy self-monitoring devices (audio-recording function on a cellphone).

Task design & language learning and teaching

This presentation details a Skype-mediated case study of a 20-year-old Chinese learner of English in London, finishing twelve performances of narrative tasks over a two month period. Over the past three decades, communicative approach (CA) has become a dominant pedagogy, which emphasizes fluency over complexity and accuracy, and consequently results in strategies, e.g., elliptical communication, to foster meaning. This, however sacrifices the "window of opportunity" to develop learners' interlanguage (Lightbown, 1998; DeKeyser 1998). Other than the potential problem of meaning-focused instruction, in traditional structure-drilling pedagogy, teachers often have the unrealistic expectation that learners will be able to internalize the taught language

structures easily and immediately through grammatical instruction. However, empirical evidence found in many psychological works has suggested otherwise (e.g., non-linear developmental stages, as evidenced in backsliding and U-shaped learning (see Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Long & Robinson, 1998). To remedy the lack of attention paid to form (Skehan, 1998) in a tight teaching schedule, a post-task transcription activity outside the classroom may provide a plausible pedagogical intervention to embark on a FonF on learners in a post-task phase. Here, meaning primacy of the task has already been achieved in the during-task phase, and is assumed to be carried over to the transcription activity (Li, 2014), where learners edit their oral output with attentional resources made available on form. There has been remarkable success in raising structural complexity through dialogic tasks and tasks that require outcome justifications (Skehan, 2003), and in raising lexical diversity through online and strategic planning. However, a rise in accuracy is rare (some effect found in structured tasks with familiar information). Similarly, there is little evidence for a positive correlation between accuracy and complexity (see Foster & Tavakoli, 2009 for the exceptional finding; and Robinson, 2006 for Cognition Hypothesis). There are multiple objectives of this study: 1) is the post-task transcription activity desirable to promote FonF--an essential catalyst in second language acquisition?; 2) If so, what are the likely structures to be noticed?; 3) is a carry-over effect of higher language awareness in accuracy from the transcription activity to the subsequent narrative task, which can be taken as a positive effect on the underlying interlanguage, leading to SLA?; 4) what are some possible pedagogical and technological challenges for a transcription task to be implemented? The implementation of each task phase comprised of four steps: 1) the participant's summarizing twelve different short silent cartoon video clips on Youtube; 2) the participant's transcribing her recorded speeches on a word document; 3) following the transcription, the participant's editing of the transcript; and 4) interviews at the end. This study sheds light on the implication of the potential synergy technology brings to TBLT. The convenient recording and easy editing function of MICROSOFT WORD led to noticing of gap between the learner's interlanguage and the target language, as evidenced in self-correcting of particular structural errors in morphosyntax in the learner's edited transcript of the narrative task, despite the absence of an overall increase in accuracy over the twelve performances.

Short paper

Introduction

The advent of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (Savignon & Bern, 1984; Littlewood, 1981; Larsen-Freeman, 1986; Gerngross & Puchta, 1984; Berns, 1984) has influenced Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT). TBLT is an approach to teaching a second language (L2) that seeks to engage learners in authentic language use by having them to perform tasks that are contextualized in real life (Skehan, 1998). It aims to enable learners to acquire new linguistic knowledge and proceduralize their existing knowledge that is possibly applicable in a certain vocational domain or in a specific social context in the future. Due to its encompassing research possibilities and actual eclectic forms of task in the classroom, TBLT has then become a popular arena and testing area for pedagogical, assessment and research purposes. The use of TBLT has been widely observed in classroom (Thornbury, 1997; Samuda, 2001; Lynch, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000). Task performances, e.g., accuracy, fluency, complexity and vocabulary, have also been widely measured using an array of measures in laboratory settings (Skehan, 1998). Yet, not much research has been done in regards to how accuracy in speaking could be improved. In this paper, a specific type of post-task activity, namely post task transcription, is investigated in relation to its effectiveness in improving a Chinese English learner's accuracy in speaking. This case study on a 20-year-old Chinese speaker consists of four stages: 1) watching while making notes of a series of silent Mr. Bean cartoon clips, 2) summarizing the story in the learner's own words, 3) doing a post-task transcription activity on a Word document with a computer; and 4) correcting her own

spoken errors of the transcriptions. These four stages respectively generated a set of data: 1) notes, 2) audio recordings of the retelling of the stories; 3) non-edited transcription of the recording; and 4) the edited transcription. The aim is to investigate the effectiveness of the post-task activity in improving the learner's accuracy in speaking, in combination with the story retelling main task. Due to the page limit, Chapters 1.1 to 1.3 will be abridged and put in the appendix area. For the concepts of Task-based language teaching (TBLT) and focus on form (FonF), please refer to Appendix 8.

Why TBLT? History of TBLT

The traditional viewpoint of learning assumes learning would only take place after information is presented in a clear manner, followed by drilling and eventually the mastery of the skills to be applied and produced in a generalizable context, i.e., presentation, practice and production (P-P-P) approach. However, this kind of perspective ignores "the non-linear developmental stages" (Long & Robinson, 1998; Ellis, 1994; 2008). Whitehead (1947, 218-219) pointed out aptly that:

"This discussion rejects the doctrine that students should first learn passively and then apply knowledge of what has been learned. in fact, the applications are part of knowledge. For the very meaning of things known is wrapped up in their relationships beyond themselves."

This is exactly the central theme of the significant aspect of experiential learning in TBLT. Learning is doing. Doing is learning. Acquiring a language is using the language whereas using a language is acquiring a language.

With a growing understanding of second language acquisition in the midst of dissatisfaction in conventional linguistically-based syllabi, pedagogues and researchers have witnessed a shift in epistemic understanding of language acquisition and instruction from a forms-focused instructional approach (e.g. grammar translation) to a meaning-oriented approach (e.g., communicative approach- CA).

Language teachers are in need of a more eclectic approach that consists of tasks that are both meaningful and genuine in our everyday life. If the learning tasks are meaningful and genuine, it is more likely that the language gain will come naturally, and the knowledge and skills will be reused and retained in the future.

What is a Task? What TBLT is not?

A task is defined by Nunan (1993) as "a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or integrating in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (p.59). Generally, a task is meaning-oriented, communicative in nature and outcome-based assessed. It has a real-world need. Skehan (1998) gives a list of examples of tasks. E.g., completing one another's family tree (i.e., information-filling task); agreeing on advice to give the writer of a letter to an agony aunt (i.e., discussion task); solving a riddle; leaving a message on someone's answering machine and a story retelling task (i.e. narrative task). Skehan (1998) summarized that a task should contain the first five of the following criteria list (C1-C5), and I propose to add another one C6 as follows: Chart 1: Task Criteria (Skehan, 1998)

- C1 – meaning is primary;
- C2 – the activity/task is outcome-evaluated;
- C3 – there is a real-world relationship.
- C4 – there is some communicative problem to solve
- C5 – task priority is completion of task;
- (C6- the freedom to use whatever linguistic forms)

A task involves a primary focus on meaning. The priority for TBLT is to express the meaning through using language in such a way that can help the learner to complete a task. The task is also done and evaluated in terms of outcome. By real world relationship, it means the task should bear an authentic relationship to everyday activities. Generally, tasks have the advantage of authenticity, accompanied by an increasing motivation for learners to finish a task. As a result, language is therefore used as a tool and learned naturally rather than being studied as an object. Learners are more motivated to learn a language by problem solving. I propose C6 – the freedom to use whatever linguistic forms that learners feel best fit the need according to the meaning. By freedom to choose the linguistic resources needed to complete the task, learners are not restricted in their use of language forms. It should be noted that TBLT is not exactly the same as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Although they overlap in most circumstances and are compatible in the end, the philosophy of TBLT distinguishes itself from. CLT activities do not have to have a connection to daily life, and the activities could be as vague as simply making conversations, e.g., "Talk about your summer vacation". Even in such a case as providing a list of words for students to speak randomly for one minute, it should not be regarded as a genuine task if the strong TBLT stance is taken – the activity is not genuine and have little chance of application in the real life. Instead, providing the learner with some planning time for brainstorming phrases that is likely to be used in answering questions for another student playing the role as a visitor is more qualified as a genuine task. It should be noted that the activity should be understood as 'tasks' and not be confused with 'exercise'. The following are some differences between the two based on the proposal by Skehan (1998):

TABLE 1: Comparison between Exercise and Task (Skehan,1998)

	Exercise	Task
Orientation	Linguistic skills viewed as prerequisite for learning communicative abilities.	Linguistics skills are developed through engaging in communicative activities.
Focus	Linguistic form and semantic meaning ('focus on FormS'vii)	Propositional content and pragmatic communicative meaning ('focus on meaning')
Goal	Manifestation of code knowledge.	Achievement of communicative goal.
Outcome-evaluation	Performance assessed in terms of conformity to the prescribed codes.	Performance evaluated in terms of communicative goals
Real-world-relationship	Internalization of linguistic skills serves as an investment for future use.	There is a direct and obvious relationship between the activity that arises from the task and natural communicative activity.

Two different perspective of TBLT

Ellis (2009) proposes a dichotomy of TBLT, which can be classified into two distinct conceptual frameworks, namely psycholinguistic perspective and socio-cultural theory. The former draws on a computational model (Lantolf, 1996). Tasks are seen as an opportunity to provide the data needed for learning and how their attention is manipulated to react to it by careful research of the design of tasks. According to this perspective, learner factors are not very relevant, and their responses and performances in the tasks are not unpredictable, including a "silhouette" use of specific language forms. (For more details of different models, see Long's Interaction Model (1991), Skehan's cognitive approach (1998) and Yule's (1997) framework of communicative efficiency.) Psycholinguistic approach posits that learners co-construct the activity that they engage in when performing a task, in their own, leading to impossibility to predict learners' responses. Psycholinguistic approach puts emphasis on task variables whereas sociocultural approach emphasizes the learner's factors.

Why FonF?

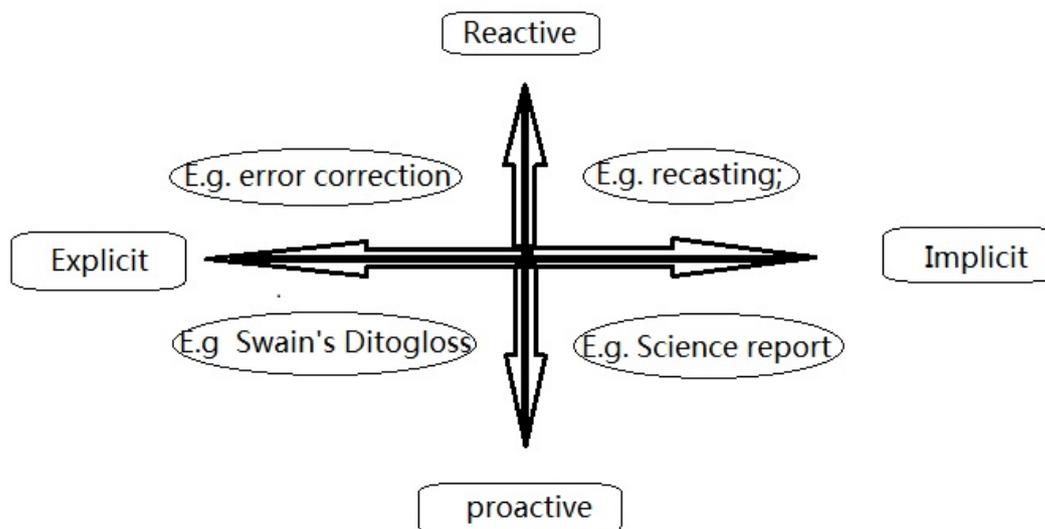
Since communication is the primary goal, grammar may be sacrificed to lower the cognitive load in production (See Skehan, 1998 for Trade-off effect). The result of exercising communicative strategy is the ubiquitous production of elliptical and incomplete sentences to express truncated meaning. Skehan & Foster (2001) suggests that the lessened cognitive load is with a cost in that the escaped and overlooked language parts could be essential for inter-language development, and the truncated shallow processing may lead to fossilization of certain forms. In view of the insufficiencies of communicative tasks, FonF is a remedy for the potential problems in TBLT (Bygate, Shehan & Swain, 2001, Doughty & Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005; Fotos & Nassaji, 2007; Gracia Mayo, 2007; Norris & Ortega, 2000, Skehan, 1998, 2003, Skehan & Foster, 2001; Willis, 1996, Willis & Willis, 2007). As noted by Skehan, FonF is essential in the course of task performance:

"It may not be possible to rely on a task-based approach to automatically drive interlanguage forward....it is necessary, if task-based approaches to instruction are to be viable, to devise methods of focus on form without losing the value of tasks as realistic communicative motivators, and as opportunities to trigger acquisitional processes." (1996, p42).

There are different tasks that can promote FonF. Catherine Doughty (1998) out forth the dichotomies within different forms of FonF as follows.

I) reactive - proactive FonF

II) implicit - explicit FonF



The diagram I composed above shows the different continuums of FonF. A story retelling task, coupled with a post-task transcription activity falls into the categories of implicit and reactive FonF. In the story retelling part, the learner needs to produce natural and genuine language output. If attention is limited, focus on meaning would be inevitably necessary and attention-jerking. When the learner revisits their production, transcribes and edits the work to make it visible, the learner is more likely to free up attentional resources and focus on form, as the attention to meaning was already given in the previous story retelling task. As a result, the competition between form and meaning is lessened. Also, during the transcription and editing stage, the time constraint was not imposed. More working time may also allow a further shift from focus on meaning to

focus on form. So far, there hasn't been much research done on post-task transcription activities in regards to accuracy.

Why FonF matters in Transcription Activity?

The transcription activity in combination with a story retelling task can be conceptualized around the competence- performance dichotomy (Chomsky, 1965, p.4). Although the discussion of this dichotomy is well-documented in both L1 and L2 areas of study (e.g., Chipere, 2003; Hymes, 1972; McNamara, 1995; Sorace, 2003; Tarone, 1983; Taylor, 1988), it is not of much value and interest to applied linguists since psycholinguists are interested in language processing, which the competence-performance research leaves out. Labov and others have shown that it is wrong to assume that whatever that language performance and processing is not systematic cannot be studied. One of the distinction between competence and performance is that errors are systematic or not. Systematic errors would be pertinent to competence; unsystematic errors would be understood as slips and fall under the category of performance. Corder (1967) made the distinction between slips (i.e., accidental mistakes) and errors (i.e., systematically incorrect elements of the learner's current interlanguage), and expect that a learner will only be able to notice slips but not errors that derive from the insufficient linguistic competence^{viii}. For that matter, Lynch (2007), following Vygotskyan's philosophy that learners need scaffolding, includes pair-work of editing transcripts so that learners can discuss speech errors among themselves and contribute to the zone of proximal development. However, I believe the merit of transcription tasks is not only limited to the possibility of providing paired scaffolding on visible output. It also gives a chance for individual learners to revisit their language for FonF as the attention was limited in the previous stages of online processing, especially under a huge time constraint. Given more time, learners should be able to spot the problematic slips, even though they may not be able to correct themselves.

Task variables, such as planning time, task repetition, knowledge of subsequent post-task could all influence accuracy and complexity.

TABLE 2: The manipulation of different variables in relation to the effects on performance (Long, 2003)

Task variables	Effects
Planning time	Results in greater complexity and sometimes, greater accuracy
Task repetition	Results in higher complexity
Knowledge of a post-task	Results in higher accuracy

Method

Participant

One Chinese English learner, who was studying Fashion, Design and Communication at London Fashion College, participated in this study. The participant, pseudonamed Jasmine, aged 20, is originally from the Northern part of the mainland China. She started learning English as a foreign language when she was in China since 10 from third grade. She studied in the south west of USA for a year before she went to London. She took the TOEFL three years before the study took place. She also took the IELTS at the time of the experiment and had an overall band score of 6.5 as her highest score, which would mean she had an intermediate high proficiency. ix.

Procedures

This study is comprised of ten sessions of story retelling task, each coupled with a post-task transcription activity over a month-long period. The study was conducted via Skype video conferencing between the participant in London and the researcher in Tucson. When the Skype conference began, the researcher called the participant and embarked a 5 to 10 minute conversation about life in London as a warm-up. For each session, the participant first watched a nine-minute clip of one silent Youtube Mr. Bean cartoon

episode, while making notes. She then audio-recorded herself while summarizing the story in her own words. She finally did a post-task transcription activity on a Word document on a computer, which further broke down into two parts: first, she transcribed verbatim as closely as possible to what she heard from the recordings; then she made minimal changes to correct her own transcription. She was told to use brackets and arrows to highlight any changes (See Appendix 1 for the participant's edited transcript). Before and after each session, the participant would be interviewed for different purposes. Before the task, the researcher would check if she had watched the clip before. All the clips used in this study had not been previously watched by the participant. After retelling the story and before transcribing her speech, she was interviewed about the difficulties in understanding the clip as well as the difficulties in retelling the story. These four stages respectively generated data of 1) her notes jotted down while watching each of the clip, 2) her recorded speeches of retelling ten Mr. Bean's stories as well as the student's two types of transcriptions: 3) non-edited and 4) edited transcriptions for each story. While her notes were only supplementary for the current scope of investigation, the comparison of the two types of transcription makes up the data source for measuring 1) accuracy rates, 2) students spotted error rates, 3) unwarranted correction rates and 4) types of extended modifications. As part of a future longitudinal study, the error types were categorized according to the participant's inter-language but they are not being discussed in detail at this point. In addition, qualitative data from interviews, surveys and recordings of the feedback given after the task were gathered.

Flowchart for each session:

The participant briefly conversed about life during the past week --> checked if she had watched the clip before --> watched the clip and jotted down notes --> (planning time of 0 min/1 min/ 3mins) Retelling task --> Post speaking task interview --> transcription --> editing the transcription --> submission of the transcripts by emailing to the researcher --> post -transcription interview

At the end of the 12 sessions, there was a survey to gather written feedback from the participant.

Materials

The first pilot study included the selection of appropriate narrative and interactive tasks to check if they were of comparable degree of task difficulty. The narrative tasks are story retelling tasks, in which a nine minute video clip of Mr. Bean Cartoons on Youtube was used. The interactive tasks are discussion tasks, in which participants discussed several problematic issues for possible solutions.

Criteria for selection were set such as, 1) no unique cultural background is required to understand; 2) no more than 4 main characters in each story; 3) no conversation longer than three words so that no pressure on comprehension is added; 4) about the same length (10 - 11 minutes). Out of the 20 episodes, three were selected.

Research Statement:

The goal of this study is to explore the potential benefits and difficulties in implementing a task in a distance-learning context. By drawing on both cognitive and socio-cultural theories of L2 acquisition, the study would inform and explain the processes of language production to the future researchers and teachers, who are interested in TBLT research situated in SLA.

Research Question:

1. The study is oriented around the following questions:
2. Is there any carry-on effectx of a transcription task to a later stage of task performance within the 12 sessions?

3. What are the potential factors that may affect language accuracy (e.g. time pressure, repetitions and task difficulty)?
4. Is the learner consistent in the way of writing and editing her transcription throughout the whole study?
5. Is the post-task transcription task a desirable activity to promote FonF, which is essential in second language acquisition?
6. What are some noticed challenges for a transcription task to be implemented in a distance-learning environment?

What to be measured in task performance:

The successful completion of tasks is not only assisted by focusing on meaning but also focus on form. Because of the "bivalent" component of tasks, it is often not easy to gauge how much of language is necessary for a successful completion of a task. Another problem is that mere focus on the completion of tasks does not necessarily lead to more detailed focus on language, especially if those language forms are not loaded with meaning. For example, the tense conjugation is not meaning-laden and it can be made with an adverbial phrases. (e.g. Yesterday, he *go home late). A learner who retells a story in wrong tenses does not necessarily fail the task. As regards the story retelling of this study, the criterion is that as long as a student conveys meaning of a story by describing some problems, and how they are solved, and by telling some sort of structure of a story: (scene setting, story development, climax, ending), the task should be regarded as fulfilled. Still, the main focus of the study is on how good the language used is. Li (2008), following the measuring units adopted by Foster, Tonkyn and Wigglesworth (2000). used a cognitive framework to measure oral performance with the aspects of 1) fluency, 2) accuracy, 3) complexity, and recently 4) the lexical aspects of performance (Also, see Forster & Skehan, 1996; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 1998; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 1999, 2005; Yuan& Ellis, 2003).

Measures of Performance

These six measurements are defined as follows, based on the definitions of Skehan's terms (1996; 1998).

Chart 3: Performance Measures (Skehan, 1996, 1998)

- Fluency: The online production of language without undue hesitation or pausing
- Complexity: Willingness to try to push interlanguage forward to reach cutting edge and more elaborated structures
- Accuracy: How well the language is produced without errors.
- Lexical measurement can be understood as lexical complexity and lexical richness.
- Lexical complexity means range [variation] plus size [sophistication]) (Wolfe-Quintero et al 1991).
- Lexical richness means lexical diversity (variety of vocabulary Malvern & Richards, 2002), lexical sophistication (number of low frequency words) and lexical density (the ratio of content and function words) (Daller et al (2007)

For the sake of a focused scope here, I will limit my investigation to accuracy only. I will first talk about how accuracy is usually measured in TBLT research before introducing my own part.

Accuracy

Accuracy measures the error-free proportion at different clause lengths (i.e. three-word, four-word clauses, and so on). Errors are defined as any deviation from the standards in terms of morpho-syntactic and lexical aspects (Li, 2008). With a cut-off criterion level set

at, say 50%, 60%, and 70%, below which participants are deemed as not being able to produce accurate clauses. Li (2008) takes these accuracy measure steps collectively: 1) error-free clause ratio is calculated by "dividing the number of error-free clauses by the total number of clauses without the interference of AS-unit segmentation"; 2) the error-free clause ratio is further calculated in different clause lengths; 3) a 70% criterion was adopted in her study; 4) errors per 100 words is counted. In contrast, in the current study, accuracy encompasses a few constructs separately. In view of the lack of consensus in measuring accuracy, a different set of constructs was used to capture a more comprehensive picture. The quantitative measurement is complicated. In terms of accuracy, the measurements include the student's spotted error rate, the unwarranted correction rate, and wrong correction which were defined below (Also See Appendix 2).

Chart 4: The measures of accuracy in this study:

- 'The Student Spotted Error Rate' is defined as the proportion of student's spotted errors to the researcher's spotted errors.
- 'The Accuracy Rate' is the proportion of number of correct clauses and subordinate clause to the total number of clauses.
- 'The Unwarranted Correction Rate' is the number of non-obligatory corrections (i.e., unnecessary correction) divided by the total number of correction made
- 'The Wrong Correction Rate' is the number of failed attempts that are made towards obligatory changes, divided by the number of corrections.

Results

The results are put in Table 3 below. We will need to come back to this table frequently when we get to discussion, limitation and conclusion.

Table 3: The Results of the Eight Sessions

Titles of the clips	Planning time	Self-rated Task difficulty (1, easiest; 4 hardest)	Student spotted rates = Students spotted errors/ Total no. of errors (=SO/[SO+T])	Accuracy =No. of correct clauses/ Total no. of clauses	Unwarranted correction rate = number of non-obligatory corrections / total number of changes made	Other remarks: unpredicted variables
1 Dead Cat	0 mins	1	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A
2 Nurse	3 mins	3	55%(11/20)	59%(29/49)	48% (10/21)	N.A
3 Car Trouble	1 min	1	68%(11/16)	72%(42/58)	45% (9/20)	N.A
4 Wanted	1 min	2	35%(7/20)	72%(52/72)	71% (17/24)	14 out 24 changes are extended changes.
5 A running battle	3 mins	4	56% (15/27)	61% (44/71)	40% (10/25)	N.A
6 Serious Toothache	1 min	3	44% (11/25)	42% (18/43)	45% (9/20)	N.A
7 Hot Date	3 mins	1	NA	NA	NA	N.A
8 Cat Sitting	3 mins	3	NA	NA	NA	N.A
9 Teddy's Birthday	1 min	2	NA	NA	NA	Teacher's feedback was given
10 Big TV	0	4	25% (7/24)	70%(56/80)	0% (0/7)	Student wrote out the story after verbally retell the story and before transcribing. Student opted to watch the clip again for 2 minutes before writing out the story.
11 Young Mr. Bean	0	4	19% (4/21)	71%(52/73)	0% (0/4)	Student did not watch the clip again.
12 Dinner for two	0	4	59% (10/17)	79% (65/82)	50% (9/18)	Student did not watch the clip again

(See Appendix 2 for the coding and how the error rates are calculated.)

Discussion

The data for the first session were discarded as that mainly served as a practice session for the subsequent ones. The data from the 6th to the 8th sessions have not been analyzed in time before the submission of this paper. Therefore, the analyzed data only came from the remaining eight sessions. The accuracy rates in these sessions ranged between 42% and 79%, with more than half of the times higher than 70%, which just meet the set criterion, meaning in those sessions, the learner produced marginally accurate clauses. Back to the first research question: Is there any carry-on effect, the answer doesn't seem to be very positive as the accuracy rate doesn't improve beyond the

plateau at 70%. However, the conclusion that there is no carry-on effect is just tentative and it would need more data to arrive at any solid conclusion. Also, considered the ambiguous findings on the accuracy and unstable number of changes made, other quantitative measures (e.g., error types, and types of changes) should be useful. The unwarranted correction rate reflects how frequent the participant made the unnecessary or wrong changes. The lower the number, the more accurate the overall changes are. Put it in another way, if the learner made substantial changes, or overcorrected herself in the transcription activity, the denominator of the equation would get bigger, leading to a higher number of non-obligatory changes, resulting in a higher rate of unwarranted corrections.

The fourth task recorded a much a higher unwarranted correction rate (i.e. 71%), both on lexico-morphosyntactic changes and on a sentential level. For most cases, the morpho-syntactic changes are done by single-word replacements, single-word deletions, or single-word insertions, whereas the long changes are done with "extended modifications", which are longer than four words in the relevant part of the transcript before or after the editing. This led the researcher to come up with this term called "extended modifications" to gauge the lengthy changes in those instances, and is further analyzed by categorizing them into "deletions", "replacements", "insertions", and "complex change" in the brackets {...}. "Deletions" and "Insertions" are self-explanatory, whereas "replacements" mean "deletions" and "insertions" happened at the same time. "Complex changes" are those that contain more than one kind of change, e.g., deletion plus insertion. If the modification is composed of several clauses, it would be counted on multiple modifications. The reason for distinguishing extended changes from single-word changes is that if they are not treated separately, a significant part of the data would be ignored as extended modifications are usually non-obligatory and thus not counted. For instance, in the fourth transcript as follows:

*"Mr. B was getting mad (when he knew the prisoner escaped from the jail
{INSERTION})".*

It is hard to categorize these extended changes. These are cases where such changes are usually not done on lexico-morphosyntax but to make the meaning more complete by providing more details. They are likely to be non-obligatory changes and are counted as unwarranted changes.

Table 4: Types of Extended Change in 4th Transcript

Types of extended changes	No. of extended changes
Insertion	4
Deletions	0
Replacements	2
Complex modifications	8
Total	14

It seems that the participant was stretching over with her interlanguage in making these extended changes. 8 out of 14 changes are complex changes, These 14 extended changes made up of almost 60% out of the total 24 changes in that session. This extended way of editing didn't last long as the participant learned to limit herself later on. Towards the last two sessions, 10th and 11th clips, there was no unwarranted changes recorded, and it should be noted that the total numbers of changes made by the participant were also low. These low rates come with a cost. They led to extremely low error spotted rates in return (i.e., 19% and 25%). In those cases, by and large, the total number of errors does not change much but the spotted errors were much fewer. No compelling reason could be given at this point. Maybe, the student did not put enough time in proofreading. Maybe, the student was simply experimenting different styles of correction. Yet, one thing is sure. To answer the third research question, even within one participant, she did not maintain a consistent way of editing her transcription, which may also be normal in a learning process. It is believed that the transcribing activity will end in "an extended version of the monitoring behavior (i.e. output searching and checking)" which is likely to promote automatization of L2 speaking skills (Bygate, 1998). It is not very clear whether the noticing and correction of language form will result in a more long-term restructuring of interlanguage. This needs longitudinal evidence to gauge the learning progress. However, a longitudinal study would have to minimize the random variables that are likely to complicate the study.

For the level of difficulty for the task, the student reported that "Dinner for Two", "Young Mr Bean" and "Running Battle" were the most difficult. These were given as the highest score of 4 out of 4. The participant explained that the level of details exceeded her limited descriptive vocabulary repertoire as she commented in a written feedback survey at the end of the 12 sessions:

"First, grammar problems that I used to mix up he/she, and past tense and present tense. Second, some action words that I didn't know in English. Other than that, sometimes, I detailed the story which wasn't that important. Third, when I checked my notes which were not quite organised that a few detail on it. I didn't get what I wrote."

The participant also said the second clip, Nurse, was relatively harder because she lacked some appropriate words to describe what was happening in the context of the story, i.e., the hospital. She expressed in Chinese that she lacked vocabulary, such as waiting room, emergency room, and thermometer, so it was impossible for her to describe concretely what was going on in the story. This left her with the strategy of equivocation, e.g., an hospital car to mean ambulance; a room in replace of emergency room or waiting room; a temperature measurement instead of a thermometer. The failures in using these necessary words were in fact counted as lexical errors. As for the challenges with grammar, she noted that she just forgot some rules when she was processing her speech. Though the sessions noted with higher difficulty level do not result in lower accuracy (three out of four most difficult sessions are higher than 70%), it may be more ideal to separate the concept of learner's perceived difficulty and the learner's anticipation of the performance. If we relate difficulty to task complexity, then we could run into the debate whether more complex tasks would result in more accurate performance (Robinson, 2011) or less accurate performance (c.f. Skehan, 1998). Based on what we have here, it seems to suggest that there was not much competition going on, as the most difficult tasks did not result in lower accuracy. An extra question could have been asked. If we asked the participant whether she anticipated poorer results in those instances, and if she said no, and if indeed there is no correlation between task complexity and performance, then task complexity may not play a role in reducing the accuracy of the performance. In contrast with Robinson's hypothesis, Skehan's model is drawn based on the nature of limited attention in language processing (See Skehan, 1998). It states that a scarcity of attentional resources result from a competition between meaning and form. Therefore, it follows that when the time pressure was high,

the learner would fail to simultaneously process both meaning and form. However, when it was lessened during the transcription activity, she would be able to fix the loosened grammar that was not safe-guarded by what Krashen called language Monitor. As a question in the survey asked: what do you think will help you to better perform the task?

"Well, i think I feel more comfortable when i type out. because i have enough time to check my grammar and organise my content. at my uni, I did more writing works than i spoke or discussed with my classmate. this is another reason that i'd like to type out."

For example, she could almost fix all the irregular verb inflections that were not in agreement or in the right tenses, say by changing "steal" to "stole".

This participant's comments also suggest that vocabulary has a large role to play in the level of difficulty, which is largely determined by the learner's familiarity of certain vocabulary that would be needed to describe the details of the scene set in the story. If the learner lacks the needed vocabulary for the task, considerable attention would be drawn predominantly to lexicon, resulting in noticeable struggling with conveying meaning with the right words. Two pedagogical implications follow. One, some pedagogical interventions on teaching certain words may seem necessary before the learner does the main story retelling task. Two, a predominant focus on meaning with insufficient lexicon may hinder focusing on form. Nevertheless, the accuracy in relation to vocabulary done by focusing on proper meaning is prior to the accuracy achieved by focusing on form. Therefore, for difficult tasks/topics, it is advisable that the learner be given extra time to formulate the content with the right words, before putting them together in sentences. It should also be noted that those sessions where the learner felt the most difficult with were the ones that were not given any planning time. So, perhaps there is some correlation between planning time and the perceived difficulty of the story, which may not necessarily be intrinsic to the task or the topic. In other words, if planning time was given, the perceived difficulty could possibly be lower. Perhaps, the learner could have come up with better words to describe those unfamiliar contexts. The second research question was not satisfactorily answered due to insufficient data.

There were too many factors to control (e.g., planning time, task complexity, perceived difficulty and their interaction). In language production, even in the case of a story retelling task, the language output is not easy to be predicted. Native speakers could be invited to participate and comment on the levels of difficulty.

In the future research, the design should involve an investigation of the interaction between task complexity, perceived difficulty and planning time by having more sessions. Unlike Lynch's (2007) study, in which the participants did the same negotiation task again in Lesson 3 and in Week 6 after they first did that, this cases study is comprised of different sessions of totally different content varying across different stories. This led to difficulty in comparing the exact error tokens. In the future, we could limit the clips to be three minutes by chopping one into three. We could also reuse those clips by adding another variable of task repetition in addition to planning time. In addition, future research could be done by having the student to describe the exact same clips and then compare the types of error and whether those errors are corrected or repeated in the next round of tasks.

Finally, the student spotted error rates fluctuate quite drastically from 19% to 68%. As just mentioned, the low rates are mainly a result of fewer changes made overall. But if excluding those two different instances, the participant spotted errors at a somewhat half-half successful rate. This is a pretty ambiguous finding as it suggests that the learner can partially correct herself. Though not substantial, more than half of the errors could be spotted by the learner herself, which suggests that the transcription activity did successfully lead to FonF for at least 50% of errors. These errors are mainly irregular

verb tenses and wrong use of nouns, which are pretty salient in form and meaning. However, there are some errors that she might not be able to notice and correct. By qualitative analysis (see the Appendix 3 and Appendix 7 for the types of errors made), those errors are more subtle, such as determiners and regular verb tenses, which are less salient in form and meaning. Therefore, not all FonF might happen just on the learner's own. For those errors that she could not possibly correct by herself, which (Corder would call true errors, not slips), she would need more scaffolding and explicit feedback from others. To answer the fourth question of this study, this post-task transcription activity did seem to promote FonF on 50% of those errors, which are more salient in form and meaning (wrong use of noun more readily corrected than the wrong use of verb; irregular verbs more likely to be corrected than regular verbs). However, this also suggests that mere calculation of accuracy is not sufficient, and investigating interlanguage is crucial to inform pedagogy. Researchers and teachers also need to know what exact language forms that learners are struggling with.

Conclusion

There are several important implications deriving from this study. First, the transcription activity, if exploited to the full, is very time consuming and probably not practical to be a regular activity at school. If the goal is clearer and limited to the classroom context, it could have some merits to act as a diagnostic task to inform the learner, say, at the beginning of the semester. Also, there are many errors that cannot be described by simple categories, for example, redundancy and ambiguity. This adds to the unwanted variable of inter-rater reliability.

Also, the analysis unit based on clauses and sub-clauses can be problematic as well. When there were more than one error in one clause, say two errors in one clause, the clause was split into two units and counted as two "clauses" for convenience. Criticism can also be made as to why clauses are the basic unit of analysis but not any smaller units, such as phrases and words. The longer the unit, the more random variables. Some sub-clauses can be as short as three or four words, while others can be as long as fifteen words. It may be possible that with more statistical measurements, the average length of clause can be calculated and the extremes could be excluded or counterbalanced.

Another limitation is that the participant did not put all the changes in brackets, leading to the difficulty of recognizing whether the changes are due to mishearing, mistyping or forgetting to put brackets around the changes. In those cases, non-obligatory changes would be ignored and not counted as unwarranted changes, but obligatory changes were counted in 'the error spot rate'. This may raise the problem of double-standard.

The biggest limitation seems to be that even if a participant could achieve 100% accuracy, it does not necessarily mean the quality is perfect. Accuracy doesn't mean everything. To achieve high accuracy, a learner could use very simple sentences (i.e. low complexity) and pause a lot or to self correct (low fluency). This explains why we would need to measure the three areas of oral performance in order to get a more comprehensive picture. In addition, accuracy alone says nothing about meaning and appropriateness of language. For instance, in session three -- Car Trouble, the participant talked about Mr. Bean after a car accident, rejecting the mechanic's suggestion on destroying the wrecked car, and then she went on to say that he bought a bunch of flowers but she did not mention why Mr. Bean would do so. It would be hard to follow what she described about the story if the audience has not watched the clip Mr. Bean was grieving over the death of his baby car and bought flowers for her as a token of attribution as if it was his girlfriend, who died. Another similar problem happened after that scene when she described after Mr. Bean left, the car seller (she actually meant the car mechanic) found the car was still good. In fact, what happened in the story was that the mechanic was cheating Mr. Bean into selling his car at a low price and then fixed it for sale to make profits. These examples did suggest the need for a closer look at how

the story plot is developed by the participant. There are other aspects of language that probably should be examined as well, such as coherence and organization.

In view of these problems, more in-depth and timely questions should be asked in the interview sessions to test these missing links of content. For example, the participants could be asked questions such as "Why would Mr. Bean buy flowers for his car?"; "How come the car mechanic did not check carefully whether the car is fixable before Mr. Bean left?" This will extend the independent task of story retelling to negotiation of meaning through scaffolding between the researcher and the participant, or even between two participants in class. One student watches the clip and retell the story to another student, who hasn't watched the clip. For any unclear part of the story, the student could ask each other to explain and elaborate on. These areas are usually where the student is missing vocabulary to describe in detail. Through another student's input, the student is more likely to extend their zone of proximal development.

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Dorothy Chun* & Anna Turula**

University of California, Santa Barbara, United States*
Pedagogical University, Cracow, Poland**

dchun@education.ucsb.edu - anna.turula@gmail.com

Cognitive and social presence in task-based telecollaboration

Bio data

Dorothy M. Chun is Professor of Applied Linguistics and Education at the University of California, Santa Barbara. Her research areas include: L2 phonology and intonation, L2 reading and vocabulary acquisition, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and telecollaboration for intercultural learning. She edits the journal *Language Learning & Technology*.

Anna Turula is Professor of Applied Linguistics at the Pedagogical University of Krakow, Poland. Her research interests include: computer-assisted language learning and TEFL teacher training, classroom dynamics, cognitive factors in language learning. She is the proponent and organiser of the PL-CALL conference.

Current research

Our paper reports on an intercultural exchange which took place in January-March 2015 between a class of MA students in the English Department of the Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland and a graduate class in Technology and Second Language Acquisition at the University of California, Santa Barbara in the US. During the telecollaboration, the students performed two types of online activities. The first type was based on the Cultura model, and all students were asked to respond to questionnaires on Word Associations, Sentence Completions and Reactions to Situations. The results of these questionnaires were compiled in two columns, one column for the responses of the students in California and the other column for the Cracow students' responses. In small groups consisting of a mix of 5-6 students from both classes, they discussed these results in online forums. Simultaneously, they worked in small groups within their respective classes and devised language learning tasks that they presented to their partners (task-based model). The Polish students executed the tasks designed by the students in the US, and vice versa, and each group provided feedback to their partners regarding task design.

Task-based language learning and teaching

For our conference paper, the main focus is on the task that the students are supposed to design and share (their task) as well as on the task that they complete and evaluate (their partners' task). In particular, we investigated the following processes:

- how to effectively design online tasks to foster learner autonomy and encourage peer-to-peer learning of digital literacies. With this objective in mind, the overarching task that we as instructors created was designed to make it possible for the partner groups to share their digital experience with one another. More specifically, when designing their tasks, the American and Polish partner groups had to decide about: (i) which Virtual Learning Environment to use to share the task with their partners; (ii) which presentation tool the partner group should use in their report of task completion. Once decided, the task authors created instructions and "digitally tutored" their partners on the how-to of the tools chosen.

- how feedback about the tasks was provided across cultures. The post-task evaluation as well as the response to this feedback will be examined with regard to cultural differences in the area of face-saving mechanisms, communication style, and politeness pragmatics. This is done with the aim of formulating guidelines for providing feedback on task-based intercultural collaboration.
- the role of the parallel Cultura forum discussions and their influence on the execution of task proper. We examine the function of the forum discussions in opinion/feedback rehearsal, their influence on group dynamics with special regard to the affiliation levels they generate, and their impact on the students' tendency to move from social to cognitive presence. The aim of this analysis is the evaluation of the merger of the Cultura-based model with a task-based model. If successful, the mixed model may turn out to be a worthwhile alternative to the telecollaboration scenarios implemented thus far.

Short paper

Introduction

As noted by O'Dowd and Ware (2009), based on a body of telecollaboration literature they review, most intercultural online exchanges use task sequencing following three consecutive stages: information exchange, comparison and analysis, and collaboration. The first task type is represented by a variety of introductory activities in which the telecollaborating parties present themselves and their culture. This monologic phase is usually followed by comparison and analysis of different aspects of both (all) cultures, carried out in a dialogue between the representatives of these cultures. Finally, the participants of the exchange collaborate on the creation of a certain product. As O'Dowd and Ware (2009: 178) point out, "[a] combination of task types can expose learners gradually to different aspects of intercultural communication." Besides, such sequencing involves the participants of the exchange in mental activities of increasing cognitive demands (Bloom et al. 1956).

The telecollaboration model described above is a good point of departure for anyone designing an intercultural online exchange. It is elegantly clear in terms of structure and pedagogically sound in its sequentiality and gradual increase in cognitive difficulty. What poses a certain problem is filling in the template with practical solutions which would enable fully capitalising on its advantages. While task design can be challenging in all three types of assignments, it seems that devising truly stimulating comparison and analysis assignments is particularly demanding for the teacher herself. In the case of introductions and engineering collaboration her role will primarily involve creating and maintaining motivation, monitoring the activities for communication- or culture-related problems and improving the learners' technological skills. In the compare-and-analyse task, she needs to do all this as well. Yet, the cognitive gains of the learners will, to an extent greater than in the two other tasks, depend on how well the activity as such is planned and crafted by the teacher.

O'Dowd and Ware (2009) make a few suggestions as to how such tasks can be designed. Students may be involved in: comparing parallel texts; analysing cultural products; or translating. However, alongside these recommendations, it is important to point out that there is a telecollaboration model in which comparison and analysis tasks are the core of the exchange: the Cultura model (see Furstenberg, Levet, English, & Maillet, 2001). In this model, two or more classes of language students fill out different types of questionnaires online, then they engage in online discussions of the questionnaire results, comparing and analysing each other's postings in order to develop an understanding of the other's culture. Although the creators of Cultura did not explicitly

label the activities of the exchange as “task-based,” what the students in an exchange are asked to do are very similar to O’Dowd and Ware’s recommended tasks.

The present paper describes an intercultural exchange which took place in January-March 2015 between a class of MA students in the English Department of the Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland and a graduate class in Technology and Second Language Acquisition at the University of California, Santa Barbara in the US. During the telecollaboration, the students performed both Cultura-based online activities and task-based activities not related to the Cultura questionnaires and forum discussions. After the introductory phase, all students were asked to respond to questionnaires on Word Associations, Sentence Completions and Reactions to Situations, typical of the Cultura model. The results of these questionnaires were compiled in two columns, one column for the responses of the students in Santa Barbara and the other column for the Cracow students’ responses (Appendices A and B). In small groups consisting of a mix of 5-6 students from both classes, they compared and analysed these results in online forums. In the third so-called “collaborative” phase, which overlapped with the Cultura activities, they worked in small groups within their respective classes and devised language learning tasks that they presented to their partners. The Polish students executed the tasks designed by the students in the US, and vice versa, and each group provided feedback to their partners regarding the collaborative task design.

An assessment of the pedagogical effectiveness of a task-based telecollaboration could involve a number of issues, including: (i) the effectiveness of task design in fostering learning autonomy or in encouraging peer-to-peer learning; (ii) how feedback is provided and taken up (or not) across cultures and whether this enhances intercultural communicative competence; and (iii) the role collaborative activities in language and culture learning. However, as the brevity of the present text precludes an in-depth discussion of all the research facets, we will concentrate on the function of the forum discussions in providing participants opportunities to express their opinions and give/receive feedback, and the students’ ability to move from social to cognitive presence as well as from cognitive to social during their forum discussions.

Specifically, we wish to examine to what extent forum discussions allow for a balanced combination of what Garrison et al. (2001) call cognitive presence with social presence (Rourke et al. 2001). In other words, we look at the interaction process and investigate the extent to which a task allowing students to exercise higher-order mental functions still leaves room for the development of interpersonal relations. Pellettieri (2000) had suggested that psycholinguistic approaches to task design in telecollaboration often underplay the development of personal relationships between the telecollaborative partners. This is in contrast to exchanges that focus on intercultural learning, such as those based on the Cultura model, which require learners to “negotiate the different cultural perspectives between themselves and their partners” (O’Dowd & Ware, 2009, p. 178). The beauty of the Cultura model is that the learners are the creators of the cultural content that they discuss with their partners; it is *their own* answers to the questionnaires that they subsequently discuss in the online forums.

Study

The study was carried out during an 8-week telecollaborative exchange. The participants of the exchange were 26 students from the two universities (PUK and UCSB): 16 Polish MA students and 10 Santa Barbara PhD students. While the former group was homogenous in terms of language and culture of origin (Polish) and age (23-24), the latter was a mixed group of Americans (6) and international students (4), from Honduras, Columbia, Brazil, and Taiwan, all over 25.

In our investigation we rely on the methodology of the studies by Garrison et al. (2001) and Rourke et al. (2001). Specifically, the forum discussions we analyse were coded using their categories of cognitive and social presence (cf. Table 1). However, unlike

Garrison et al. (2001), who used entire messages/postings by individuals in a CMC discussion as their unit of analysis, we have coded multiple clauses and sentences within an individual's message/forum posting, similar to the coding method of Arnold and Ducate (2006, p. 47), who divided their transcripts into so-called speech segments, "the smallest unit of delivery, linked to a single theme, directed at the same interlocutor (Henri & Rigault, 1996, p. 62)."

Table 1
Cognitive and social presence: categories and their manifestations (Garrison et al. 2001 and Rourke et al. 2001)

<i>Category</i>	<i>Manifestations</i>
COGNITIVE PRESENCE	
Triggering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - recognising the problem - expressing sense of puzzlement - asking questions
Exploration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - numerous, often contradicting ideas - personal narratives, descriptions, facts - explicit admitting of exploration - brainstorming - leaps to conclusions (offering unsupported opinions)
Integration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - agreeing - synthesising - (developing) hypothesis - integrating information from various sources - explicit characterisation of ideas - creating solutions
Resolution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - proposing - testing - and defending solutions
SOCIAL PRESENCE	
Affective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - expression of emotions - use of humour - self-disclosure
Interactive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - continuing a thread - asking questions - quoting from others - referencing to others' messages - complimenting / expressing appreciation - expressing agreement
Cohesive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - using personal names and details - using inclusive language - phatics, salutations

Results

In this short paper, we present a sample analysis of two excerpts from different forums. The first is from a discussion about the Word Associations for "social media" (Table 2). As explained above, following the Cultura model, the procedure was that students first filled in questionnaires asking for words and phrases that they associated with different terms,

in this case "social media." The answers that students from both classes had given can be seen in Appendix A. The second excerpt is from a forum discussion about the Sentence Completion "A good teacher in the digital age is someone who ..." (Table 3). The answers that students from both classes had given on the questionnaires can be seen in Appendix B. Both authors coded the excerpts separately and agreed on most of the categories. In cases of disagreement or uncertainty, both categories are included in the footnotes.

Table 2

Excerpt of forum discussion about the word associations for "social media"

<p>by Student 1 (PUK) - Friday, January 23, 2015, 1:26 AM Hello guys!!¹ Big brother was the first thing that drew my attention², so true!!³ What about this: free time- nice things to kill time; time-suck :)⁴ A nice one!⁵ Well, according to your answers, /social media free time/ is perceived as something negative,⁶ I wonder what you do when you're free⁷ cause I'm not a fan of online entertainment as well!⁸ Greetings! :)⁹</p>
<p>by Student 2 (UCSB) - Friday, January 23, 2015, 9:53 AM Hi Student 1,¹⁰ I believe that social media can become something negative if you don't know how to manage your time wisely.¹¹ But it can also become one of your best ally in order to meet people from faraway places or even prepare a lesson for your class.¹² I guess we just need to learn how to use it properly.¹³ In my personal life I use technology every day. I listen to music online, watch movies and tv series on Netflix, search for recipes, and if I have a doubt about x topic, sometimes I ask google. As far as social media, sometimes I use Facebook to contact friends who do not live close by.¹⁴ I don't think I am addicted to online entertainment, but that may be relative :)¹⁵</p>
<p>by Student 3 (PUK) - Wednesday, January 28, 2015, 11:42 AM Hello Student 2 :)¹⁶ I agree with your opinion on the use of social media¹⁷ and I actually use technology for the exact same things as you do: listening to music, watching films, checking the news, searching or information and communicating with friends.¹⁸ I also don't think that I'm addicted but I would find it difficult to stop using the Internet, especially as it has kind of become an integral part of our lives and it makes lots of things easier for us :)¹⁹</p>
<p>by Student 2 (UCSB) - Tuesday, February 3, 2015, 9:00 AM Hello again Student 3,²⁰ I feel the same about using the internet:²¹ I don't think I can't live without it anymore. I can live without TV and a phone, but now without a computer with internet. After all, my</p>

¹ social>cohesive>salutation

² social>interactive>continuing a thread

³ social>interactive>continuing a thread

⁴ cognitive>triggering>asking questions

⁵ social>affective>expressing emotion

⁶ cognitive>integration>integrating information

⁷ social>interactive>asking questions

⁸ social>cohesive>inclusive language

⁹ social>cohesive>salutation

¹⁰ social>cohesive>salutation

¹¹ cognitive>integration>hypothesis

¹² cognitive>integration>hypothesis

¹³ cognitive>resolution>proposing solutions

¹⁴ cognitive>exploration>personal narrative

¹⁵ social>affective>self-disclosure

¹⁶ social>cohesive>salutation

¹⁷ cognitive>integration>agreeing

¹⁸ cognitive>exploration>personal narrative

¹⁹ social>affective>self-disclosure

²⁰ social>cohesive>salutation

computer is my TV and my way of communicating with friends. :)²²

by Student 4 (PUK) - Monday, February 2, 2015, 9:23 AM
Student 2,²³

In your introduction you mentioned that you come from Honduras and I would like to learn something about the culture of this region. Could you tell me a few words about it ? Maybe you've got some pictures ?

By the way, how is your Duolingo going ?²⁴

Table 3

Excerpt of forum discussion about the sentence completion "A good teacher in the digital age is someone who ..."

by Student 5 (PUK) - Friday, January 30, 2015, 10:32 AM

Hello everybody :)²⁵

While looking through our sentence completions I noticed that we share the views when it comes to being a good teacher in the digital age²⁶. Many SBC participants mentioned that teachers should be willing to learn and try new things and, in my opinion, it's one of the most important assets²⁷. I mean, I can still remember that computer lab in my primary and middle school that we were never allowed to use (except for our IT classes), because some of the teachers were afraid that the students might damage the equipment²⁸ :)²⁹

How about you? Which completions do you find interesting?³⁰

by Student 6 (UCSB) - Saturday, January 31, 2015, 3:26 PM

Hi Student 5³¹, thanks for starting this weekly interaction³². I followed your suggestion to talk about "a good teacher in the digital age"³³ ...what is interesting for me is to see that Cracow group mentioned³⁴ that a "good teacher" will be always able to teach without digital technology, or at least, she will have a plan B to teach!³⁵ It is nice to highlight the way Cracow participants have emphasized³⁶ how critical is instructor's knowledge in making decisions about when, how, and why digital technology should be incorporated...³⁷

Regarding our experiences...I just recall that one of my professors in my master program, back in home in Colombia around 2002, who was a philosopher seemed not to be at ease with the idea that his students would use power point presentations for weekly reports...sometimes, when a student was turning on the computer and projector, he just used to say:¹⁰ "those who actually know would be able to start talking, those who do not know what to say have designed power point slides" :{³⁸

Maybe, what he was expecting was that students would be able to present without reading or making any reference to the slides³⁹...I do not know,⁴⁰ maybe in philosophy is important to develop skills to talk and express fluently without any resource other than a paper (an old technology) ;)⁴¹ ...I do not know!!!!⁴²

²¹ social>interactive>referencing OR cognitive>integration>agreeing

²² social>affective>self-disclosure

²³ social>cohesive>salutation

²⁴ social>interactive>continuing a thread, asking questions OR cognitive>triggering>asking questions

²⁵ social>cohesive>salutation

²⁶ social>cohesive>inclusive language OR cognitive>triggering>recognising the problem

²⁷ cognitive>integration>hypothesis formation

²⁸ cognitive>exploration>personal narrative

²⁹ social>affective>expressing emotions

³⁰ social>interactive>asking questions

³¹ social>cohesive>salutation

³² social>interactive>showing appreciation

³³ social>interactive>continuing a thread

³⁴ social>interactive>quoting

³⁵ cognitive>integration>synthesising

³⁶ social>interactive>showing appreciation

³⁷ cognitive>integration>synthesising

³⁸ cognitive>exploration>personal narrative

³⁹ cognitive>exploration>brainstorming

⁴⁰ cognitive>triggering>expressing sense of puzzlement

⁴¹ cognitive>integration>hypothesis formation

⁴² social>affective>self-disclosure and expressing emotions

by Student 7 (PUK) - Sunday, February 1, 2015, 1:06 AM
Hello Student 5 and Student 6 ;)⁴³ to tell you the truth, the results of this survey you mentioned was the first one I chose to read⁴⁴. Student 6, I have a question for you : how did you feel about that philosophy teacher?⁴⁵ I understood that he was rather sceptical towards technology in the classroom and I am curious⁴⁶; was his opinion about digital presentation anyhow biased or was he prejudiced?⁴⁷
Coming back to "plan B"⁴⁸ I guess many of us (I mean Cracow students) have experienced those awkward moments when technology (or teacher's knowledge how to deal with it) failed⁴⁹. Therefore it seems vital to always have something extra on tap.⁵⁰
2 cartoons inserted⁵¹

Discussion and Conclusion

Based on the coding of the two forum discussion excerpts for social and cognitive presence, it appears that our students were moving seamlessly back and forth and exhibiting both social and cognitive presence. Since these excerpts are very brief, not all of the different types of social and cognitive presence are observed, but more thorough analyses of all of the forum discussions are expected to reveal that students demonstrated most of the sub-categories of both social and cognitive presence proposed by Garrison et al. (2001) and Rourke et al. (2001). Our results are similar to the results of the study by Arnold and Ducate (2006), who found that their two groups of future language teachers engaged in a high degree of interactivity during their semester-long asynchronous online discussion. Their students employed social presence much more often than cognitive presence to aid their discussion, though they also progressed in their cognitive understanding of the pedagogical topics they conversed about. In our case, the interactivity can perhaps be ascribed to the specificity of the Cultura forums, which we used for the compare-and-analyse part of our telecollaboration. In these forums students reflect on the material they have produced themselves - word associations, sentence completions, reactions to situations - and which is the result of their very personal deliberations. Consequently, the levels of social involvement are quite high. As a result, our data are unlike those of more psycholinguistically oriented CMC studies, e.g., Pellettieri (2000), whose tasks focused on grammar and syntax and did not encourage the development of interpersonal relationships among the discussants.

As other studies of telecollaboration that have focused on intercultural communication in foreign language education have found (cf. Furstenberg et al., 2001; O'Dowd & Ware, 2009), the choice of tasks that facilitate learners analysing and comparing cultural perspectives is crucial for the success of the exchange and for a balanced combination of social and cognitive presence. Our study has examined both social and cognitive presence of the students in online forum discussions, and while there are high levels of both kinds of presence, we can only speculate about the actual intent and implications of the online postings. Further investigation into the learners' perceptions of the success of this exchange are ongoing.

⁴³ social>cohesive>salutation

⁴⁴ social>interactive>continuing a thread

⁴⁵ social>interactive>asking questions OR cognitive>triggering>asking questions

⁴⁶ social>interactive>continuing a thread

⁴⁷ cognitive>triggering>asking questions

⁴⁸ social>interactive>continuing a thread

⁴⁹ cognitive>exploration>personal narrative

⁵⁰ cognitive>integration>hypothesis formation

⁵¹ social>affective>humour

Associations: SOCIAL MEDIA

Look at the responses to the Word Associations from Santa Barbara and Cracow. Choose the 2 most interesting sets of responses to discuss with your small group. Compare the responses from both groups of students. Are they similar or not? What words appear more frequently on one side and on the other? What words appear only on one side and not on the other, etc. Do these words generate positive, negative or neutral associations on both sides, etc. Please offer as many cultural perspectives as you can (from your own culture, from the culture of the L2 (or L3 or L4) you are learning/teaching.

Santa Barbara

community: networking x2; connecting people; communities; sharing information; staying connected; drama

examples of: Instagram; Vine; WeChat; Line

communication: instant feedback; poor grammar;

free time / dangers: a waste of time; distraction; time-suck

other: annoying; usefulness; potential

Cracow

communication: communication online x8; immediate feedback (likes, comments) x4; access (to information) x2; posts, wall, news

community: friends x4; sharing (information / experiences) x4; socializing x3; community x2; connections

free time: nice things to kill time; way to spend time; interests; entertainment

future: social trends, literacy, future

dangers: big brother; selling information; filter bubble

SENTENCE COMPLETIONS:

A good teacher in the digital age is someone who ...

Look at the responses to the **Sentence completions** from Santa Barbara and Cracow. Choose the 2 most interesting sets of responses to discuss with your small group. Compare the responses from both groups of students. Are they similar or not? What words appear more frequently on one side and on the other?

What completions appear only on one side and not on the other, etc. Do these sentence completions generate positive, negative or neutral associations on both sides, etc. Please offer as many cultural perspectives as you can (from your own culture, from the culture of the L2 (or L3 or L4) you are learning/teaching. Comment also on areas of pragmatics that you find interesting or striking in the answers to the questionnaires.

Santa Barbara

... has the know-how and is focused on the student:

- *knows how to use the technology in their classroom.*
- *can introduce the various platforms for the study and enhancement of the subject area.*
- *Knows how to take advantage of the technological resources that will contribute to students' learning, not only in the classroom/course but also after it.*

... is flexible:

- *can integrate the tools the students are using into the classroom. Is open to new ways of teaching and is not afraid to ask for help.*
- *who also realizes that not everything can be learned via technology. A good teacher sees technology as an additional and important tool, but not as the only tool.*
- *is not afraid to fail and try new things, not necessarily become a consumer or user of all type of digital technology, but at least try and analyze critically opportunities (affordances), limitations, and ideological implications of the tools that she has decided to incorporate to her class.*
- *is willing to try new things and is not afraid of imagining the incredible possibilities of non-linear formats.*
- *is open to learning how to effectively use technology, isn't afraid to try something new, but also knows that technology is not always the better method.*
- *willing to learn and practice using it.*
- *is willing to learn.*
- *isn't a technophobe and is willing to try new things. In addition, we always have to ask what the affordances and limitations of particular technologies are, teaching safety and respect for others.*

... is available:

- *checks/responds to their email frequently (at least a few times per day).*

Cracow

... has the know-how and is focused on the student:

- *can use digital tools wisely, with benefit to the students.*
- *knows how to use the online tools effectively and how to teach students to do it.*
- *can critically look at new technologies and make use of them, thus learners could benefit from them.*
- *knows how to use new technologies to create a learning environment for his or her students.*
- *is able to use technology during the classroom.*
- *knows a lot about the tools possible to use (a variety of tools/different uses of them)*
- *is digitally literate*
- *uses new technologies in teaching*
- *uses technology in order to make learning effective, not only fun, someone who knows how to engage ss to learn on their own.*

... is flexible:

- *has also a back-up plan in case the technology fails.*
- *is eager to try new things - even though they may turn out as a failure.*
- *is able to teach whenever the technology fails.*
- *knows when it is useful to work with digital technologies and when it is not .*
- *is able to blend the traditional learning with digital.*
- *can adjust online teaching aids to the environment he's in.*

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William Collins

Nagasaki University, Nagasaki, Japan

william@nagasaki-u.ac.jp

Story recording and peer feedback in an online forum improving motivation

Bio data

William Collins is Associate Professor at Nagasaki University's Center for Language Studies. His research interests include storytelling, evaluating speaking skills through task-based learning, literature and language learning, and developing an online corpus of classic literature.

Current research

The study I'm currently conducting is a one-year study concerning the impact of regular teacher and peer feedback on improving listener participation in pair-recorded story conversations in three university English Communication classes. The research questions in the study were (1) given explicit instruction in using clarifying and comment strategies, how well would students be able to give peer feedback to other students? (2) Would regular feedback on students' use of the comment and clarifying strategies in recorded conversations lead to improvements in their use by listeners? If so, which kind of feedback would show the greatest improvement at the end of the semester? (3) What impact would each component of the study have on improving students' enjoyment of English study and self-confidence in their speaking and listening abilities?

Task-based language learning and teaching

One of the most difficult challenges faced by EFL students is learning how to manage conversational interaction (Kramsch, 1986; Young, 2008). Pragmatic skills such as getting, holding, and keeping a turn, backchanneling, using clarifying cues to repair comprehension-breakdown (Barraja-Rohan, 2011), and giving feedback comments (Mori, 2002) are difficult for students because they must use them under the time pressure of a conversation. Learners have a strong desire to improve their conversation skills in the L2, and given that the language classroom is the default setting in which EFL students will do this, teachers must find ways to ensure that the learning activities approximate as closely as possible the conditions of actual conversation if students are to become accustomed to real-time conversation.

This paper reports the results of a one-year study conducted in a first-year University English Communication class concerning testing improvements in conversational interaction skills. The key components of the study were (a) a set of active-listening comment and clarifying strategies for increasing the participation of the listener in the conversation; (b) regular pair-recording and, in the second semester, a set of post-recording reflective-listening tasks for raising students' awareness of the strategies; and (c) a speaking exam in which pair-recording was done under varying degrees of pre-planning limitation including controlling whether students' had previously recorded on the given speaking topic or listened to their partner's story. The study was conducted in Nagasaki University's English Communication courses for first-year non-English majors. Prior to the introduction of pair-recording, exams were written and focused on vocabulary and written cloze exercises based on conversation dialogues. In student surveys

conducted by the author, students expressed a desire for more in-class speaking tasks, and also said they didn't know how to tell if their speaking skill was improving. Against this background, the author sought: a way students could increase in-class speaking; a sequence of tasks for raising students' awareness of aspects of conversational speaking proficiency; and a tool for measuring improvements in conversations.

Short paper

Introduction

This study looks at the impact of a story recording and a peer listening and feedback activity on student motivation in a Japanese university EFL class. The purpose of the activity was to raise learners' awareness of conversation skills such as turn-taking, back channeling, using clarifying cues to repair communication-breakdown and making comments. The study was conducted over one semester and concerned the impact of helping students learn to use a set of active listening strategies in online forum feedback posts and pair-recorded conversations on improving students' confidence and enjoyment of English. The results suggest that the exercise had some positive impact on improving the students' motivation and confidence.

Literature Review

Collins and Ruhl (2008) explored the impact of pair-recording and active-listening on students' enjoyment of and confidence in their English conversations. Students in the study reported that pair-recording and active-listening helped them enjoy English more and improved their conversations. Collins (2013) concerned the ability of students to use the skills in audio-recordings under varying degrees of pre-planning limitation. Collins (2015) reports the results of a one-year study concerning the impact of regular teacher and peer feedback on improving listener participation in pair-recorded story conversations.

Participants

The study was conducted with thirty-five students over one semester in a first-year English Communication class. The students were majoring in global studies and had all scored over 600 on the TOEIC test. The two student populations were of comparable age, ethnic and linguistic background.

Active-Listening Strategies

The advanced strategies consisted of personalizing, speculating and generalizing, examples of which are shown in Figure 1 below.

The strategies were taught and practiced in class, and consisted of "basic" and "advanced" strategies (Collins and Ruhl, 2008). The basic strategies included *backchanneling* ("Oh yeah?" / "Oh really?" / "Uh-huh"), *comments/rejoinders* ("That's + adjective"/"Wow!"/"No Way!"/"Oh no!"), and *clarifying cues* (repeating an unfamiliar word or phrase).

Figure 1: Advanced Active-Listening Strategies

<p>interlocutor's Comment: "I recently went camping with some friends."</p>
<p><u>Personalizing</u></p>
<p>[Oh, I-----too.] Oh, I enjoy camping too./Oh, I recently went camping too [Oh, I-----but-----] Oh, I like camping, but I haven't gone recently [Oh really? (In my case)-----] Oh really? I have never been camping./I want to go camping!</p>
<p><u>Generalizing</u></p>
<p>[(doing----)] is -(adjective), isn't it? Going camping is fun, isn't it? [(Noun)] is -(adjective), isn't it? Camping is fun, isn't it? It's -(adjective) [(to do---/doing----)] isn't it? It's nice to go camping, isn't it? [I think a lot of people----] I think a lot people go camping in spring. [I've heard that----] I've heard that camping is very nice this time of year.</p>
<p><u>Speculating</u></p>
<p>[I guess ----] I guess that was (a lot of) fun. / I guess you had a good time. [I bet ----] I bet that was (a lot of) fun. / I bet you enjoyed that. [----must have been----/ [done]----] That must have been fun. / You must have had a good time.</p>
<p><u>Question</u></p>
<p>"How---" "How is it going?" / "So how do you like it?" / "How was it?" "What---" "What was that like?"/"What happened next?" "Repeat Sentence (to show surprise, strong feeling) "Only one person came?"/"You forgot your wallet?"</p>

Regular Story Recording:

To improve confidence in their speaking, students individually recorded two minute talks about personal experiences on storytelling topics. A sample of the story topics is shown in figure 2:

Figure 2: Sample of Story Topics

- | |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Tell me about a time you had a big change in your life2. A Memory or Experience That Meant A Lot to You3. A Scary Experience You Had4. A Time You Pushed Yourself To Do Something You Didn't Think You Could Do5. A Time You Thought "I Know I Shouldn't Do This But..."6. A Time you had a good time but you got carried away.7. An embarrassing experience you had.8. A time you were at a loss for what to do9. A time you made someone happy10. A time you had a chance to do something you'd always wanted to do. |
|--|

The students were permitted to write on the same topic before recording, but were required to talk without notes when recording. Students then posted their talks on an online forum. Students' recorded and posted their talks throughout the semester and were graded on how much they recorded. The

Reflective Listening Exercise: Online Forum Feedback

In the feedback exercise students listened to classmates' and posted spoken feedback on the content of their classmate's talk. Students were required to begin with an opening comment, then use a speculating, personalizing and generalizing comment. A transcribed sample of a student's original post and classmate's feedback post are shown in figure 2:

Figure 3: Online Story and Classmate Feedback

Speaker Topic: A Time I had a big change in my life
A Time I Had a Big Change in my Life is the camp of study which is the event of my high school. That was held in the hotel which was far away from my school, when I was a second-grade student. We had to study hard all day long for four days. I had never studied such a long time before that, so it was tough for me to keep my concentration at first. I felt really tired at the end of each day. The camp also included a barbecue, so I felt refreshed too. Thanks to the camp, I got into the habit of working harder than before. This experience gave me a chance to change my mind.
Feedback: I listened your story. I was very impressed by your story. You said you had to study on the camp for four days. That's very hard! I guess you were so tired and you felt you didn't want to study any more. You also said the camp included a barbecue and you could refresh. That's good. On the camp, to refresh is really important, I think. In addition, you said you could get the habit of studying hard than before. I had a similar experience. I participated in a camp of study and I studied for a week in a hotel. Through the camp, I could get a high level of concentration. Your experience is so valuable. Do your experience help you now? Do you want to experience the camp again?

Student Survey

At the end of the semester a student survey was conducted to ascertain the impact of giving and receiving feedback through the online forum on students' confidence and enjoyment of English. The results for the impact of giving feedback are shown in table 1:

Table 1: *Student Attitudes Concerning Giving Forum Feedback*

Survey Statement	Helped Enjoy English	Improved Speaking Confidence	Improved In-Class Speaking
Strongly Agree	16%	13%	25%
Moderately Agree	63%	72%	58%
Moderately Disagree	19%	13%	15%
Strongly Disagree	3%	2%	2%
MEAN	3.53	3.61	3.63
Standard Deviation	0.81	0.83	0.76

The results for receiving peer-feedback through the forum is shown in table 2:

Table 2: *Student Attitudes Concerning Receiving Forum Feedback*

Survey Statement	Helped Enjoy English	Improved Speaking Confidence	Improved In-Class Speaking
Strongly Agree	17%	20%	21%
Moderately Agree	62%	66%	62%
Moderately Disagree	17%	12%	13%
Strongly Disagree	4%	2%	4%
MEAN	3.51	3.63	3.64
Standard Deviation	0.78	0.81	0.72

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the surveys suggest that giving and receiving feedback through the online forum had a positive effect on students' enjoyment of English, on their speaking confidence and on the perceived quality of their in-class speaking. Examining the content of students' feedback also suggested that students' had gained an awareness of the various active listening strategies.

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Frederik Cornillie, Kris Van den Branden & Piet Desmet

KU Leuven & iMinds, Kortrijk, Belgium

frederik.cornillie@kuleuven.be

From language play to linguistic form and back again. Lessons from an experimental study for the design of task-based language practice supported by games

Bio data

Frederik Cornillie is research manager and postdoctoral researcher in applied linguistics in the interdisciplinary team ITEC at KU Leuven (University of Leuven) and iMinds, Belgium. He applies his expertise in (language) pedagogy, human-computer interaction design, and software development to projects in educational technology. His research focuses on the affordances of games for language learning and instruction.

Kris Van den Branden is a professor of linguistics and teacher educator at the Faculty of Arts of KU Leuven. At the same university he is the academic promoter of the Centre for Language and Education. Together with Elke Peeters, he is the editor of the journal *ITL International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. He is also the volume series editor (together with Martin Bygate and John Norris) of *Task-Based Language Teaching: Issues, Research and Practice* (published by Benjamins).

Piet Desmet is full professor of French and applied linguistics and computer-assisted language learning at KU Leuven and KU Leuven KULAK. He coordinates the iMinds-research team ITEC (Interactive Technologies), focusing on domain-specific educational technology with a main interest in language learning & technology. He leads a range of research projects in this field devoted amongst others to the integration of human language technologies into CALL and to the effectiveness of adaptive and personalized learning environments. He is the National Representative of EUROCALL for Belgium.

Current research

This contribution is situated at the intersection of research on second language acquisition, task-based language teaching, and digital game-based learning. Research suggests that gaming holds great potential for enabling the development of lexical and communicative skills in a second language (L2), particularly in informal, naturalistic learning settings (e.g. Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012; Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). This potential is often attributed to the task-based nature of informal game-based L2 learning (e.g. Cornillie, Thorne, & Desmet, 2012). By contrast, little is known about how the affordances of games can be leveraged for designing effective L2 learning in instructed environments such as classrooms. Purposeful design of such spaces requires a thorough understanding of the key variables that impact upon L2 learning, “such that learning does not [merely] occur by accident” (Levy, Hubbard, Stockwell, & Colpaert, 2015, pp. 3–4), and such that instructional design can enhance or even accelerate what students can achieve on their own (see also Larsen-Freeman’s notion of *the reflex fallacy* in instructional design, e.g. 2003, pp. 19–20). This contribution aims to fill this gap, and is intended to shed light on how elements of gaming can inform the design of instructional activities for focused, but meaningful L2 practice, with a particular interest in corrective feedback and transfer of extensive focused practice to complex tasks. We present results of an experimental study with form-focused mini-games embedded in meaning-focused

reading tasks, and use these results to explore how such practice can be improved upon in order to engineer genuinely task-based interaction in the L2 supported by games.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In latest years, the field of CALL has witnessed a renewed interest in digital games. These are being seen to afford a heterogeneity of technology-mediated activities that catalyse ludic engagement in a second or foreign language (L2) which is typically highly meaning-focused, communicative, and oriented toward non-linguistic outcomes (Cornillie et al., 2012). All of these characteristics are commonly associated with a task-based approach to language teaching (Ellis, 2003). Our research takes a different angle of attack, and explores the extent to which elements of gaming can inspire the design of form-focused exercises, i.e. pedagogical activities which do not result in a non-linguistic (communicative) outcome and are in this sense diametrically opposed to tasks in Ellis' model, but which are intended to help learners develop understanding of a specific linguistic aspect. Elements of game design may make such exercises 1) enjoyable, so that learners are willing to practise and remediate specific linguistic problems outside of L2 classrooms (leaving scope for communicative interaction in face-to-face sessions); 2) meaningful, so that any knowledge developed in form-focused practice may aid linguistic performance in more complex tasks.

In order to address these design challenges, we were inspired by the notion of mini-games (Cornillie & Desmet, forthcoming): gameful activities that can be completed in brief sessions, are constrained in scope, provide consistent feedback, and thus lend themselves well to focused – and potentially enjoyable – autonomous language practice. Our starting point is that mini-games for such language practice must be designed with theoretical models of language learning in mind, for they remind of 'drill-and-kill' approaches in language teaching, which have proven ineffective for communicative development in a L2 (Wong & VanPatten, 2003). We adopt a nuanced view on (the usefulness of) drill in language pedagogy, based on the classical (but nowadays sometimes forgotten) distinction between mechanical practice, meaning-focused practice, and communicative practice (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Today, the state of affairs in theory of language practice (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007) and the current limitations of language technology call primarily for principled design of meaningful mini-games that provide the learner with metalinguistic corrective feedback. Such feedback may support transfer of practice to more complex language skills such as speaking.

Short paper

Introduction

In latest years, the field of CALL has witnessed a renewed interest in digital games. These are being seen to afford a heterogeneity of technology-mediated activities that catalyse ludic engagement in a second or foreign language (L2), very often in informal learning settings (e.g. Thorne et al., 2009), which is typically highly meaning-focused, communicative, and oriented toward non-linguistic outcomes (Cornillie et al., 2012). For designers of activities for instructed language learning, these characteristics of play in and with a L2 resound well with task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Ellis, 2003). However, in contrast with task-based language learning in informal contexts, such as online games, activities for instructed task-based learning call on a focus on form in order to help learners attend to aspects of the L2 that would otherwise pass unnoticed.

In TBLT, focus on form is typically realized in implicit ways, for instance by means of implicit recasts during interaction or by deferring feedback until the debriefing phase, in order to disrupt the communicative flow only to a minimal degree (Willis & Willis, 2007). Much less common is explicit attention to features of the L2 by way of form-focused

exercises, i.e. pedagogical activities which do not result in a non-linguistic (communicative) outcome and are in this sense diametrically opposed to tasks in Ellis' (2003) model, but which are intended to help learners develop understanding of a specific linguistic aspect. Furthermore, intensive controlled practice of specific linguistic constructions accompanied by consistent CF may help to automatize knowledge in implicit memory, which could in turn free up attentional resources for higher-order skills during complex learning tasks (Segalowitz & Hulstijn, 2005). Finally, extensive grammar explanation, for instance by means of metalinguistic CF, may help learners to realize transfer to different contexts of use and to different skills (DeKeyser, 1998).

The design of activities for controlled practice is challenging. First and foremost, given the available evidence that mechanical types of controlled practice do not promote and even hinder the development of communicative skills in a L2 (DeKeyser, 1998; Wong & VanPatten, 2003), activities for controlled practice need to engage learners in meaningful and ideally communicative L2 processing, similar to form-meaning processing in complex learning tasks. Secondly, controlled language practice demands consistent CF, tailored to individual errors and ideally extensive (e.g. by providing learners with metalinguistic explanation), which is hardly feasible in the language classroom. Third, given the little time there usually is for communicative L2 learning, teachers are likely to relegate practice to contexts outside of class. So, the key will be "to design interesting drills that are not demotivating" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 289) and that – ideally – catalyse intrinsically motivated behaviour, so that learners are willing to practise without regulation from teachers.

To address these design challenges, we relied on the notion of mini-games (Cornillie & Desmet, forthcoming): gameful activities that can be completed in brief sessions, are constrained in scope, provide consistent feedback, and thus lend themselves well to focused – and potentially enjoyable – autonomous language practice. In an attempt to transcend mechanical drilling, the mini-games were embedded in a mystery story. The design hypothesis was that by interweaving the form-focused mini-games with meaning-focused reading and discussion activities, learners would be engaged in form-meaning processing during practice, promoting transfer of practice to more complex follow-up activities.

Our primary research question is: to what extent does controlled L2 practice supported by mini-games and embedded in meaning-focused L2 use help learners to develop knowledge that is useful for their performance on various transfer tasks?

Method

The materials used in this study comprised a written text, mini-games, materials for grammar instruction, and four language tests. The text was a mystery story written by the first author on the basis of the early history of Coca-Cola, and served as the backdrop for reading and discussion activities in class. These activities created a context for meaningful practice, and were intended to help learners identify with the protagonist, a detective, and solve the mystery. In the parlance of TBLT, resolution of the mystery constitutes a non-linguistic goal for the learners.

As a mechanism to advance the story, mini-games were inserted at two points in the text. These related to the content of the story on the one hand, and covered two grammatical problems of English on the other hand: quantifiers (QNT, e.g. Charley has fewer shares in the company) and the double object construction (V2O, e.g. *Pemberton revealed me the secret formula). Importantly, (grammatical) instances of the double object construction in the mini-games also occurred in the reading text at later stages, which was meant to further automatize learners' knowledge of this problem while reading and discussing the text. Attempts were made to do the same for quantifiers, but these failed, as the text started to feel too artificial. To compensate for this, the first author tried, where possible, to use and elicit these constructions in the discussion activities.

Practice in the mini-games was receptive, and consisted of performing grammaticality judgments of sentences drawn from the mystery story. This activity was 'gamified' by adapting the format of the mini-game to the fantasy of the detective that interviews witnesses and potential suspects by means of a special interrogation device, by adding 'vivid' elements to corrective feedback (the interrogation device broke down after 5 incorrect responses), and by including time pressure and a points system. In between the practice activities, the system displayed a *leaderboard* that compared the learners' individual best scores for the next exercise with the five highest (anonymized) scores.

The materials for grammar instruction comprised lists of sentences from which learners induced the grammar rules, followed by summary presentation of the rules provided by the first author and visually supported by slides. Grammar instruction for QNT took a conservative approach for the distinctions fewer - less and fewest - least, in line with learners' coursebooks. Instruction for V2O was largely based on Carroll and Swain's (1993) study.

The study took place from January to March 2014 in secondary education in Flanders, and used an experimental between-subjects design with one control group (N = 61) to account for the potential effect of the tests and two treatment groups (N = 125). Participants in the treatment groups received rule instruction, and were assigned at random to either a practice condition in which metalinguistic and error-specific CF was available (ML CF) in the mini-games, or to a condition which only comprised 'knowledge of results' CF (KR CF), lacking metalinguistic explanation. Next, the treatment groups participated in reading and discussion activities based on the mystery text, followed by practice with the mini-games. Learners first practised in a 'tutorial' version of the mini-game, lacking time pressure and reward systems and comprising immediate CF for learners in the metalinguistic group (see Figure 1, left). In a second stage, learners engaged with a version that involved time pressure, rewarding, between-learner competition, and vivid CF (see Figure 1, right), followed by delayed grammar explanations for the metalinguistic group. The learners were introduced to the practice activities in class, and had opportunities to practise further at home. The system logged their practice behaviour. The instructional procedure (i.e. instruction, text, and practice activities) lasted one month.

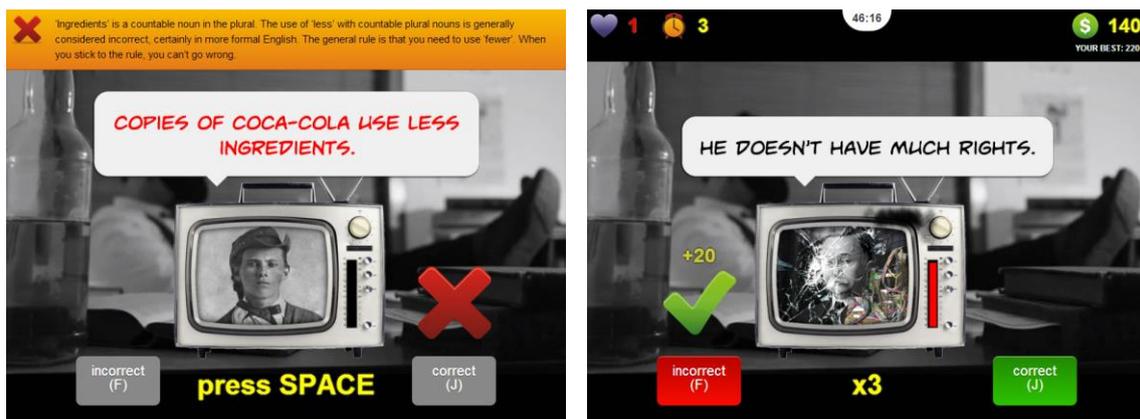


Figure 1: tutorial version of the mini-game, with metalinguistic CF (left); full version of the mini-game (right)

Prior to, immediately following, and one month after the procedure, all participants (including the control group) were tested on their knowledge of the target features using two transfer tasks: a timed grammaticality judgment test (TGJT; Loewen, 2009), and a written discourse completion test (WDCT). Participants in the treatment groups completed two more tests. First, they filled out a metalinguistic knowledge test (MKT) aimed at measuring their knowledge of the grammar rules. Further, subsequent to the

immediate post-tests, 69 learners were selected to participate in an oral production task known in the literature as the oral elicited imitation test (OEIT; Erlam, 2009). This test took the form of a role-play between the researcher and the participant, and required the learners to attend to both meaning and form. During the OEIT, participants were supported by means of slides to help them formulate their responses (see Figure 2). Learners were selected for this task on the basis of two parameters: the type of CF received during practice, and the amount of time spent on practice.

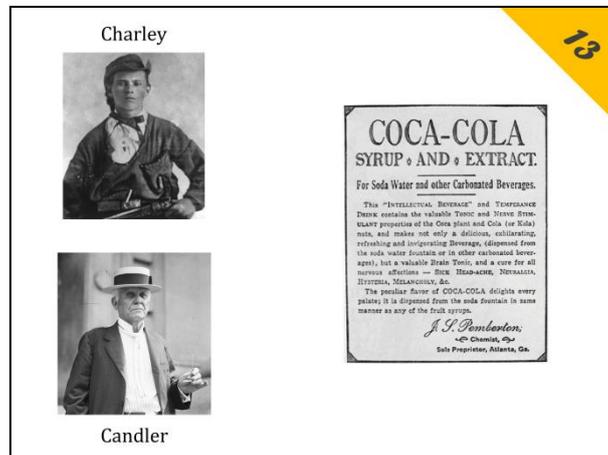


Figure 2: visual support for the oral stimulus *Charley revealed Candler the secret recipe of Coca-Cola, used in the OEIT

Results

The data show that the treatment groups outperformed the control group on the post-tests of the TGJT in terms of accuracy rate and response times (see Figure 3, $p < .001$). Furthermore, the ML CF group outperforms the KR CF group in terms of accuracy on the first post-test ($p < .01$), but this effect disappears on the delayed post-test ($p = .069$).

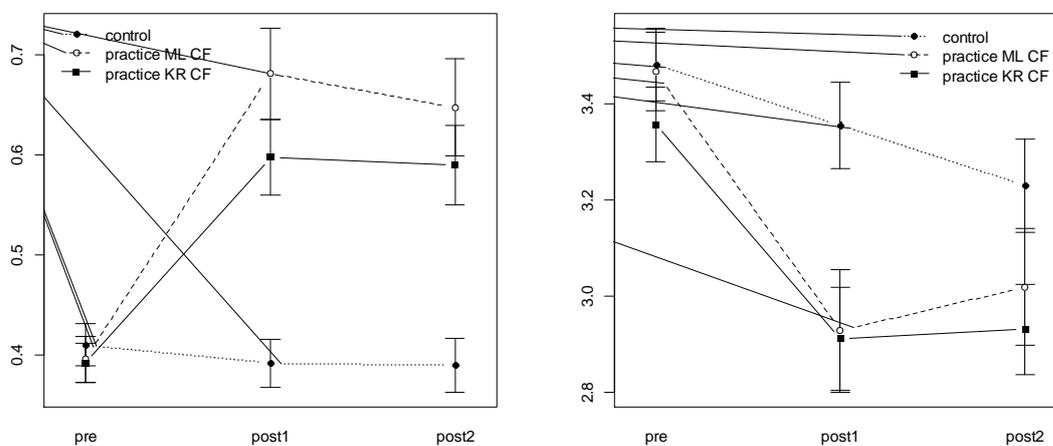


Figure 3: average accuracy rates (left) and response times (right) on the TGJT

As for the post-tests of the WDCT, the average accuracy rates of the participants in the treatment groups were higher than the average accuracy rate of the control group (all significant at $p < .05$). The ML CF group outperforms the KR CF group at both post-tests (significant at $p < .05$). Participants responded equally quickly in all groups.

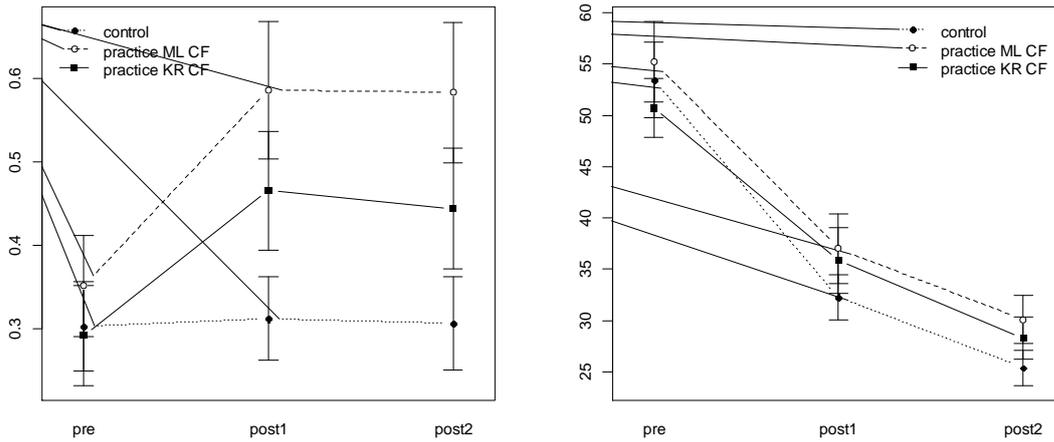


Figure 4: average accuracy rates (left) and response times (right) on the WDCT

Further worthy of mention are the interaction effects between time and linguistic problem (Figure 5). The effects of practice seem to be more durable for V2O.

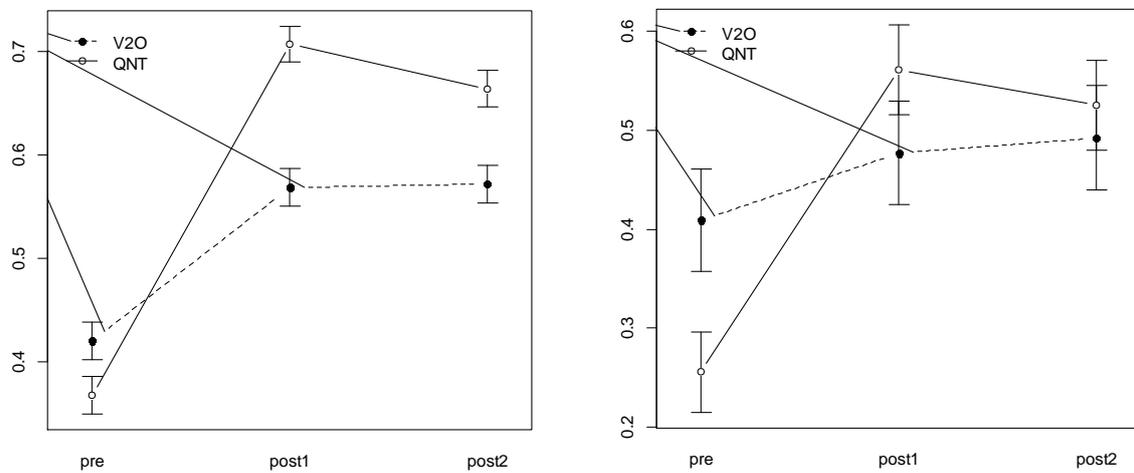


Figure 5: average accuracy rates for time x linguistic problem on TGJT (left) and WDCT (right) (treatment groups only)

As for the OEIT, the linguistic accuracy scores were considered separately for the participants who had realized (despite the strong focus on meaning) that they were being tested on grammar (N = 41) and for the unaware participants (N = 8); the scores of the other 20 participants were disregarded, because it was unclear whether these learners had been focusing on form. The mean accuracy rates of the OEIT were regressed, for each group separately, onto two main predictors (i.e. feedback type; and time spent on practice, range between 2.9 and 85.7 minutes) and three control variables (accuracy scores on the pre-tests of TGJT and WDCT, and the MKT scores). Two outliers were removed from the aware group, as these learners had misinterpreted the test instructions, affecting their scores negatively. The results of the regression analyses show that the mean accuracy rates of the aware group were positively affected by the time spent on practice ($\beta = .084$, $p < .05$) (see Figure 6) and by performance on the first WDCT ($\beta = .322$, $p < .01$). This regression model explained 32 percent of the variance in the mean accuracy rates (adjusted $R^2 = .32$, $F(5, 32) = 4.523$, $p < .01$). The same model applied to the unaware group revealed no effects.

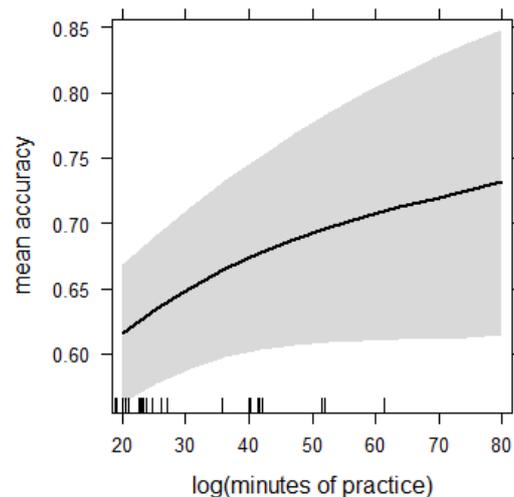


Figure 6: plot for relation between time spent on practice and mean accuracy on the OEIT (aware participants)

Discussion and conclusion

The results show that intensive practice with CF supported by mini-games and a mystery story helped learners to develop L2 grammar knowledge that was useful for their performance on various transfer tasks. There was evidence of transfer of practice to a follow-up task (TGJT) that was highly similar to the practice tasks (i.e. near transfer), but also to more complex written (WDCT) and spoken (OEIT) follow-up tasks (i.e. far transfer). The evidence of transfer from the highly form-focused practice tasks to more complex follow-up tasks, which involved a stronger focus on meaning, may support the hypothesis that learners were engaged in meaningful language processing in the practice phase.

However, it is doubtful whether these effects can be attributed only to the controlled practice activities. First, observation of the learners in practice suggests that they were treating the practice tasks rather mechanically. Learners also had difficulties telling what the content of the items presented in practice were about. This indicates that they may not have been focused all that much on meaning during the activities for controlled practice.

Secondly, the effects of the treatment are puzzling when we consider the results for the linguistic problems. The effects for QNT decline on the delayed post-test; those of V2O do not, while this is clearly the more difficult grammar problem. One explanation may be that instances of the constructions for V2O were recycled more consistently during the reading and discussion activities – recall that it had proven impossible to systematically include instances of QNT in the mystery story.

Third, on the OEIT, learners were clearly monitoring their spoken production, indicating that they were switching to and fro between meaning focus and form focus. Moreover, the gains in accuracy are small. This may be due to the fact that the practice tasks were not very transfer-appropriate in relation to more complex tasks, and is consistent with skill acquisition theory, which posits that the effects of practice are skill-specific.

In conclusion, we suggest ideas for redesign of the materials. The challenge remains to engineer activities for controlled practice that are meaningful and communicative – in other words, activities that catalyse genuinely task-based language practice. A fairly simple trick on the level of the mini-games would be to add an activity that tests comprehension of the items that are presented in the grammaticality judgment tasks. Failure to respond to these comprehension questions could undo the points gathered while performing grammaticality judgments. Next, the potential of the mystery text for

meaningful language processing could be enhanced by truly involving learners as detectives in the story, rather than as readers who are supposed to identify with the main character. This could be done by creating interactive versions of the text with authoring tools for interactive fiction such as Inform (Aikin, 2009). Moreover, building in alternative ways of moving through the text could even create information gaps between learners, which can be exploited in pair work for productive communicative interaction. Finally, perhaps ways can be found to engineer mini-games for spoken language practice. The OEIT, used in this study as a transfer test, is a primary candidate for such practice, especially if robust automatic speech recognition technologies can be used to elicit, structure, and give feedback on spoken language.

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The practice activity contains a still from the film noir project *The Big Smoke* (copyright 2012 Kenneth Gawne). Icons are from the Coquette icon set.

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Lieve De Wachter, Jordi Heeren & Kirsten Fivez

KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium

lieve.dewachter@ilt.kuleuven.be - jordi.heeren@ilt.kuleuven.be -
kirsten.fivez@ilt.kuleuven.be

Meaningful and enjoyable writing tasks in an academic writing workshop through observation of peers

Bio data

Lieve De Wachter teaches academic writing and presentational skills at the faculties of Social Sciences and Arts. She is promotor several projects such as a digital platform for academic Dutch and a Writing Aid Dutch.

Jordi Heeren works as a project assistant at the KU Leuven. He is responsible for the development of academic language supporting initiatives such as a digital learning environment and language workshops.

Kirsten Fivez teaches academic writing and Dutch as a second language at the KU Leuven.

Current research

Many academic writing and learning centres around the world are concerned about the entry-level academic writing skills of undergraduate students. Academic language skills have been shown to be powerful predictors of academic achievement in general (Van Dyk, 2004; Van Dyk, 2010; De Wachter & Heeren, 2013; De Wachter et al., 2013) on the condition that linguistic strategies (reading, inferring meaning from context, insights in text structure) rather than more 'elementary' language aspects (spelling, basic grammar) are tested. The aim of our research is to develop effective tutoring for at-risk students at the start of their first year at the university. These students are selected by a valid and reliable academic literacy test that shows a significant correlation with academic achievement (De Wachter et al. 2013).

A needs analysis carried out among first year students of KU Leuven (Belgium) revealed that writing is the most difficult skill to master at the start of an academic career (De Wachter & Heeren, 2012). Students consider it as something typical of school, similar to filling in a form; they find it difficult to see writing as a process (Bonset & Braaksma 2007). In the writing tutoring sessions observational learning is used to create a meaningful and enjoyable writing task that stimulates writing as a process within the academic genre. Observation can also be implemented in L2-writing instruction, since writing processes in L1 and L2 are strongly related (van Weijen et al., 2008), but the workshops focus on weaker L1-writers. The observation is followed by a collaborative writing task in which students can put the acquired strategies into practice in a safe and strong learning environment.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In our presentation on task design we will discuss two specific writing tasks in a series of writing workshops at the KU Leuven. The workshops take place in the first weeks of the academic year and are aimed at linguistically weak students. The two tasks, an

observational learning task followed by a collaborative writing task, focus on writing strategy development of weak writers. In both methods the students' main focus is on their peers; the teacher has an important coaching function. To create a meaningful but feasible writing assignment in this early stage of the students' academic career, the tasks were based on an essential skill: to synthesise (visual) information into a text. However, before they had to write, the students observed a video of two of their peers. In our lecture we will show how the screen-capture software *Camtasia* is used to produce these videos.

Observational learning was developed by Albert Bandura and later on applied in broader domains such as writing instruction (Rijlaarsdam et al. 2008, Raedts et al. 2009). Its main aspect is modeling in which students learn a skill by observing the activities of a model (Raedts et al. 2009). Important is that not only the models' actions, but also their underlying thought patterns are made explicit. This way, weak writers can focus on their learning process instead of combining the actions of 'writing' and 'learning-to-write' (Rijlaarsdam 2005, Rijlaarsdam et al. 2008). Moreover, it stimulates the self-efficacy beliefs of the writers (Schunk & Zimmerman 2007), which makes the task more enjoyable. After the observation, students write a similar text in groups of two or three. This is called co-writing (Saunders 1989) or reactive collaborative writing (Lowry, Curtis & Lowry 2004). It forces them to explicitly state their strategies to each other. The preceding observation makes sure that students have the correct metacognitive framework to do so.

Both a qualitative and a quantitative study have been carried out to measure the effectiveness of the intervention. The qualitative study, an online questionnaire four months after the intervention, indicates that the majority of students perceive the workshops as useful for their writing practice. A one-group quantitative study in which the quality of students' texts was rated, shows that the 32 students that participated significantly improved on four higher order text concerns: 'text coherence', 'paragraph structure', 'neutral style' and 'impersonal style'. Due to the one group design, no generalizable inferences can be made. However, the developers of the language coaching program can deduce essential information about the short-term evolution in the quality of the writing products of this specific group.

To conclude, observational learning helps weaker university students to develop their writing strategies in a natural and enjoyable manner that does not lead to a cognitive overload. Moreover, the combination of the observation with collaborative writing tries to entrench the acquired strategies in an effective way. In our presentation we will focus on the design and implementation of both tasks in writing classes.

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Melinda Dooly* & Randall Sadler**

Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain*
University of Illinois Urbana Champaign, Urbana, United States**

melinda.dooly@uab.cat - rsadler@illinois.edu

The design process of a technology-enhanced teacher education flipped classroom: a case study

Bio data

Melinda Dooly holds a Serra Húnter fellowship as teacher and researcher at the Education Faculty of the Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona (Spain) where she teaches English as a Foreign Language Methodology (TEFL) and research methods courses. Her principal research addresses technology-enhanced project-based language learning in teacher preparation. Her current research interest is in project-based telecollaborative language learning and very young learners.

Randall Sadler is an Associate Professor of Linguistics at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, where he teaches courses on Computer-Mediated Communication and Language Learning (CMCLL), Virtual Worlds and Language Learning (VWLL) and Teaching of Second Language Reading and Writing. His main research focus is on the role of technology in language learning, with a particular focus on how Virtual Worlds may be used to enhance that process.

Current research

The context of this study is a course on technology and language learning for future ESL/EFL teachers in which a flipped class approach was utilized. This project took the flipped classroom concept and applied it to Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC)-enhanced collaborative teacher training between future ESL/EFL instructors located at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign and Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona. The flipped classroom tasks, which were carried out between the partner groups, involved weekly online synchronous and asynchronous interaction over the period of one semester. The flipped class materials were designed to push students to become responsible for their own learning, with the professors moving from the traditional "sage on the stage" role to that of the "guide on the side" (King, 1993). The three main systems of learning (in-class, telecollaborative and flipped materials) were symbiotic in that each system reinforced the other through reception, discussion and reflection, thus bridging the gap between theory and practice. The data corpus consists of different qualitative and quantitative sources such as self and peer formative and summative assessment, teacher assessment and student opinion surveys (mid-term and at the end of the course) and student-teacher final output.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Flipped classrooms are becoming increasingly more popular, however the oft-cited effects of instantaneous enhanced learner autonomy and immediately transformed student-centred classes are not an automatic reality. The peer support provided through online collaboration can help learners become more self-sufficient learners, increase the amount of dialogic learning and improve the possibilities of transfer of conceptual knowledge to empirical work in the classroom. The authors' previous experience and research into

telecollaboration (based on sustained online exchange for over a decade) proved to be key for the incorporation of a flipped classroom approach to the already existent technology-enhanced online exchange between the two courses.

Short paper

Introduction

As educational approaches to language teaching evolve to include both technology and innovative teaching paradigms for the 21st century, teachers are increasingly expected to be able to create engaging learning environments that appeal to students with highly developed digital competences (AACTE & P21, 2010). A flipped classroom approach (now sometimes called 'flipped learning', see Sams, et al., 2014) has often been cited as a means of moving students towards more autonomous, self-directed learning that coincides with needed 21st century skills.

The flipped classroom is known by various names including the inverted classroom, and more simply, the flip. ... The lecture format has varied and evolved from slides, audio, podcasts, or narrated presentations, to video casts that may also incorporate animations, screen captures, and other multimedia content. The classroom component is varied as well, with different learning expectations, engagement techniques, levels of student autonomy.... (Arnold-Garza, 2014, p. 7)

Indeed, flipped learning that makes optimal use of technology can enhance task-based teaching but this requires teacher know-how of effective instructional practices in order to create coherently sequenced tasks (both in and out of class) that ensure meta-cognitive scaffolding. The flipped materials and activities, as well as the follow-up activities (whether carried out during online telecollaboration or in-class) have limited value unless students have a real understanding of the underlying purpose of the tasks at hand. Teachers must design intricately meshed tasks that support the identified learning goals; that promote group awareness of the importance of collaborative learning; that ensure knowledge acquisition and promote positive attitude development.

The concept of task for flipped learning cannot be seen as an individual, stand-alone activity. This, in turn, inevitably means detailed planning by the teacher before beginning the course that will incorporate flipped classroom materials within a coherent long-term learning project. Meticulous design is needed not only because of the prerequisite of preparing the 'flipped' materials such as videos but also due to the necessity of creating a seamless learning environment that allows the student to make connections between the preliminary materials and the in-class activities. If telecollaboration is added to the mix it becomes even more imperative to have both macro- and micro-planning of the entire course.

The positive results of the use of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) to connect student-teachers in empirical situations that allow them to experience learning similar to possible scenarios of their future students has been well documented (e.g., Trentin, 1997; Lord & Lomicka, 2007). The three approaches used in this project (task-based, telecollaborative and flipped classroom) have been researched individually; however a 'blended pedagogy' that attempts to combine them has had less exposure. Following over a decade of telecollaborative exchange between the two classrooms in this project, the teacher participants felt the need to 'push the envelope' in a way that challenged both the teacher/researchers and the student-teachers to re-examine the best way to sequence technology-enhanced project-orientated language learning tasks (Thomas & Reinders, 2012) to best meet the upcoming demands of today's digital society.

Context

The two teacher educator/researchers, one based in the USA and the other in Spain, first began collaborating with their language teacher education courses in 2003. They met

'online' in the summer of 2003 through a mutual contact. The collaboration began with a small component of both courses consisting of principally email exchanges in the Autumn semester of 2004. The courses involved were: *Network-Based Language Teaching*, (USA class) and *Interlinguistics* (class in Spain). A review of the technology available at the time of the first exchange reveals that Google, Blogger and Wikipedia were available (started in 1998, 1999 and 2002 respectively) but were not widely known, especially in the case of the Spanish students. Facebook, Second Life, LinkedIn, PBwiki (now PBworks) and Skype were launched the same year as the first exchange (2004); Ning and YouTube were launched in 2005 and Twitter in 2006.

Until 2008, there was no Internet access in the Spanish class and special provisions had to be arranged for the computer lab, located at a considerable distance from the regular classroom. The UIUC course at that time was already being taught in a computer lab.

The participants from the USA and from Spain were in teacher education, studying to become language teachers (the languages varied and some were studying to become L1 or L2 teachers, others foreign languages). The students at UAB were in their first degree of teaching while the UIUC students were at the Masters level. Neither of the groups were homogeneous – in the case of Spain students were principally from the Barcelona area (some Catalan speakers as their L1, others Spanish) but there were also European exchange students. In the case of the UIUC, students were predominantly international students from all over the world. These characteristics of the students have remained constant over the decade of telecollaborative exchange.

As the knowledge base and experience of the teacher educators grew over the years (along with their confidence in setting up and sustaining telecollaborative learning situations), the telecollaborative exchange gradually developed into more integrated class content and the focus on telecollaboration shifted from being peripheral to become the central nexus for the learning process. In this way, future language teachers were expected to actively engage in communicative online situations that promoted learning (content and language) so that they could then reflect on how they could transfer this knowledge to similar contexts for their pupils. By 2009 the two teacher-educators designed their course programme together (even though they are presented in each university programme as different subjects with their own codes), with the same activities, objectives and similar evaluation process that even include peer evaluation across international borders. In recognition of the sustained collaboration, the two universities signed statements of 'mutual agreement of collaboration for teaching and research' which provided further support to the continuity of the teaching approach.

Incorporation of Flipped Materials into Telecollaborative Process

From 2009 onwards, the pedagogical focus of the telecollaborative exchange shifted from brief exposure to the use of technology for language use to fully integrated, reflective practice of collaborative learning, facilitated through technology. The students of both classes now share core content in their programmes (despite being registered in different universities on separate continents) and over 75% of collaborative work takes place between distanced peers online (the courses now use 'flipped class' activities integrated into the telecollaborative exchange so that the students are expected to use technology for individual work at home which prepares them for collaborative work online which, in turn, feeds directly into the in-class activities and discussions held at each campus on different sides of the world.

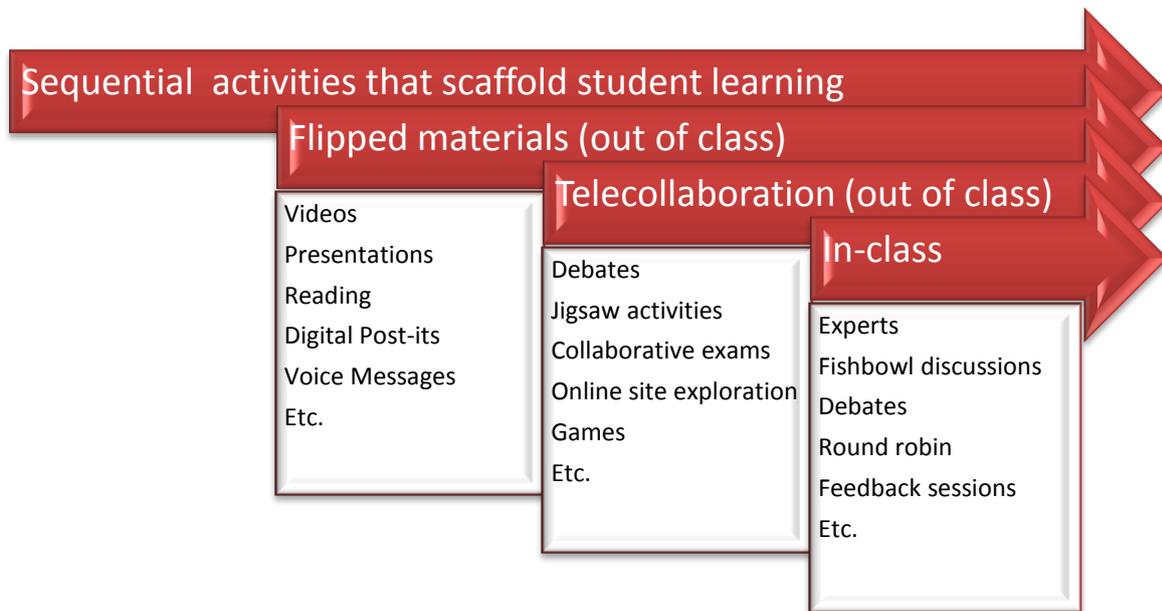


Figure 7. Integration of flipped materials, telecollaboration and in-class tasks

Most flipped classroom literature discusses the use of videos as the principal (at times only) material for the students to engage with before coming to class. Videos are used in the UAB/UIUC collaboration as well (maximum 10 minutes each), but a much wider range of materials (as seen in Figure 1) are incorporated into the flipped telecollaborative practices. This ensures a greater variety in the activities, a wider diversity of participant configuration and a higher number of technological platforms the students are exposed to. It also implies a move away from simply 'flipping' the timing of 'lectures' (videos of teachers talking, even if cut to ten minutes and seen at home are still, in the end, teacher-centred lectures). The use of telecollaborative peer groups facilitates other types of flipped activities that move away from lectures, such as jigsaw-puzzle tasks based on individually assigned texts, viewing of partially completed presentations or collaboration on online exams (created by the students themselves in a previous online meetings).

The following figures 2, 3 and 4 provide a glimpse into the way in which the online (individual engagement with flipped materials and telecollaborative activities) and in-class activities were sequenced to most effectively scaffold the student-teachers' self-directed learning process. Figure 2 shows the results of an online activity done early-to-mid semester (carried out in the online bulletin board *Linoit*) that required a) reading a text, b) highlighting the most relevant points, c) searching for and proposing further supporting materials and d) finally posing a 'burning question' that they, as future teachers, felt was still unanswered (names of students have been marked out for anonymity).



Figure 2. Students' posting of reflection, suggested materials and questions

This activity was followed in a few weeks by telecollaborative discussions of questions that had been selected from the ones proposed (the teachers combined similar questions to come up with a manageable number of relevant questions).

The following week, after individual, 'flipped' work and online discussions, the students were asked to engage in further dialogical learning in class. Figure 3 provides three slides from the in-class PowerPoint presentation giving instructions for discussion groups. Before this interaction sequence, the students had been given a chance to discuss their assigned text with others who had read the same article. Each group had been previously divided so that each text was represented by at least one person.

<p>SUMMARIES</p> <p>Each of you 'represents' a different text. You are responsible for making sure your mates (who have not read the text) fully understand the content of the article.</p> <p><u>Each of you has 5 minutes (maximum) to explain your main points. This requires EXPLAINING succinctly (not reading your notes)</u></p>	<p>DISCUSSION (20 MINUTES)</p> <p>Now that you are all familiar with all of the texts, discuss these points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are 2 theoretical points that are new for you? • What are 2 practical points that are new for you? • What are 3 most important points that you have learnt? (LEARN, not confirmed about something you already knew) • Is there still 1 'burning' question for each text? <p>Someone in the group should take notes about this discussion (if you want to do it directly online that's fine).</p>	<p>STOP & ASSESS</p> <p>You should now come up to the desk and take a peer assessment sheet. Please sit apart from your partners to fill it in. Remember, you are now wearing your 'teacher hat' and should provide good evaluative comments about their performance as like-minded teachers.</p> <p>Considering that this was a group effort, you need to think carefully about how well you feel your partners were prepared (and therefore able to contribute to the co-construction of knowledge).</p> <p>When you have finished, leave the evaluation face down on my desk, then you are free for a short break.</p>
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Figure 3. Instructions for in-class interactions for dialogic learning

As the students carried out the activities, the iteration of the content afforded more opportunities for 'deep learning' (Lynch, Mannix McNamara, & Seery, 2012), obliged them to be prepared with the materials by giving them the responsibility of 'teaching' their peers about texts that the others had not read, encouraged them to reflect on their own learning process by explicitly stating what they had learnt as well as verbalizing questions they still had. This task also allowed the teacher-educators to cull the questions towards more theoretical aspects which were then integrated into the online collaborative exam (figure 4).

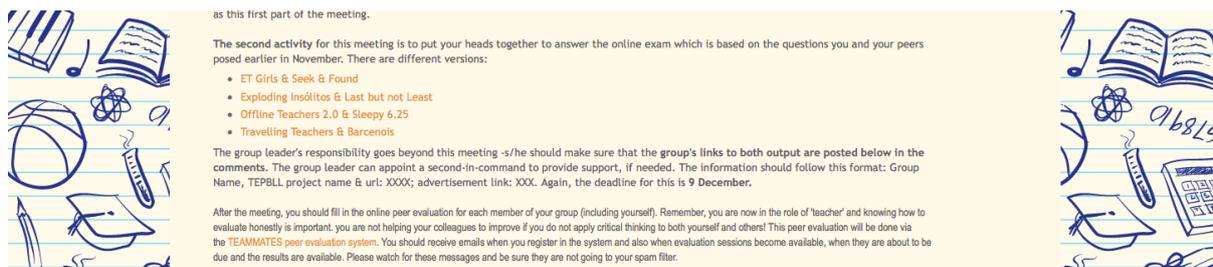


Figure 4. Instructions for telecollaborative exam

Transcription of online activity design (figure 4):

The second activity for this meeting is to put your heads together to answer the online exam which is based on the questions you and your peers posed earlier in November. There are different versions:

- ET Girls & Seek & Found
- Exploding Insólitos & Last but not Least
- Offline Teachers 2.0 & Sleepy 6.25
- Travelling Teachers & Barcenais

The group leader's responsibility goes beyond this meeting -s/he should make sure that the **group's links to both output are posted below in the comments**. The group leader can appoint a second-in-command to provide support, if needed. The information should follow this format: Group Name, TEPBLL project name & url: XXXX; advertisement link: XXX. Again, the deadline for this is **9 December**.

After the meeting, you should fill in the online peer evaluation for each member of your group (including yourself). Remember, you are now in the role of 'teacher' and knowing how to evaluate honestly is important. You are not helping your colleagues to improve if you do not apply critical thinking to both yourself and others!

Moreover, it important to note that the process of peer evaluation was continuous across all the activities, telecollaborative and in-class, and included opportunities for mates to indicate how well prepared their partners had been (thus providing indicators of the engagement they had had with the flipped class materials). This further supported the students' growing awareness of the need to be responsible for their own learning, which is a principal foundation of both the flipped classroom approach (Arnold-Garza, 2014; Enfield, 2013; Overmeyer, 2012) and telecollaboration (O'Rourke, 2007; Ushioda, 2000; Warschauer & Kern, 2000).

Final words

The integration of complex online participant configurations (individual, pair and group work) that are usually restricted to in-class activities that can be monitored by teachers implies a greater autonomy on behalf of the students. Increased student responsibility and the fundamental role of collaboration are considered to be so important in the UIUC-UAB collaboration process that all students are asked to sign two contracts – one indicating their understanding of the critical importance of student autonomy for the flipped classroom approach and another that details the essential elements of the telecollaborative component of the course.

To promote continual development of student responsibility and autonomy of learning, the descriptors found in the contracts pertaining to expected behavior and attitudes are used for self and peer assessment after each weekly telecollaborative activity and then at the end of the course. This helps maintain a balance between students feeling that they don't have enough guidance during telecollaboration or a course that is overly teacher

centred. This makes it clear that participation in *all* elements of the sequential activities (see Figure 1) of the course are key to the learning process.

Students' entries in self-reflection journals indicate that the learners not only completed the 'terms of the contracts' but were also explicitly aware of how much they had developed their own autonomy to direct their learning and resolve problems associated with the type of interactional environments considered to be inevitable in both work and leisure in today's knowledge society

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Carolina Egúsquiza

Universiteit Antwerpen, Antwerp, Belgium

cdegusquiza@gmail.com

Task design for intercultural communication in Business Spanish MOOC modules

Bio data

Carolina Egusquiza is a PhD researcher at the University of Antwerp, Belgium. Her educational background is in Foreign Language Education, Educational Technology, Linguistics and Literature. Carolina's research interests involve instructional Design, Intercultural Communication and Language MOOCs. She also collaborates with the U. of Florida's Network of Business Language Educators (NOBLE) project to promote language learning across the disciplines and to help train future Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) teachers.

Current research

My current research involves task design for intercultural communication in Business Spanish MOOC modules. For the purpose of this study, students of different backgrounds and institutions will engage in language and intercultural exchange and will complete tasks individually and collaboratively in a MOOC learning environment, using selected online communication tools. We will measure the students' perception of usefulness and acceptance of the MOOC learning environment and the selected online communication tools, using recognized design models such as the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT).

Task-based language learning and teaching

What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?

One of the challenges of the Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) field and in this particular case, of Business Spanish courses, has been the lack of appropriate materials for a specific target audience in specific learning contexts (Buyse, 2011; Galová, 2007; Varela Méndez, 2007; Balteiro, 2007; Cassany, 2003). Business Spanish courses need to be redesigned in order to stay relevant to current (international) business programs and to students' future professional careers (Vangehuchten, 2014). Vangehuchten's (2013) analysis of five Business Spanish manuals published between 2006 and 2009 reveal their rather limited and implicit approach to incorporating cultural and intercultural topics, in some cases absent in the prologue and objectives of the manual. As Intercultural Competence (IC) training increasingly becomes an important component of foreign language and LSP courses, language teachers need to be equipped with knowledge, skills and competences to effectively integrate IC practices within language learning settings. This includes sample material and tasks that teachers can easily adapt to their own teaching situations. The design of flexible, online modules with intercultural communication tasks could be a valid addition to face-to-face or online Business Spanish courses, since they would offer students the opportunity to explore intercultural content and to engage in authentic online conversation with students of different backgrounds and institutions who take a similar course.

Language MOOCs are a recent phenomenon that give students a protagonist role in their learning (Bárcena & Martín Monje, 2014). Students can determine their own structure for

completion and the content they need to master (Haug, et al., 2014). However, MOOCs are not designed to empower learners or to promote collaborative learning experiences (Moreira Teixeira & Mota, 2014). It is a matter of designing the right tasks to engage MOOC students in such collaborative opportunities with people across borders. Designing an LMOOC should involve the selection of the most appropriate platform, based on the comparison of several MOOC platforms, according to specific evaluation criteria. Additionally, it should involve the specification of the needed functionalities to complete the designed tasks, based on the comparison of the required functionalities and the functionalities afforded by the MOOC platform. This careful evaluation can contribute to the selection of the best possible or optimal online learning environment to carry out a particular task-based LMOOC for a particular purpose.

Short paper

Introduction

'Communication in foreign languages' and 'Cultural awareness and expression' are defined as two of the eight key competences for lifelong learning in the knowledge society, necessary for "personal fulfillment and development, social inclusion, active citizenship and employment" in the 21st century (European Commission, 2012: 6). Universities are a logical place where students can practice and strengthen a variety of skills and competences to play meaningful roles in society (Flammia & Sadri, 2009). In this context, the concept of *interculturality* has grown into an essential component of the language teaching and learning process (Dervin, 2010). "Intercultural competence, which is the expected outcome of the insertion of interculturality in language learning and teaching, is a vital competence in our contemporary world, especially (but not exclusively) for specialists involved in mediating between people (diplomats, language teachers, consultants, journalists, translators...)" (Dervin, 2010: 158). In turn, interculturality involves integrating "[K]nowledge, awareness and understanding of the relation (similarities and distinctive differences) between the 'world of origin' and the 'world of the target community'" (CEFR, 2001: 103).

The aim of this article is to present our ongoing research on task design for intercultural communication in Business Spanish MOOC modules. For the purpose of this study, students of different backgrounds and institutions will engage in language and intercultural exchange and will carry on tasks in a MOOC learning environment, using selected online communication tools. In this particular paper we will describe the rationale, objectives and methodology of the study with a view to receiving substantiated feedback from our peers.

Higher Education Business Spanish courses in a globalized context

"[G]lobalization changes the conditions in which language learning and language teaching take place" (Block & Cameron, 2002, 1-2). Foreign language courses and programs are increasingly becoming a significant component of other discipline areas, in the form of Languages for Specific Purposes (LSP) courses. For example, current higher education (International) Business related programs often offer a mandatory LSP component for which students have to master one or more foreign languages.

The LSP field has been mainly associated with practical, communicative goals of language learning, to be used in professional contexts. According to Huckin (2003), what sets LSP apart from general language teaching "has been its focus on specific, purposeful uses of language. Not language for its own sake, but rather particular uses of it for particular ends. The language learner is assumed to be studying a language for a certain practical need; the curriculum designer uses needs analysis to determine what particular features of the target language should be taught; and the language teacher then focuses on those features" (4-5).

Cassany (2003) makes a clear distinction between Spanish for Specific Purposes courses (SSP), which are offered within an institution or university and within a professional context such as a private or public organization where employees are trained in a language for their particular professional context. Certainly, organizations will tailor language courses to meet the very specific target language needs of their employees. In this context, it is impossible to find manuals and didactic materials in the market that meet the specific needs of these target groups (Cassany, 2003). In general, the lack of common methodologies and of target specific, appropriate manuals and material constitutes one of the main challenges in the LSP field (Buyse, 2011; Galová, 2007; Varela Méndez, 2007; Balteiro, 2007; Cassany, 2003). University courses, on the other hand, will focus on a more generalized approach of each specialized language, in other words, a more generalized approach to teaching Business Spanish, as we see in the existing Professional Spanish manuals (Cassany, 2003). As these manuals are intended for worldwide use, the content leaves a lot to be desired. Vangehuchten's (2013) analysis of five Business Spanish manuals published between 2006 and 2009 reveal their rather limited and implicit approach to incorporating cultural and intercultural topics, in some cases absent in the objectives and prologue of the manual. In addition, three of the five manuals are restricted to an exclusively Spanish point of view when treating business abroad, which isolates Latin American business matters.

Intercultural communication has become a key skill for all employees (Harris et. al, 2004). Therefore, the need to raise cultural awareness and to infuse intercultural training in LSP learning contexts has gained momentum in the last decade. Arnó-Macià & Rueda-Ramos (2011), defend the impact of LSP courses towards the strengthening of global competences, from a broad, humanistic, intercultural, social, and ethical perspective. Michael Byram's publications have been highly influential to this end. He has suggested definitions, objectives, models and assessment alternatives to integrate Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) training within foreign language teaching and learning contexts. The role and significance of Intercultural Communication across business and corporate communication have become the subject of prolific, interdisciplinary research among various fields such as linguistics, LSP, corporate communication, communication theory, etc. (Harvey, 2002). Stadler (2011) shares different examples of how business people and exchange students, with a reasonable to high command of a foreign language, experienced difficulties and conflict during their international endeavors mainly due to social and cultural mismatches. On the other hand, the lack of cultural and intercultural training leads to the reinforcement of learner's stereotypes, "preconceptions and misconceptions of foreign people and cultures" (in Stadler, 2011: 263).

In practice, the objectives of Intercultural Competence (IC) building, not to mention assessment and material development for IC, remain a challenging, often unexplained task many teachers are unable to tackle and incorporate in their practices (Stadler, 2011). Dervin (2010) explains that despite the work, publications and projects of the European Council in terms of internationalization and interculturality, IC has not been fully integrated into foreign language education in HE. This fact might have to do with 'philological traditions', 'academic freedom' and staff's own research interests (In Dervin 2010: 57). Dervin (2010) adds that in cases when IC is integrated into the curriculum, the concept may still not be fully understood by teachers and students, who may share ambiguous interpretations of IC. Language teachers, consequently, need to be equipped with knowledge, skills and competences to effectively integrate IC practices within language learning settings.

With this in mind, Business Spanish courses need to be redesigned to stay relevant to current (international) business programs and to students' future professional careers (Vangehuchten, 2014). An approach that integrates linguistic, (inter)cultural and interdisciplinary content in Business Spanish courses is a valid solution. The design of flexible, online modules with intercultural communication tasks could be a valid addition to face-to-face or online Business Spanish courses, since they would offer students the

opportunity to explore intercultural content and to engage in online conversation with students of different backgrounds who take a similar course.

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs): Challenges and opportunities

MOOCs are an emerging phenomenon for online teaching and learning in formal education, lifelong learning and non-formal training (Bárcena & Martín Monje, 2014). MOOCs evolved from the concept of Open Educational Resources (OERs), which are free and open teaching and learning materials accessible on the web (Bárcena & Martín Monje, 2014). Since *The New York Times* declared 2012 as "The Year of the MOOC" (Pappano, 2012), the number of institutions launching their first MOOCs has grown enormously. The methodology behind MOOCs is fully learner-centered. The learner possesses a 'protagonist role' (Bárcena & Martín Monje, 2014), prioritizes content, decides which activities to master and determines his own schedule and structure for completion (Haug, et al., 2014).

Language MOOCs or LMOOCs are online courses for the teaching and learning of foreign languages that follow MOOC principles in terms of open accessibility and unlimited participation (Bárcena & Martín Monje, 2014). MOOCs have been mainly categorized in cMOOCs or 'connectivist' MOOCs (Downes, 2008) and xMOOCs. Lane (2012) has opted for a triad model to classify MOOCs: Network-based, task-based and content-based, where each type of MOOC has a dominant goal among the three elements (networks, tasks, and content). Network-based MOOCs main "goal is not so much content and skills acquisition, but conversation, socially constructed knowledge, [exploration], and exposure to the milieu of learning on the open web" (Lane, 2012). This relates to Downes' connectivist learning approach. Task-based MOOCs focus on skills and the learners have to complete certain tasks or types of work. Community is essential but it is not the primary goal. They combine instructivist and constructivist pedagogies. Content-based MOOCs follow an instructivist approach. These courses have massive enrollments and can be quite commercial ('big' university professors, recognized universities, media exposure). Content acquisition is prioritized and traditional, automated testing is emphasized (Lane, 2012).

On the one hand, the MOOC movement is an opportunity for language teachers to 'get it right' by "[capturing] the best of what we know about language learning as well as the best of what we know about online educational experiences, especially the successes and failures of previous MOOCs" (Sokolik, 2014). LMOOCs offer the opportunity 1/ to interact with other students, language experts and native speakers, which could accelerate the language learning process (Moreira & Mota, 2014; Read, 2014), 2/ to get individualized feedback (Read, 2014; Rubio, 2014), 3/ to develop digital literacy through digital autonomous practices (Álvarez, 2014), and 4/ to develop productive and interactive competences (Read, 2014). In addition, Álvarez (2014) suggests that the large student population could help foster discussion and critical reflection on human values and linguistic and (inter)cultural aspects of language learning.

On the other hand, the main challenges associated with MOOCs are that they have been mainly initiatives of 'elitist' universities, that they attract well-educated individuals who are motivated (Colpaert, 2014), their high dropout rates, the massive number and heterogeneity of students (Bárcena, et al., 2014), and that students have to get used to the learning environment and deal with technical difficulties (Beaven, et al., 2015). In addition, most platforms are not designed to offer different sets of communication tools needed for language learning, even basic features and functionalities (Colpaert, 2014; Sokolik, 2014). Integrated options for collaborative group work to practice oral skills remain a challenge (Read, 2013). LMOOCs are not designed to empower learners or to promote collaborative learning experiences (Moreira Teixeira & Mota, 2014). In fact, little or no attention has been given to the design principles and process of existing LMOOCs (Colpaert, 2014). Colpaert (2014) states that "the design of LMOOCs and MOOCs in general mainly reflects the design of the tool used, assuming some globally applicable

learning and teaching model. There is not even adaptation to the subject matter, let alone the targeted user group". In other words, a single MOOC platform is being used to offer courses in all subject areas, without differentiation in design and functionalities according to discipline.

Is language learning, then, the best candidate for a MOOC? Which functionalities should a Language MOOC offer? How do we select the most appropriate platform to implement an LMOOC? In fact, the most popular MOOC platforms such as Coursera and edX did not originally offer language learning MOOCs. Up to now, their language learning course offerings are minimal, compared to other subject areas such as Computer Science and E-learning (Bárcena, et al., 2013). Bárcena et al. (2013) differentiate between courses that focus on particular language skills but are not language learning MOOCs, for example, 'Fundamentos de la escritura en español' (Tecnológico de Monterrey via Coursera) and 'Introduction to Public Speaking' (University of Washington via edX). It depends on whether the course is intended for a target audience mainly composed of foreign language learners or not. This will normally be stated in the objectives of the course or the course presentation page or video trailer. The course 'Essentials for English Speeches and Presentations' offered by Peking University via Coursera is a language learning MOOC because it clearly states that is intended for Chinese English learners and the language of instruction is Chinese and English.

Language learning might in fact not be the best candidate to carry out a MOOC just in 'any' generalized online learning platform or Learning Management System (LMS). To this end, according to Pernías (2013), there is no 'better' platform out there, but instead, there are platforms that are more 'appropriate' than others for particular reasons. As Siemens (2012) states, MOOCs are basically platforms, so "[t]he value of MOOCs may not be the MOOCs themselves, but rather the plethora of new innovations and added services that are developed when MOOCs are treated as a platform." (para. 10). In other words, there are certain tools and open resources that can be added to certain, flexible MOOC platforms. Nonetheless, many LMOOCs have been launched in platforms that, as Colpaert (2014) states, are not designed to even offer basic features needed for language learning. In addition, many professors might be encouraged to use the platform or LMS their university is currently affiliated to or is currently developing, in order to carry out their MOOC. In such cases, language professors might have to use alternative, external tools to fulfill the shortcomings of the platform.

Designing an LMOOC should involve the selection of the most appropriate platform, based on the comparison of several MOOC platforms, according to specific evaluation criteria. Additionally, it should involve the specification of the needed functionalities to complete the designed tasks, based on the comparison of the required functionalities and the functionalities afforded by the MOOC platform. This careful evaluation can contribute to the selection of the best possible or optimal online learning environment to carry out a particular task-based LMOOC for a particular purpose.

Designing intercultural communication tasks for a Business Spanish MOOC

Universities must "promote an international outlook among the 85% of students who are not mobile, so that they too acquire the international skills required in a globalised world. This means universities need to develop international curricula, promote language skills and expand digital learning" (European Commission, 2013: 1). Computer-mediated learning environments such as MOOCs can potentially be a form to exploit *virtual mobility*, defined as a "form of learning which consists of virtual components through an ICT supported learning environment that includes cross-border collaboration with people from different backgrounds and cultures working and studying together, having, as its main purpose, the enhancement of intercultural understanding and the exchange of knowledge" (In Bijmens et al., 2006: 5). It is a matter of designing the right tasks to engage MOOC students and participants in such collaborative opportunities with people across borders.

Our aim for this study is to design a MOOC module with a number of intercultural communication tasks to be completed by Business Spanish students across different countries and educational institutions, who take or have taken an equivalent course. Students will complete the tasks individually and collaboratively, and they will communicate and exchange ideas and thoughts by means of the selected online communication tools offered by the platform.

The methodology consists of 1/ needs analysis and task design based on psychological, didactic and linguistic criteria 2/ comparison of different MOOC platforms based on specific evaluation criteria in order to select the most appropriate platform and the best possible MOOC learning environment, 3/ justifying the specificities of the selected tools, based on the comparison of the required functionalities for task completion and the functionalities afforded by MOOC platforms 4/ real-world test with students and measurement of the students' acceptance and perception of the MOOC learning environment and the selected online communication tools, using recognized design models such as the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) and the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) and 5/ identification of key interventions and evidence of intercultural consciousness in the different forms of online exchange that will take place during the course of the MOOC.

We hope that such a MOOC modular course is not only an opportunity for Business Spanish students to engage in a one-time language and intercultural experience, but that it constitutes the first of many *virtual mobility* opportunities, where students are given a computer-mediated space to exchange knowledge, to increase intercultural relations and to collaborate with students around the world. We also hope that language teachers can benefit from the content and the tasks and are able to adapt them and reuse them in their own teaching contexts. Finally, we invite teachers to spread the word among Business Spanish students to participate in our upcoming MOOC.

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Christine Fourie

Universiteit Antwerpen, Antwerpen, Belgium

Christine.Fourie@student.uantwerpen.be

Putting a face on the dynamic nature of tasks

Bio data

Christine Fourie studied Afrikaans literature and linguistics as well as English literature at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa, where she also qualified as a high school teacher. After returning from teaching assignments in the United States and the UK, she has taught different academic language courses at the University of Stellenbosch. Currently she is enrolled as a PhD-student at the University of Antwerp, Belgium.

Current research

My PhD-research is focussing on elements from student/learner data which are to inform a taxonomy for raising metacognitive awareness in second language communication for specific (medical) purposes. The primary case study for the research is first year South African medical students whom completed a communication course in Afrikaans, which is one of the eleven official languages in South Africa. Apart from using a blended approach that utilises an online platform for autonomous learning as well as face-to-face teaching (Van de Poel & Fourie, 2013), a Facebook group was also created to lower the threshold of online learning (Van de Poel & Fourie 2013; Van de Poel, Fourie & Seberechts 2013). The motivation for raising students' metacognitive awareness is to improve student wellbeing and efficiency - and subsequently achievement on top of intellectual ability (Veenman, Van Hout-Wouters & Afilerbach, 2006). For the purposes of this research metacognition is divided into knowledge about the self, knowledge about the task of learning a language and knowledge about strategies available, as well as procedural knowledge (Flavell, 1979; Schraw, 1998; Tarricone, 2011; Veenman et al., 2006). The South African data were enriched by comparative studies done with first year students studying at the University of Antwerp. The general focus of this presentation will be on raising students' awareness about the task of learning.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In their article De Bot, Lowie and Versper (2007) not only assimilate evidence for the fact that language development can be seen as a complex dynamical system, but also argue the likelihood that in real life the language learning developmental stages differentiate more from learner to learner than what linguists have taken for granted. Encouraging metacognitive awareness is one way to address the challenge of enabling the variety of language learners (Veenman et al., 2006) to approach a complex learning system.

The environment is a dynamic variable in any complex dynamical system. (Juarrero, 2010). In an online learning environment the teacher's role manifests itself in a virtual teacher's voice or task. The extent to which the teacher's voice can be perceived as such can vary considerably. For instance, teachers can maintain their classroom personas in the online learning space, their voices can be assimilated by the collective voices of senior student mentoring groups, or their voices can be completely hidden in the tasks, dissociated from a specific person or group.

This study will consider three English Second Language courses (two at the University of Antwerp, Belgium, and one at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa) where Facebook was introduced as an additional supportive online learning environment.

The focus of the investigation will be on how different complex contexts resulted in three divergent manifestations of the teacher's voice in the Facebook groups as represented by the tasks and the impact hereof on learner needs. Using a qualitative approach, the influence of the teacher's voice on learning needs will be investigated by delineating the metacognitive awareness encouraged by the tasks.

Short paper

In their article De Bot, Lowie and Versper (2007) not only assimilate evidence for the fact that language development can be seen as a complex dynamical system, but also argue the likelihood that in real life the language learning developmental stages differentiate more from learner to learner than what linguists have taken for granted. Encouraging metacognitive awareness is one way to address the challenge of enabling the variety of language learners (Veenman et al., 2006) to approach a complex learning system.

According to Tarricone (2011) task metacognitive knowledge includes two main components: awareness about task information as well as about task demands. Task information refers to awareness about the nature, structure and goal of the task, while task demands refers to the complexity, difficulty and variables associated with different tasks. Flavell (1979) explains that metacognitive knowledge about the task develops through experience.

In an online learning environment the teacher's role manifests itself in a virtual teacher's voice or task. The extent to which the teacher's voice can be perceived as such can vary considerably. For instance, teachers can maintain their classroom personas in the online learning space, their voices can be assimilated by the collective voices of senior student mentoring groups, or their voices can be completely hidden in the tasks, dissociated from a specific person or group.

In their article Fernández and Gil-Rodríguez (2011) agree that social networking sites such as Facebook can function as platforms for learning communities. However, these authors point out that it can be challenging for the teacher to ensure that all students participate in online communities if students are not guided to do so. Even though online communities are very popular, they do not facilitate participation per se, but require of the teacher to guide students to interact and participate. The teacher has to take into account that the environment is a dynamic variable in any complex dynamic (language learning) system (Juarrero, 2010).

The case studies for this research includes three closed Facebook groups which were created in three different second language learning courses for university students. These Facebook groups functioned as additional learning platforms, each in a blended environment alongside face-to-face teaching in the classroom and autonomous online programs.

At the University of Stellenbosch medical first year students have to do a communication course in Afrikaans, which is one of South Africa's eleven official languages and one of the three dominant languages (also English and isiXhosa) in the area. For the students in this case study (N = 35) English was the chosen medium of instruction, though English is the second language for 69% of the students and Afrikaans their third or fourth language.

The purpose of the closed Facebook group (2013), as it was also explained to students, was for it to be a platform where medical vocabulary would be collected and at the same time a platform where students could post questions and comments about the course. The additional purpose behind using the Facebook group was to create an online learning community to lower the threshold of online learning. Based on the experience of teaching a similar group of students the previous year (Van de Poel & Fourie 2013; Van de Poel, Fourie & Seberechts 2013) the prediction was that students would find it challenging to use the autonomous online programme.

The first task set and explained by the lecturer in class was for students to work in pairs and collect and post medical vocabulary linked to a class discussion. The collective Facebook list was reduced, translated where necessary and discussed in class. The second task was similar but only verbs were collected. The final task was not compulsory and students were asked to post an anecdote in the target language, Afrikaans. The compulsory Facebook tasks contributed to 5% of students' final assessment for the course.

All tasks were posted on Facebook by the lecturer who maintained her classroom identity and discourse on the Facebook group. She did not necessarily comment on all student posts, unless the question/issue mentioned directly involved.

At the university of Antwerp in Belgium (2013 – 2014) first year English Proficiency students (N = 119) took part in the All Write course (12 lessons) which deals with the principles of writing and reading in academic contexts. These students all had Dutch as first language and English proficiency level were upper-mediate to advanced.

The printed and discussed course outline, with the objectives, assignments, assessment and timeline, explained that the three take-home assignments (30% of the mark for the course) had to be peer-reviewed by means of the support network which was the Facebook group created for the class. These assignments were integrated with the work done in class. The three assignments had a similar structure and content, for example *Take-Home Assignment 3*:

Post (at least) one question in the All Write Facebook group concerning your assignment (e.g. Does the following argument make sense? Can I improve the style of this sentence in the following way? Is this the most appropriate word to use in this context? Can I change the grammar of this sentence in this way to make it work?). You can also ask your fellow students for tips and tricks concerning particular aspects academic writing.

- *Before you upload your assignment on BB pick the Facebook answer you think was most helpful and write it down below.*

- *Reply to (at least) one question and try to link it to your own text.*

All Facebook posts were monitored by a Masters-student who informed and reported to the lecturer. Though it was explained to the students in the beginning of the course that the group was monitored, the Masters-student's online presence was never visible to the students. The students followed the assignments given in class to post contributions on Facebook.

Second year students of English Proficiency (N =90) at the University of Antwerp (2013 – 2014) had to complete the 12 lesson course *Scribende*, which aimed to enable students to present academic topics in a coherent, argumentative and fluent way. The printed and discussed course outline explained that they would work in groups of six and that the four major assignments (80% of the allocated mark for the course) will require posts on the *Scriboratory*, which was the Facebook group created for this class. For instance, *Assignment 2* reads as follows:

On the Scriboratory upload one interesting/debatable language point which you discovered while writing and contribute to the discussion.

Study your peers' comments both given in class and on the Scriboratory and revise your text accordingly.

In an introduction during the first class it was explained to the students that the group would be monitored by the Scribenders, a group of three Masters- and PhD-students who were also introduced in class. One of the Scribenders explained the purpose of the Scriboratory, which was to establish peer-support and peer-to-peer communication, that students had to regularly visit the Scriboratory for information updates and that contributing on to this forum would benefit their writing. The students also received this information online. The Scribenders shared one Facebook identity which they used for comments and suggestions.

Table 1 below highlights the main similarities and differences between the three Facebook groups. The three groups all had face-to-face teaching in class while the Facebook groups were operating concurrently. In the All-Write group the lecturer was absent from the Facebook group, but students received detailed instructions in class on how to complete the Facebook tasks. Becoming more visible, the lecturer of the Scribende group was represented by a group of post-graduate students who made a few suggestions/posts to encourage and guide the second year students. In contrast, the lecturer of the medical students maintained her classroom persona online.

Table 1: Summary of features about tasks for closed Facebook groups from three different second language university courses

	1st year English Proficiency SL at advanced level	2nd year English Proficiency SL at advanced level	1st year medical communication FL at beginners level
Context for announcing tasks	In class, handouts, Blackboard	In class, handouts, Blackboard	In class, on Facebook
Target language in task description	Only target language	Only target language	Combination of medium of instruction and target language
Role of teacher/lecturer	Absent as person, but guiding voice hidden in instructions (present in face-to-face classroom)	Absent as person, but guiding voice hidden in instructions and represented by participating postgraduate team (present in face-to-face classroom)	Present as participating Facebook member and in face-to-face contact classes
General content of task and instruction	Detailed, informative, integrated with course content	Detailed, informative integrated with course content	Fairly detailed, integrated with course content
Compulsory/ Optional nature of tasks	Compulsory as part of a graded assignment - high risk	Compulsory as part of a graded assignment - high risk	Compulsory and optional -low risk, minor assessment
Use & content generation of target language	Extensive	Extensive	Minimal, more learning support and digital initiation support
Questions and feedback about tasks	- Peer-to-peer communication instructions - Obligatory	- Peer-to-peer communication instructions, obligatory -Peer-to-postgraduate team invitation	- Peer-to-peer invitation - Peer-to-lecturer invitation
Degree of difficulty of required answers	Moderate to challenging	Moderate to challenging	Easy to moderate

Using a qualitative approach and based on the definition for metacognitive awareness about tasks, the instructions on Facebook were analysed and categorized under awareness about task information and awareness about task demands. The metacognitive awareness about the various features of tasks that were encouraged as the students completed tasks on Facebook was then summarised. See Table 2.

Table 2: Raising task metacognitive awareness within a Facebook learning community

Awareness about features of task information	
Nature	Encouraged by task instructions and communication within learning community
Structure	
Goals	
Awareness about features of task demands	
Complexity	Encouraged by task instructions and communication within learning community
Difficulty	
Variables	

Different complex contexts resulted in three divergent manifestations of the teacher's voice in the Facebook groups as represented by the tasks. In each case Facebook provided a platform from which the learning communities could interpret instructions, the structure and goals of tasks. This encouraged metacognitive awareness about task information, which develops through experience (Flavell, 1979). Furthermore, peer-to-peer communication supported students' metacognitive awareness about task demands, because they could discuss and resolve complex problems between each other (see the Antwerp groups). As peer-to-peer communication was obligatory and instructed, the proposition is that the awareness about task demands were also facilitated (indirectly) by tasks. This point of view coincides with that of Fernández and Gil-Rodríguez (2011) who claim that students have to be guided towards participation and peer-to-peer interaction – whether it is by the lecturer's instructions in person, or indirectly via the written instructions of tasks.

Future research will take into account the metacognitive awareness that students display and report upon in order to compile a taxonomy for raising awareness about task metacognition.

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Stephan J. Franciosi

Osaka University, Osaka, Japan

steve.franciosi@gmail.com

Using simulations and flashcard games in task-based language learning**Bio data**

I am an applied linguist and learning technologist practicing and conducting research in Japanese higher education. My current research focus is on digital games and simulations and their effect on language learning outcomes, specifically long-term vocabulary retention and transfer.

Current research

I am interested in exploring the effect of digital game based approaches to foreign language instruction on learning outcomes in terms of target language proficiency—specifically vocabulary retention and transfer. With reference to Chiu, Kao and Reynolds (2012) and Rapeepisarn et al. (2008), I broadly classify learning games as flashcard or simulation games, and further assume that flashcard games are analogous to enabling tasks, and simulation games are analogous to communicative tasks in Littlewood's (2004) categorization of task types. That is, flashcard games are form-focused, train discrete skills and are characterized by repetition, whereas simulation games are meaning-focused, integrate skills and are characterized by interactive narrative and fantasy. According to cognitive accounts of vocabulary learning and retention such as richness of encoding (Kroneisen, Erdfelder, & Buchner, 2013) and connectivity theory (Klimesch, 2013), vocabulary should be retained longer if it is used in collaboratively (communicatively) solving a problem posed by a simulation game compared to when learning exclusively with flashcard games. The reason is that while the latter strengthens connections primarily between linguistic representations of concepts (e.g., matching L1 and TL words), the former extends the associations to encodings of events and narratives which could include multiple sensory-motor and emotive representations. In a word, playing a simulation game may serve to contextualize the TL forms.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Digital Game-Based Learning (DGBL) is fully compatible with TBLL. This is to be expected as the two approaches share many of the same theoretical underpinnings such as constructivism (Kim, 2008; McDonough, 2001; Whitton, 2010) and experiential learning (Garcia-Carbonell, Rising, Montero, & Watts, 2001; Kolb, 1984). As a result of this shared foundation, the parallels are stark. First, definitions of games (Malaby, 2007; Salen & Zimmerman, 2004) correspond closely to definitions of tasks (Ellis, 2003; Oxford, 2006) in that both activities are considered rule-framed and goal-oriented. Second, categorizations of game types (Chiu et al., 2012; Rapeepisarn et al., 2008) match the distinction made between form-focused and meaning-focused task types (Littlewood, 2004). Third, best practices in DGBL and TBLL models are analogous. Both approaches emphasize the central curricular role of the simulation game (in DGBL) or communicative task (in TBLL) in that the ultimate learning goal is improved performance in this activity. One minor difference is that while TBLL scholars may emphasize the use of enabling tasks to support performance in a communicative task (Nunn, 2006), I am not aware of such a discussion among DGBL scholars. However, regarding lessons

incorporating such activities, both DGBL and TBLL emphasize the need for a contextualizing (in DGBL) or pre-task (in TBLL) phase, and a debriefing or post-task phase to frame the central activity (Crookall, 2011; Kriz, 2008; Mills, Smith, & Swain, 2003; Skehan, Xiaoyue, Qian, & Wang, 2012). Thus, DGBL and TBLL are very similar, but there are also some distinctions.

A common assumption may be that a game should be fun and engaging, whereas a learning task need not be. In fact, the original justification for DGBL was that games could be used to improve learner motivation (Prensky, 2001). At the same time, it should not be assumed that every game is fun for every player, nor in truth that every task is tedious for every learner. That said, I find it apparent that game designers are much more successful at creating engaging experiences than task designers. While TBLL practitioners should not lose focus of the educational aspect of their tasks, there are several lessons to be noted from the field of game design. First, the topic of an activity (task or game) should be relevant to the lives and/or interests of the learners. Second, an activity should involve a challenge (obstacle to overcome or problem to solve) that is not mundane or commonly encountered. Third, in the performance of an activity, the learners should be asked to play a role they do not ordinarily have an opportunity to perform in their daily lives. Finally, the learners should have control of the course of an activity, and failure should be a possible outcome. Any differences there are between games and tasks stems from the fact that game designers are motivated to focus strongly on these aspects, whereas task designers have incentive to pay close attention to learning goals. However, task designers may be well advised to give at least some consideration to characteristics of game design as a means of improving learning outcomes through enhanced learner motivation.

Short paper

The mainstream models of Second Language Acquisition, emphasizing application of the target language in authentic communicative contexts (Gass, 2000; Long, 1981), have given rise to the Task-Based Language Learning (TBLL) practicum (Ellis, 2003; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Oxford, 2006). Current applications of this approach distinguish between form-focused enabling tasks for learning and internalizing discrete skills, and meaning-focused communicative tasks for integrating multiple discrete skills (Littlewood, 2004). Nunn (2006) describes a peripheral role of the enabling tasks in that they support learner performance in the communicative task. CALL use in foreign language education has most often entailed drill applications which serve as enabling tasks (Bax, 2003, 2011). Since many of these applications have been referred to as computer "games," there may be an impression that a peripheral supporting role as an enabling task represents the extent of the possible uses of computer games in TBLL. However, my contention is that games can be classified to fit into the TBLL approach in the same manner as tasks, which is based on the learning outcomes they afford. First, I will provide the rationale describing what games are and why they merit attention, then I will present some empirical evidence supporting my proposed framework for using computer games in TBLL.

Comparing Games and Tasks

Games and TBLL tasks are comparable activities according to their respective mainstream definitions. Oxford (2006, p. 96) examines several definitions of tasks revealing recurring groups of apparently interchangeable terms that describe task aspects. One group consists of words such as "(specific) objective," "outcome," or "problem" that a learner must "accomplish," "attain," "achieve" or "overcome." Another such group consists of words such as, "(working) procedure," "process" and "structured endeavor" to describe a course that learners must follow to reach the conclusion of an activity. Oxford summarizes a task as being an "outcome-oriented...behavioral framework," which effectively encompasses both sets of terminology. By the same token,

Salen and Zimmerman (2004) discuss "goals" (p. 342) and "rules" (p. 149) as the defining properties of games, and Schell (2008, p. 144) describes a game as a set of rules that define a goal. I propose that "goal" corresponds to task descriptors such as "objective," "outcome," and "problem to be solved," and "rule" corresponds to terms such as "procedure," "process," or "behavioral framework." Thus, definitionally at least, tasks and games can be considered analogous.

In addition, games and tasks resemble each other in terms of typology. Littlewood (2004) proposes a continuum of task types between the extreme poles of "tasks" or "communicative tasks" on one end, and "exercises" or "enabling tasks" on the other. He states that a "task" is a holistic, meaning-focused activity that requires learners to integrate and apply multiple skills, and an "exercise" is a discrete, form-focused activity that requires learners to practice or learn individual sub-skills. At the same time, and with reference to Chiu, Kao and Reynolds (2012) and Rapeepisarn, Wong, Fung, and Khine (2008), two broad categories of games and the educational function that they purportedly serve can be distinguished. Games comprised mainly of a rapid sequence of small challenges or tasks and characterized by a high degree of repetition exercising one or a small set of isolated skills can be considered flashcard games (following Rapeepisarn et al., 2008). On the other hand, games that incorporate a narrative, or a series of interrelated events that involve fantasy which is, as described by Dickey (2006a, 2006b), playing a role or performing a function uncharacteristic of normal life, can be referred to as simulation games. Both flashcard games and enabling tasks are form-focused in that they serve to create proceduralized knowledge of discrete functional skills. Both simulation games and communicative tasks are meaning-focused in that they require the incorporation of multiple discrete skills with real world knowledge or knowledge of the context. Thus, not only are computer games and learning tasks structurally similar, they are also typologically analogous.

As mentioned above, computer games are usually used in foreign language education as enabling tasks, but several authors have claimed that games would fit well into the TBLL model as communicative tasks as well (Ang & Zaphiris, 2006; Connolly, Stansfield, & Hainey, 2011; Gee, 2004; Reinders & Wattana, 2011; Ryu, 2013). With reference to the framework of task implementation described by Nunn, I propose that flashcard games can be used as enabling tasks to support learner performance in simulation games, which serve as communicative tasks.

Why Games?

If tasks and games are so similar, what differentiating characteristic of games justifies a discussion on incorporating games into TBLL? The notion that games are fun and engaging while learning tasks are dull and tedious has long been used to underpin the argument for digital game-based learning (Prensky, 2001). Yet, the reality is that not all games are fun for all learners, and not all learning activities are tedious. Be that as it may, the commercial success of computer games strongly implies that game designers are more successful at creating engaging experiences. I suggest that the most important difference lies in the experience designed by rules rather than by attractive graphics, advanced animation or other traits often associated with games. Most game designers seek to create experiences purposefully designed to induce Csikszentmihalyi's (1975) state of flow (Chen, 2007; Koster, 2005; Rollings & Adams, 2003; Rouse, 2005; Salen & Zimmerman, 2004; Schell, 2008). Consequently, three characteristics shared by good game designs are a clear goal, real-time feedback on performance, and a balance between player skill level and the difficulty of the task at hand. Computer games typically provide the user a series of small related challenges that are just difficult enough to instill a sense of accomplishment when achieved, yet are not so difficult as to be frustrating. These challenges slowly increase in difficulty, but never outpace the skill acquisition of the user. In this way, the activity can be made interesting over extended periods until the user reaches high levels of proficiency.

In addition to balancing skill and difficulty levels to induce a flow state, interactive narrative plays a role in engaging players of simulation games (Dickey, 2006a, 2006b). Here, *narrative* denotes a sequence of related states that follow a logical sequence (i.e., each state after the beginning state is a possible result of the preceding state). *Interactive* means the observer of the narrative is able to influence the nature of subsequent states, and thus influence the development of the narrative. Bruner (1995) points out that narratives are engaging because past events provide a framework that assists cognitive processes directed at anticipating future events, a constant mental undertaking in humans. Furthermore, Dickey (2006a, 2006b) suggests that the interactivity increases the level of engagement because each instance of influencing the progression of events makes the player a stakeholder, responsible for the ultimate end state. The next section will discuss a further advantage of interactive narratives in simulation games in facilitating learning.

The Roles of Flashcard and Simulation Games

The role of a given game type is determined based on its effect on skill acquisition. Here, I will focus on vocabulary use as an indicator of proficiency. Flashcard games can generally be characterized as facilitating broad and shallow knowledge, whereas simulation games can be characterized as instilling narrow and deep knowledge. Repetitive, form-focused drills have been shown to improve accuracy and performance on vocabulary recall tests (Nation, 2011). On the other hand, meaning-focused communicative tasks have been shown to improve fluency, defined as the ease with which vocabulary can be accessed for use in various contexts (Arslanyilmaz, 2013). Further, there is much literature to suggest that the more intricate the processing of a word through usage in various meaning-focused tasks, the better it is retained and recalled in multiple contexts (Haratmeh, 2012; Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). These phenomena can be explained using Klimesch's (2013) connectivity model of memory. The model posits the metaphor of nodes and connectors to describe the memory structure. Each node is a distinct encoding from motor-sensory, emotive or linguistic inputs. These encodings are associated with each other during and following lived experiences to form networks, and stimulation of any one node can stimulate all nodes connected therein. The model predicts that the more complex a network, the more accessible each encoding in the network is. Accessibility implies improved fluency and transfer because a word embedded in a denser network would be readily used in separate but related contexts by virtue of the multiple nodes that could trigger retrieval.

According to this explanation, form-focused, repetitive tasks serve to reinforce relatively few connections between nodes, whereas meaning-focused tasks facilitate a greater number of connections. Vocabulary drills most typically involve a matching mechanic between linguistic encodings (native and target language forms, target language and pictures, or the like). Meaning-focused tasks relate words and target language forms to situations, narratives, topics or other contexts that are richer in information than a matching-type drill. The expected result, then, is that enabling tasks are useful for learning a large number of words, but these will be retained for a short time and have a narrow range of applicability. On the other hand, communicative tasks facilitate long-term retention and transferability for a comparatively smaller number of words. If the proposed characterization of game types is correct, flashcard and simulation games should provide results comparable to enabling and communicative tasks respectively. That is, words drilled in a flashcard game should be recalled relatively well on a standard test protocol while words used in a simulation game should be more accessible for use in separate but related communicative contexts.

Simulation games that comprise an interactive narrative with multiple decision points may lend themselves particularly well to inducing the type of deep processing that facilitates the creation of complex networks, thereby improving transferability. At each bifurcation in the decision tree, assuming players are motivated to make the best choice, there are multiple factors to consider. Players must make hypotheses about the possible

outcomes of each potential choice, which can be based on knowledge of the narrative up to the decision point, pre-existing real world knowledge, and possibly even knowledge garnered from researching the topic and relevant factors. This processing of relevant and available information potentially offers more opportunity to increase the number of nodes in Klimesch's (2013) network model of learning and memory.

Empirical Support

Here, I will present some empirical data illustrating the role of flashcard and simulation games in data collected from EFL courses that I teach at a Japanese university. In a quasi-experiment using four classes of native Japanese speakers as sources of data, I measured knowledge and usage of a list of 33 words that are keywords in the *Energy City* simulation game (Jason Learning). These courses were similar in that all were offered to first year students as general education requirements in the liberal arts department. All of the classes were general EFL courses in which I elected to cover the topic of energy supply and environmental impacts given the relevance of the issues in Japan following the Fukushima disaster. All of the classes were asked to learn the vocabulary list using *Quizlet* as homework, and one of the classrooms was equipped with computers and internet access, which allowed the students to play the online *Energy City* simulation in small groups. The circumstances presented an opportunity to compare the vocabulary learning and usage differences between learners who played a simulation game in conjunction with flashcard games, and learners who used flashcard games alone.

The sample was one of convenience and not random, so knowledge of the vocabulary list was pretested using a vocabulary recall test in order to establish a baseline for pre-existing knowledge of the words. A two-sample t-test was conducted to compare pretest scores between simulation-playing students and *Quizlet*-only students. There was not a significant difference in the scores for simulation (N=23, M=4.2, SD=3) and flashcard-only (N=61, M=4.9, SD=3.1) students; $t(82)=-0.8$, $p=0.39$. Furthermore, the mean scores for both groups were very low, suggesting the words in the list were novel for most participating students.

Following the pretest, students in all classes were instructed to learn the vocabulary list on *Quizlet* as homework. In order to establish whether one group had learned the list better than the other, a post-test with a vocabulary recall protocol was conducted one week later, and the scores between simulation-playing and *Quizlet*-only students were compared using a two sample t-test. While both groups made large gains, there was no significant difference between the simulation (N=23, M=24.3, SD=8.8) and flashcard-only (N=61, M=24.3, SD=10) students; $t(82)=0.0014$, $p=0.99$.

Following the post-test, students in the computer-equipped classroom were introduced to the simulation and allowed to play for approximately 70 minutes. In accordance with best practices in both TBLL and game-based learning models, the simulation game was framed with pre- and post-task activities (Kriz, 2008; Skehan et al., 2012; Whitton, 2010). The flashcard game was considered the pre-task activity, and for a post-task I asked the learners to complete a debriefing report after playing the game. The game was played in small groups that role-played as city council members collectively deciding in which energy production or conservation technologies to invest. Students in all other classes heard a lecture on technology solutions for energy supply, their costs and environmental impacts.

One week after the lessons, students in all classes were asked to write a short essay (approximately 150 words) addressing two prompts: (1) Describe the present state of energy supply and use in Japan; (2) What, if anything, would you change about the present state? The essays were examined for examples of usage of the words from the vocabulary list. Unique usages (i.e., how many individual list words a participant used) were noted and quantified. An ANCOVA was conducted to determine the difference in

amount of word usage between simulation-playing students and *Quizlet*-only students while accounting for pre-existing knowledge of the words by using the pretest scores as covariate. There was a significant effect of simulation gameplay on the number of vocabulary list words used in the essay after controlling for pretest scores; $F(1, 81) = 10.41, p = 0.002$. The students that played the simulation used the list words more often on average than the students who did not play the simulation. The effect size (d) was calculated at 0.8, which is large according to Cohen's (1988) benchmarks. Furthermore, the students who played the simulation used more of the words from the list than the *Quizlet*-only group. Despite comprising nearly three times as many students as the simulation group, which used 27 of the 33 words on the list, the *Quizlet*-only group used 22. These results strongly indicate that the students in the simulation-playing group were better able to transfer the learned words to a separate but related task.

Conclusion

I have presented a proposed framework for incorporating computer games into TBLL, providing theoretical rationale and some empirical evidence as support. Flashcard games are effective for learning a large number of words in a short time. It should be noted that all students using *Quizlet* made significant gains in vocabulary knowledge in one week as measured by vocabulary recall tests. Simulation games, on the other hand, are effective tools if the goal is to improve long term retention and learner ability to transfer knowledge to separate communicative contexts. These are essentially the same functions as enabling and communicative tasks in mainstream conceptualizations of TBLL. Therefore, activities considered games are compatible with the TBLL approach, provided that there is a recognition that different game types exist, and that these are analogous to categories of tasks.

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Linda Gijzen

Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Tilburg, The Netherlands

l.gijzen@fontys.nl

The effects of task design on students' collaboration in a telecollaborative project**Bio data**

Linda Gijzen works as a teacher trainer at Fontys University of Applied Sciences Tilburg and is the coordinator of the M.Ed English. She has an MA degree in English Language and Culture. She is a member of the research group Second Language Learning in a Modern Perspective led by Professor Kristi Jauregi Ondarra and has been studying the effects of a TBLT approach to task design on collaboration in telecollaborative projects.

Current research

This paper is a report on the preliminary findings of a research conducted on a graduate level of an M.Ed course. In an online intercultural exchange project 38 pre-service teachers of Boğaziçi University Istanbul (Turkey) and Fontys University of Applied Sciences Tilburg (the Netherlands) worked together in pairs in a blended learning environment to co-create a paper on foreign language education in Europe. The project was carried out in a Master Course on Didactics and led by a Dutch and a Turkish teacher-trainer. Task design aimed at a monolingual product, a wiki in English, at the end of the project. A TBLT approach to task design was used, as a starting point, in a combination of Ellis's (2003, p.21) and Oxford's (2006) task framework, as proposed by Hampel (2010). The participants were C2 learners of English and did not know each other before joining the telecollaborative project. The students were primarily focussed on the opportunity to practice their English language skills and secondly to interact with students from a different cultural background. In order to research if the built-in positive interdependence in task-design, by means of an information- and reasoning gap, led to collaborative learning a mixed-method approach (Creswell, 2012) was used to study students' reflections upon their processes of collaboration with new peers. The gathered qualitative data consists of analysis of 18 diaries students used during the project in which students reflected on the collaboration on a weekly basis. The quantitative data consists of the analysis of 22 questionnaires containing statements of students' perceptions on collaboration filled in by students at the end of the project. Preliminary findings show evidence of instances of collaborative learning and shared-knowledge building.

Task design & language learning and teaching

Task design in telecollaboration is at the root of online intercultural exchanges as it is at the base of each rich learning activity teachers want to engage their learners in. The importance of effective online task design is, among others, stressed by Hauck (2007) who states that when assessing risks of misunderstandings in collaborative projects, task design is considered to be a high-risk area. For some time now Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been established as one of the main approaches to language learning and teaching worldwide (Van den Branden, 2006; Thomas & Reinders, 2010; Ortega & Gonzalez, 2014). But although quite some research has been conducted in the field of TBLT and technology we still need more information on how to approach task

design for online intercultural collaboration between advanced language learners and the effects this collaboration can have on the interpretation part of tasks and how this interpretation leads to activities (task-as-workplan). The question that arises from this research is if we have, seen from the TBLT perspective, enough knowledge on how the different stages of tasks, task-as-workplan, task-as-process and task-as-outcome interrelate and influence one another. Should approaches to task design in telecollaboration need to depend more on context than we previously assumed and is there a possibility that another variety on the TBLT approach will arise which will place less emphasis on the activity part, but more on the outcome?

Short paper

Introduction

Online intercultural exchanges, referred to as telecollaborative projects, can enable teacher education institutes to enrich their second language curricula by giving their learners the opportunity to learn not only with, but also through technology by inviting foreign learners of the 'same' target language or native speakers into their own classrooms. In language learning contexts, telecollaboration is understood to be: "Internet-based intercultural exchange between people of different cultural/national backgrounds, set up in an institutional blended-learning context with the aim of developing both language skills and intercultural communicative competence (as defined by Byram 1997) through structured tasks" (Guth & Helm, 2011, p.42). During these exchanges learners get a chance to engage online in authentic meaningful communication with new peers from other countries. Web 2.0, with synchronous (chat, videoconferencing, virtual worlds) and asynchronous (blogs, wikis, discussion fora) communication applications, allows for this interaction. Recent research in the field of telecollaboration has revealed how internet-mediated intercultural exchange can contribute to the development of foreign language skills and intercultural communicative competences (Canto et al, 2013). The latter aims at preparing learners for interaction with people of other cultures and enabling them to understand and accept people from other cultures as individuals with other distinctive perspectives, values and behaviours and to help them to see that such interaction is an enriching experience (Byram et al, 2001). In this article the analysis of data that has been collected during an online intercultural exchange between 38 student teachers of English of Boğaziçi University Istanbul (Turkey) and Fontys University of Applied Sciences Tilburg (the Netherlands) will be discussed. The focus will be on the effects of built in positive interdependence by means of an information- and reasoning gap in task design on students' collaboration.

Background

There is a tendency to move towards a blended approach in learning based on a sociocultural view of language learning, whereby learning takes place in social contexts through interaction and collaboration (Guth & Helm, 2011). Telecollaborative projects have the potential to facilitate this interaction and collaboration, enhance language learning and intercultural communicative competences in a technology mediated setting. At the core of telecollaboration is task design because a "carefully designed task or activity that requires off- and online co-construction of knowledge not only provides opportunities for target language practice, it also helps integrate language use as the means for shared knowledge-building, thus further enhancing purposeful communication" (Dooley, 2011, p. 69). In this paper task design that specifically leads to collaborative language learning to enhance shared knowledge-building in telecollaboration will be discussed. Research (Hampel, 2010) and observations made from practice have shown that task design does not necessarily lead to collaborative language learning. During group work, students often tend to divide up collaborative writing tasks and carry out parts of tasks individually, without interacting with fellow students on content, before they edit the sub-, and often heterogeneous, parts

together into one, often incoherent piece. For students building knowledge together “productive discourse among participants that focuses on improving understanding of a phenomenon is essential” (Tan & Tan, 2014, p.30) and research has indicated the importance of talk between participants as a critical medium through which information about the task, its solution and the respective roles of the participants is conveyed (Roschelle & Teasley, 1995). Especially in the context of higher education with advanced language learners who have already mastered the target language at a high level, and therefore do not always have the intrinsic motivation to learn collaboratively, features that lead to shared knowledge building should be anchored in task design. Student centred instructional practices, such as collaborative learning can facilitate students’ construction of knowledge. Collaborative learning is a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together (Mitnik, et al, 2009) and is based on the model that knowledge can be created within a population where members actively interact by sharing experiences and take on asymmetry roles (Bruffee, 1993). Here the focus will be on shared knowledge building in a student-centred setting where students are supposed to take almost full responsibility. For the purpose of this research, a critical feature of cooperative learning is built in in task design to research its effects on collaboration and subsequently on shared-knowledge building. This feature, positive interdependence, exists in pair work when both learner’s contributions are indispensable with both partners having a unique contribution to make to help each other to achieve their mutual goal. In order for this to occur each member must have a task that they are responsible for which cannot be completed by the other partner.

So in this paper a task is described as: “a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them or choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills, and also various cognitive processes” (Ellis, 2003, p.16).

From the perspective of telecollaboration, knowledge building is a social-cultural enterprise so when students from different cultural backgrounds are working together the focus should be on collaborative tasks which require them not only to exchange and compare information but also to work together to produce a shared product. This type of collaboration and product creation is referred to as category 3 on task typology by O’Dowd & Ware (2009). While compared to other task categories, such as information exchange or discussions, this category in which students engage in co-constructing knowledge is superior to the other ones. In order to research the effects of task design on students’ collaboration, the aspect of positive interdependence, by means of an information- and reasoning gap, will be taken into account when designing collaborative tasks which lead to a common outcome to answer the main research question: Does built-in positive interdependence in task design, by means of an information- and reasoning gap, lead to collaborative learning?

Method

Participants

In an online intercultural exchange project 38 students (19 Turkish and 19 Dutch) of Boğaziçi University Istanbul (Turkey) and Fontys University of Applied Sciences Tilburg (the Netherlands) worked together in pairs in a wiki environment (PBWorks) to co-create an academic paper on foreign language education policy in Europe (see O’Dowd & Ware, 2009: category 3 on collaborative tasks). The participants were student-teachers and C2 learners

of English and did not know each other before joining the telecollaborative project. The students were primarily focussed on the opportunity to practice their English language skills and secondly to interact with students from a different cultural background. The project was carried out in a Master Course on Didactics and led by a Dutch and a Turkish teacher-trainer.

Task design

The project consisted of 3 tasks. In task 1 students had to get to know each other by asking questions about their partner’s families, cultural and religious backgrounds and built a family tree for their partner. In task 2 students had to analyse and compare the Dutch and Turkish education systems and come to an agreement on how to approach task 3, writing in a wiki, bringing about negotiation of meaning on a cultural and linguistic level. Task 1 and 2 being information activities as defined by Prabhu, (1987, p.46) as activities “in which each student has a part of the total information needed to complete the assignment”. In task 2 more complex instructions and vocabulary at C2 level were offered. This was done because previous research (Swain, 1985) indicated that increasing the cognitive and conceptual demands of a task may lead the learner to push his or her output. Task 3 focussed on writing a paper on foreign language education in Europe in a wiki containing a reasoning activity “which involves deriving some new information from given information through processes of inference, deduction, practical, reasoning, or a perception of relationships or patterns” (Prabhu, 1987, p.47). While carrying out task 3 focus was on pushing students to the edge of their current linguistic competence. Negotiating on meaning, reading, analyzing, discussing and choosing relevant Turkish, Dutch and English literature for their paper in English were key elements.

Table 1 Task 3: Education in Europe		
Design	Feature	Description
	Goal	The general purpose of this task is to co-create a wiki <input type="checkbox"/> Multifold <input type="checkbox"/> Development ICC <input type="checkbox"/> Collaboration; shared knowledge-building <input type="checkbox"/> Building a sense of community <input type="checkbox"/> Reflection
2.	Task Types	<input type="checkbox"/> Involving multiple skills; focus on writing skills <input type="checkbox"/> Interactive task (Category 3, O’Dowd & Ware), sharing of information, discussing relevance of information and co-creating wiki <input type="checkbox"/> Individual task (searching for and selecting relevant information) Information-gap task, reasoning-gap task involving multiple skills such as speaking, listening and writing.
3.	Importance of task	<input type="checkbox"/> This task is perceived as a high-stake requirement; it determines the success of the project.
4.	Input	

		<input type="checkbox"/> The non-verbal information is resume with partner's photograph <input type="checkbox"/> The verbal information is the instruction from the teacher. <input type="checkbox"/> Literature
5.	Conditions	<input type="checkbox"/> It's split-information; meaning one partner has information the other partner doesn't have. Partner A has to question Partner B, and vice versa, to get the information needed for the task; distributed activities for collaboration. <input type="checkbox"/> Students work in pairs and each partner has a responsibility to search for and read information. It's not necessary that both partners have read the same information, but they have to share it and they have to be able to use this knowledge when co-constructing the wiki.
6.	Linguistic complexity Cognitive complexity	<input type="checkbox"/> Linguistic complexity appropriate to C2 <input type="checkbox"/> High cognitive complexity in terms of interactive systems component (SKYPE & PBWorks)
7.	Procedures	<input type="checkbox"/> Pair work <input type="checkbox"/> Linear progression, following the course outline; the wiki has to be completed at a set time so students have to plan the activity of sharing, compiling, writing and giving each other feedback.
8.	Predicted outcomes: Product Process	<input type="checkbox"/> Wiki, diary <input type="checkbox"/> Semi-closed assignment in a sense that the expected outcome is described in a rubric. <input type="checkbox"/> Discussions (Skype) and reading/writing PBWorks <input type="checkbox"/> Use of the English level at C2
8.	Predicted outcomes: Product Process	<input type="checkbox"/> Wiki, diary <input type="checkbox"/> Semi-closed assignment in a sense that the expected outcome is described in a rubric. <input type="checkbox"/> Discussions (Skype) and reading/writing PBWorks <input type="checkbox"/> Use of the English level at C2

9.	Teacher factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selecting pairs <input type="checkbox"/> Providing students with background information on project and literature <input type="checkbox"/> Coaching students' processes <input type="checkbox"/> Setting criteria and date for summative assessment
10.	Learner factors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student involved in ICC <input type="checkbox"/> C1 level of English (ELF) <input type="checkbox"/> Student teachers

Source. Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p.21.

Tools

During the project, which took 7 weeks, students used various synchronous (SKYPE) and asynchronous modes (e-mail, chat function PBWorks) to communicate. To structure peer interaction the wiki (PBWorks) was used as the main mode because it facilitates collaborative writing and peer feedback and offers learners an opportunity to practice writing both at the level of individual- and collaborative writing. Writing in a wiki is conceived of as a collaborative process, as argued by Doughty and Long's (2003) methodological principles for TBLT. So a TBLT approach to task design was used, as a starting point (Table 1), in a combination of Ellis's (2003, p.21) and Oxford's (2006) task framework, as proposed by Hampel (2010).

Instruments & Data analysis

In order to research if the built-in positive interdependence in task-design, by means of an information- and reasoning gap, led to collaborative learning a mixed-method approach (Creswell, 2012) was used to study students' reflections upon their processes of collaboration with new peers. The gathered qualitative data consists of analysis of 18 diaries Turkish and Dutch students used during the project in which students reflected on the collaboration on a weekly basis. The quantitative data consists of the analysis of 22 questionnaires containing statements of Turkish and Dutch students' perceptions on collaboration filled in by students at the end of the project. When analysing the data focus was on identifying features of shared-knowledge building such as peer feedback and productive communication. To triangulate these findings, after having studied the diaries and questionnaires, 2 students (a pair consisting of a one Turkish and one Dutch student) were followed in a case study. In this case study, the essay (final product) and the transcript of a recorded Skype meeting were analysed to find out if the collaboration led to shared knowledge-building. However, as the data of the case study has not yet been analysed, the focus in this paper is based on the analysis of the questionnaires and diaries and the findings of the case study will be considered in a follow-up paper.

Preliminary Results

Preliminary findings from the analyzed questionnaires (Table 2) show that productive communication took place. Students read, shared and discussed literature, made decisions about its relevance for their essays and they provided each other with feedback. But when analysing the statement if their partner contributed significantly to the outcome, only 50% of the students agreed, 23% felt they could have finished the tasks without their partner, 73% stated they could have written the essay on their own and only 50% found the online tasks useful for their own language learning. Interesting to note is that a majority of the students stated they had a big influence on the process (68%) and on the outcome (73%) and 73% indicated that they felt co-responsible for the final product. There is a great variety in answers and it's difficult to base conclusions on these findings, because in-depth analysis of the questionnaires shows that there is a clear distinction between pairs that worked together well and pairs who were struggling with their foreign partner, the content or the technology.

Table 2. Turkish & Dutch students' perceptions on collaboration

I discussed the literature I read with my partner.				3,45	1,26
I read literature my partner suggested to me.				3,41	1,33
My partner helped me to decide which literature was relevant.				3,09	1,34
My partner helped me to structure the content.				3,14	1,58
I could not have finished the tasks without my partner.				2,59	1,33
I felt we were a team.				2,82	1,44
My partner contributed significantly to the outcome of this project.				3,32	1,46
I could have written the essay on my own.				3,68	0,99
I could have done better with another partner.				2,77	1,15
I received feedback from my partner on my writing skills.				2,82	1,40
The feedback I received was relevant and of good quality.				3,18	1,14
I made changes to improve my writing based on the feedback I received from my partner.				2,91	1,31
The content of the wiki is representative for my writing skills.				3,36	0,79
When we were online we were able to express our plans and ideas.				3,73	1,32
It was important for me to speak/write correctly.				4,00	0,98
It was important for me to express clearly what I wanted to say.				4,09	0,97
I felt we were peers in (academic) writing.				3,09	1,06
During the project I critically went through the essay and made suggestions for changes.				3,32	1,09
We built in time to evaluate and reflect on our performances.				3,00	1,31
I felt co-responsible for the final product.				4,18	1,14
I had a big influence on the process (collaboration).				3,82	1,10
I had a big influence on the outcome (essay).				3,86	1,08
I discussed my ideas on what the essay should be like with my partner.				3,68	0,95
I found the online tasks useful for my own language learning.				3,23	1,19

Note. 1=Strongly disagree, 5=Strongly agree, (N=22)

However, in their reflective diaries students tend to be more positive and outspoken about their processes of collaborating. Here students also confirm that they shared opinions and thoughts (table 3) and provided each other with feedback. They also provide us with evidence of interaction on content, indicating productive communication took place (table 4). Some students explicitly express their hope on positive feedback (table 3) which could assume they did their best to write a good product and wanted to perform well; confirming findings from the questionnaires.

Table 3: Turkish & Dutch students' reflections on collaboration

"progressing well, hope my partner delivers part on Turkish educational system and agrees on part already written by me and part to follow. Hope to receive constructive feedback"

"We are going to send it to each other for analysis and correction"

"I gave some feedback to my partner on what she had written by that moment. When we do writing, we sometimes may not see our own mistakes. At this point peer check helps a lot"

"Better insight for writing process"

"I found the style and approach of my partner very friendly and collaborative. I am happy that I have a partner now"

Table 4: Turkish & Dutch students' reflections on collaboration

"We started to really work on our tasks. That feels good. It is nice to talk about and discuss on educational issues with Jennifer."

"We talked about the articles and the educational articles. We found really useful articles"

"Doing such a project was a good experience and a great chance to be acquainted with peers from different cultures. We enhanced our academic writing skills and collaboration skills as well."

"We decided on our main thesis then the sub thesis. First we wrote two paragraphs to create a basis. It seems that we are doing well. The structure and the content of the essay are consistent with what we talked about formerly".

"The more we discuss different issues, the tougher it becomes to take a decision with regard to the topic of the wiki. How to define our subject and keep it feasible?"

"I found interesting publications about the changes that took place regarding the subject English in primary and secondary education. How can we join our input into one coherent piece?"

"We noticed the understanding of language learning is changing in a good way".

"We met on Skype and chose what to leave and what to extract together."

"We need to work harder. The Dutch education system is more difficult than the Turkish system, though this one changes a lot"

The findings and explanations put forth are preliminary; yet they might offer a basis for further research to find out why some pairs collaborated well and why others experienced difficulties in collaborating online and how task design in telecollaboration can contribute to collaborative learning.

Conclusion

Preliminary findings indicate that the built-in positive interdependence in task-design, by means of an information- and reasoning gap, does contribute to collaborative learning in telecollaboration. Further research and analysis of data is necessary to triangulate these findings. Focus for a follow-up paper will be on the case study in which one pair, consisting of a Dutch and Turkish student, is followed. Although quite some research has been conducted in the field of TBLT approaches and technology we still need more

information on how to approach task design for online intercultural collaboration between advanced language learners and the effects task design can have on their collaboration when effectively co-constructing tasks.

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Peter Gobel & Makimi Kano

Kyoto Sangyo University, Kyoto, Japan

pgobel@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp - makimik@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp

The complexities of digital storytelling: factors affecting performance, production, and project completion

Bio data

Peter Gobel is a professor in the Faculty of Cultural Studies. His research interests include communication strategies, learning strategies, motivation, individual differences in language learning, extensive reading/listening and digital storytelling.

Makimi Kano is an associate professor in the Faculty of Cultural Studies. She is a corpus linguist, carrying out lexical research on loanwords, metaphors, and language change. Her other research interests include extensive reading/listening, vocabulary acquisition, and lexicography.

Current research

Digital storytelling projects provide a variety of opportunities for learning in the language classroom, but along with these opportunities come a number of challenges for both pedagogy and technology. This presentation describes the first phase of an ongoing multi-method study into factors involved in task-based learning using digital storytelling. Using intact classes over a three-month period, participants were required to create a series of digital stories and present them to their peers. The stories were quantitatively analyzed using the factors of module (topic), time, medium, and reported technological proficiency. Student attitudes towards the tasks were gauged using a questionnaire, based on the theoretical framework of Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), that measured perceived task cost and value, engagement with the task, and expectancy for success on future tasks.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This research is concerned with the design and implementation of presentation projects for EFL university students. Project-based learning tends to be more complicated in nature than more directed forms of task-based learning. Digital storytelling, when used in a project-based learning approach, is an inherently messy process, with the product not always in sync with the original task (Thorne & Black, 2007). Due to the number of steps involved in creating a digital story, and the technical skills necessary, task design is of utmost importance. But what factors contribute to a successful digital story experience for students? This presentation will explore the question of task design in digital storytelling, taking into account the context of the task. The presenters will focus on the four elements of good task design—purpose, content, activity, and completion—and how they were perceived by the participants. Since task complexity is an important factor to consider in design, we will consider both the complexity of the task (in terms of familiarity with the topic and cognitive demands of the task) and required technological proficiency. It is hypothesized that more unfamiliar topics will lead to perceptions of higher cost and less engagement on the part of the participants, and that experience and familiarity with technology needed for task completion will lead to perceptions of those tasks as having greater value and a higher expectancy for success.

The presenters will also discuss the limitations of both technology and technological proficiency when designing a task, since our previous research in this area has shown that perceived proficiency has an impact on both product and process (Gobel & Kano, 2013; 2014). The preliminary results of the research will highlight issues arising from the implementation of the tasks, and future directions to assist educators in moving from theory to practice with digital storytelling in the EFL classroom.

Short paper

Introduction

The art of telling stories is an integral part of every culture, and has been used as a powerful teaching tool, not just in elementary or L1 education, but also when teaching a second language (Tsou, Wang & Tseng, 2006; Wan, 2005). By engaging in the process of storytelling, the narrator himself starts to think carefully about the topic, and also is forced to consider the perspective of the audience. These are things that our students can benefit from when covering new topics or looking at old material in a different light. There are a great number of storytelling activities, exercises, websites and apps to help students create coherent stories, and many of these were used in the present study.

The present research stems from previous experience with storytelling in language classrooms, and a clear awareness of the many problems that may arise when having students relate their own opinions in the L2 (e.g., lack of structural coherence and cohesion, very little awareness of audience, and limited confidence in their own communicative ability). By using a project-based design, it was hoped that the elements of process, practice (in the form of revision at each step of the process), and off-line presentation (by presenting the narrative as a digital story) would create more coherent and relative narratives. Based on a previous digital story project framework (Gobel, 2013), the projects were used to explore a series of topics dealing with intercultural communication. This was the first time the framework was used in this way, and the researchers sought to understand how the variables of task complexity and technological proficiency affected completion of the task, as well as student perceptions of the value of the task and their expectancy for success.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Participants were 30 third-year university students enrolled in a compulsory English oral presentation class. The goal of the class was to improve their presentation skills focusing on the following areas: the physical aspects of presentation, creating and explaining visual aids, the structure of short presentations, and leading and contributing to discussions. Class met once a week for 90 minutes. The first three months of the semester were used for the present phase of the research.

The digital storytelling task

Digital stories are first-person narratives used to tell a personal story using words, images, and sound (see The Center for Digital Storytelling for more information). Digital stories can vary in sophistication and complexity ranging from creating a short film with complex audio and visual effects, to producing a series of slides with a corresponding narration. One great advantage of digital stories is the impact that pictures and sound can have on an audience. Compared to having students simply stand in front of a group and talk, digital stories may be more engaging for the audience. Another advantage is that by creating the story and presenting it "off-line", speaker anxiety is greatly reduced and the practice necessary to create a digital story produces a more polished product. Finally, being digital, these stories are storable, transferrable, and accessible at a later date. An even greater advantage is what happens during the creation of the digital story. The process of story creation enhances students' ability to express their knowledge

within the confines of a coherent narrative (Orlando, 2012), which was one goal of the course.

Digital stories can be created in groups, but they are also well suited to individual users. Students with little or no technical background may be able to create digital stories using a provided framework and limited resources, specifically a computer or tablet, common software (such as iMovie, PowerPoint, Windows Media Maker, Audacity, or VoiceThread), and a microphone. If students can create a narrative (essentially a script) collect or create a few pictures and record their story, they can create a digital story. In Japan, few students are great creators of digital media (most do not create blogs, podcasts, or upload to YouTube), but they do share photos, send texts, and share music—all aspects of digital storytelling.

In line with the characteristics of a task, as outlined by Ellis (2003) and Prabhu (1987), the digital storytelling tasks the students were involved in had a primary focus on pragmatic meaning (telling a story and/or giving an opinion), a 'gap' to be filled (relating opinion and experience), and a clearly defined, non-linguistic outcome (the digital story itself). The task itself had four main steps: choosing a topic, writing the story, choosing the media, and creating the final product. Since this was approached in a project framework, at each step of the project, the stories and information were shared in small groups. It was hoped that this group interaction at each step of the project, the recursive nature of the steps, and the negotiation of meaning and discussion that the projects required would promote language acquisition (Willis, 1996). Each project took four weeks to complete. Most of the project work was done outside of class (at home or in a computer lab), with 30 minutes of class time each week being allocated to the project.

The questionnaire

Digital storytelling, when used in a project-based learning approach, is an inherently messy process, and often the final product is not in sync with the original task (Thorne & Black, 2007). Due to the number of steps involved in creating a digital story, and the technical skills necessary, task design is of utmost importance. The researchers were interested in exploring the factors that might contribute to a successful digital story experience for EFL students. To do this, the four elements of good task design—purpose, content, activity, and completion—and how they were perceived by the participants were the basis of the first part of a questionnaire given to the students at the completion of each task. In addition, since task complexity is an important factor to consider in task design, both the perceived complexity of the task (in terms of familiarity with the topic and cognitive demands of the task) and perceived technological proficiency requirements were included as items in the questionnaire. Perceived technological proficiency is one focus of this research, since previous research in this area has shown that perceived proficiency has an impact on both product and process (Gobel & Kano, 2013; 2014). The third section of the questionnaire included items intended to explore perceived cost of the task, perceptions of task engagement, perceived value of the task, and student expectancy for success on future tasks, as outlined in Expectancy-Value Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Finally, the researchers will take into account the results of the projects, looking at topic, performance, production, and project completion to uncover any correlations with student perceptions of the projects and their performance on the tasks. It is hypothesized that more unfamiliar topics will lead to perceptions of higher cost and less engagement on the part of the participants, and that experience and familiarity with technology needed for task completion will lead to perceptions of those tasks as having greater value and a higher expectancy for success.

Results

As this is the first phase of an ongoing multi-method study into factors involved in task-based learning using digital storytelling, results are forthcoming. The authors hope that

the preliminary results of their research will highlight issues arising from the implementation of the tasks, and suggest future directions to assist educators in moving from theory to practice with digital storytelling in the EFL classroom.

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Myung-Jeong Ha

Sangmyung University, Cheonan, South Korea

myjeong.ha@gmail.com - mjha@smu.ac.kr

Rethinking telecollaboration in the Korean EFL context

Bio data

Myung-Jeong Ha is Assistant Professor at the Department of English Language and Literature, Sangmyung University of Korea. Her areas of interest are computer-mediated communication, computer-assisted language learning, and learner corpora.

Current research

Guided by the findings on CMC and the instructional models that have been demonstrated in previous studies, an asynchronous telecollaborative project was performed by the Korean English teacher and the collaborating American instructor. The project involved a class of EFL graduate students in Korea in their second year of a degree in TESOL interacting over a 16-week period with a class of graduate students at a North American University. Using Blackboard, an asynchronous bulletin board system, the two classes collaboratively engaged in online written discussions for the purpose of developing learner autonomy, critical thinking, and intercultural awareness.

Task design and language learning and teaching

With regard to task design, educators and language practitioners have found task types to be important for students' learning, and suggested examining the feasibility of a task from the aspects of task type, interactant, and content (Ellis, 2003). In classroom-based and computer-mediated communication (CMC) based studies, diverse taxonomies of task types have been reported. In particular, the present research is embedded in O'Dowd and Waire's (2009) classification scheme. They integrated various tasks into 12 general types by reviewing the literature on telecollaborative exchanges taken from peer-reviewed journals. Then they organized the tasks into three broader headings: information exchange tasks, comparison and analysis tasks, and collaborative tasks. On the basis of their classification scheme, the intercultural CMC project consists of two types of tasks including an information exchange task and a comparison and analysis task.

As an introductory activity for the two groups of students, information exchange tasks involved students providing their counterparts with information about their personal backgrounds, local schools or towns or their jobs. The task was usually enacted on the miscellaneous forum of the discussion board. As highlighted by O'Dowd and Waire's (2009), the information exchange task was less demanding for the students since "there is little negotiation of meaning between the interlocutors" (p. 175).

With regard to comparison and analysis tasks, the participants' interactions were based on students' common reading articles related to class topic. They read and analyzed three set of articles of which topics including effects of teachers' knowledge for teaching, interrelation between knowledge and literacy, and expertise as process. The Korean students were assigned to discussion groups the American instructor set up on the Blackboard. Although the students were encouraged to read the postings in other groups,

they were required to respond in writing to the students in their smaller discussion groups.

With regard to the theoretical framework, the choice of tasks and the structure of telecollaborative exchanges under the CMC project were shaped by such theories as the development of intercultural competence (Müller-Hartmann, 2006; O'Dowd, 2003; O'Dowd, 2007), the encouragement and high motivation of students (Godwin-Jones, 2003), psycholinguistics (Pellettieri, 2000) and the opportunity for self-empowered learning (Von der Emde, Schneider, & Kötter, 2001).

Short paper

Introduction

Over the past two decades the learning outcomes of telecollaboration have varied greatly and have demonstrated how online intercultural exchanges can contribute to the development of learner autonomy, linguistic fluency, intercultural competence and electronic (Belz & Müller-Hartmann, 2002; Belz, 2003; Belz & Thorne, 2006; Blake, 2008; O'Dowd, 2007). Yet the topic of how intercultural exchanges are designed has been relatively neglected in the literature on telecollaboration. This paper examines how teachers make decisions about course design in telecollaboration and what factors influence these decisions in implementing the telecollaboration. This paper aims to offer guidelines for the effective use of telecollaborative exchanges, particularly in the Korean EFL context on the basis of a case study - telecollaborative partnership that involved intensive electronic communication between two separate university courses in Korea and in the United States.

A Case of Korean-American ACMC Project

The ACMC international project involved a class of EFL graduate students in Korea in their second year of a degree in TESOL interacting over a 16-week period with a class of graduate students at a North American University. At the initial phase of the project, the two instructors engaged in coordinating the logistics of the exchange, establishing the online tools that would be employed and designing tasks which students would complete together. Essentially the aim of the project was to enhance Korean graduate students' learning opportunities through intercultural CMC tasks jointly conducted with American graduate students. Therefore online discussion occurred in English. Using Blackboard, an asynchronous bulletin board system, the two classes collaboratively engaged in online written discussions for the purpose of developing foreign language competence and intercultural awareness. These interactions were based on students' common reading articles related to class topic. The Korean students were assigned to discussion groups the American instructor set up on the Blackboard. Although the students were encouraged to read the postings in other groups, they were required to respond in writing to the students in their smaller discussion groups.

Data Collection and Analysis

To allow data to be triangulated, multiple collection methods were used. As a participant-observer, the researcher collected data for the study from the following sources: classroom observations of lessons, printouts of ACMC texts, background interviews, two open-ended questionnaires filled out by student participants, and students' self-reflective writing. After each CMC discussion, the researcher collected the transcript of the online discussion. When examining the CMC transcripts, the researcher referred to reading materials assigned to online group participants, background interview transcripts with the students and the American instructor in order to find places where a participant might be responding to questions or concerns expressed by the instructor, peer participants, and other points of view discussed in the readings.

Considerations in Implementing the ACMC Project

There are certain steps language teachers can take to prepare for ACMC project. Pedagogical precautions can be taken to reduce the numbers of possible misunderstandings. First, a partnership in telecollaboration is really important enough to judge the degree of success of CMC projects. The researcher tried to find the right counterpart whose learning goals and academic calendars are negotiable and compatible with the Korean class. For the present study, the coordinating instructor in the United States was supportive of conducting the ACMC project since the researcher was her student when she was studying abroad. Second, it is important to note that language teachers should negotiate language valuation with the telecollaborative counterpart. The differences in foreign language exposure have significant influence on learning expectations and perceived learning outcomes in telecollaboration. In Korea, knowledge of English is considered to be a prerequisite for success in areas of professional and personal life. In contrast, Korean language does not share the same status in American society. Furthermore the English language is pervasive in present-day Korean media and popular culture, while the reverse trend is not in evidence. Therefore the medium language for two cases was English. This resulted in Korean students' communication apprehension. After finding the right partner for the CMC project, the next step was to arrange the project. In order to make the two partner classes compatible, the two instructors of the two classes began to negotiate the course schedule to integrate the online component into course objectives. There were a lot of concerns involved when setting the ACMC project including revising course syllabi, choosing relevant topics for online exchanges, and finding the best time to perform telecollaborative exchanges.

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Bi He, Pannathon Sangarun & Andrew Lian

Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

hebisut_2011@yahoo.com

Improving the English pronunciation of Chinese EFL university students through the integration of CALL and verbotonalism

Bio data

Bi He is an Associate Professor in Xingyi Normal University for Nationalities (XNUN) and she is also a PhD student in the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. Her research interests include verbotonalism, autonomy, language-learning methodology and Computer Assisted Language Learning.

Pannathon Sangarun is an Associate Professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology (SUT), Thailand where she is Coordinator for graduate courses in CALL at master and doctoral levels. Her research interests include task-based language learning and CALL.

Andrew Lian is Professor of Foreign Language Studies in the School of Foreign Languages, SUT, Thailand where he teaches graduate courses in CALL and other areas at master and doctoral levels. His research interests include rhizomatic self-adjusting language learning systems, and Computer Assisted Language Learning. He is the current President of AsiaCALL.

Current research

This section identifies the current research of the authors with a strong emphasis on the work of He Bi in the context of her doctoral research. Pannathon Sangarun and Andrew Lian are her supervisors. Her current work is situated within a more general project to normalize computer usage (He, Puakpong, & Lian, 2013) for the development of a rhizomatic, task-based (Lian, 2004; Lian & Mestre, 1985; Sangarun, 2010), self-adjusting language-learning system (Lian, 2004, 2011) being undertaken by a team of doctoral students at SUT. Each student is contributing one or more components, such as the development of personalised systems for listening comprehension, grammatical conceptualisation of transitivity, multiple intelligences and learning styles (Peng, Siriyothin, & Lian, 2014), uses of social networking, individualised lesson-generation (Lian, 2014), computer-based reading comprehension (Sangarun, 2014). All share a common framework for language-learning in the 21st Century (Lian & Pineda, 2014).

He Bi's current doctoral research focuses on providing a contribution to the above project in the form of a component to assist in the development of pronunciation improvement for Chinese EFL learners in a self-managed CALL context (He, Ai, & Lian, 2014). Her work is based on the verbotonal theory of corrective phonetics (Guberina & Asp, 1981; Guberina, 1972; Lian, 1980) as well as studies in autonomy (Reinders & Loewen, 2013; Tassinari, 2012). This work is supported by a team of specialists in phonetics from XNUN and by a grant from the Educational Division of Guizhou Province, China.

Task-based language learning and teaching

English pronunciation continues to provide a major problem for Chinese EFL learners despite a methodological challenge in design and transdisciplinarity (Levy, Hubbard, Stockwell, & Colpaert, 2015). The present study describes an innovative approach to pronunciation learning combining a CALL-based autonomous structure with the verbotonal system (Guberina, 1972; Lian, 1980) of corrective phonetics. It is based on the identification of tasks optimally designed for enhancing perception (and therefore production) through a combination of digital signal manipulation and gesture/body movement, facilitated by a simple self-managed computer-assisted support structure (in answer to the question: "Which tasks are best suited for which skills?" – pronunciation in the case of this research). Details follow.

The verbotonal system is a perception-based theory of pronunciation. The verbotonal system sees language-learning as a holistic, whole-body, phenomenon relying heavily on self-synchrony (Condon & Ogston, 1971) to integrate language into the learner's cognitive system. Low-pass filtering was used to make the melody of the language more salient (Guberina & Asp, 1981). This way of focusing on the melody of the language has at least two important consequences: it acts directly on the right brain, and it also writes itself on the body (Guberina & Asp, 1981; Condon & Sanders, 1974).

These principles were adapted to a blended learning environment. The system was named CALL-VT and was deployed in an experiment conducted at Xingyi Normal University for Nationalities in China to test the validity of the VT system in conjunction with a semi-autonomous system of learning.

The experiment was conducted to examine the effects of the CALL-VT system on Chinese EFL learners in relation to pronunciation learning and to depict their perceptions of this approach. Together with the check of effectiveness of this system, students' and the teacher's perceptions toward the system and the development of students' autonomous learning were also investigated.

Results showed that, compared to a traditional approach to learning pronunciation, the CALL-VT system offers a better alternative since it was an effective, interesting, enjoyable and economical approach which benefited not only pronunciation but also skills such as phoneme improvement with no phoneme study, higher levels of comprehensibility and fluency and better performance in spontaneous face-to-face contexts than traditional approaches to pronunciation training.

In essence, the design of the tools developed and tested in this research is more appropriate to pronunciation learning than previous standard tools (answering the question of task design posed at the beginning of this section: which tools for which skill) In turn, this may have implications for theories of perception and learning and, as a consequence, may impact on language teacher education.

Short paper

English pronunciation remains a major problem for Chinese EFL learners despite a methodological challenge in design and transdisciplinarity (Levy, Hubbard, Stockwell, & Colpaert, 2015). The present paper describes an innovative approach to pronunciation learning combining a CALL-based autonomous structure with the verbotonal system (Guberina, 1972; Lian, 1980) of corrective phonetics. It is based on the identification of tasks optimally designed for enhancing perception (and therefore production) through a combination of digital signal manipulation and gesture/body movement, facilitated by a simple self-managed computer-assisted support structure.

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Introduction

The morphological syntactic and lexical systems of any language (not just English) are made up of thousands of items. Of these, only a relatively small percentage is required at any one time for the purpose of communication. The reverse is true of the phonological system which usually consists of no more than two or three dozen significant units called phonemes all of which are required at all times in order for communication to occur (Renard, 1975). In other words, the phonological system, while relatively small in size, is extremely important for communication through language (Gimson & Alan Cruttenden, 1994). To put it another way, pronunciation occupies a central position in speaking (Pennington & Richards, 1986) because intelligible pronunciation is vital to successful communication (Levis & Grant, 2003). Garrigues (1999) also pointed out that good pronunciation was the foundation of effective spoken communication. Misunderstandings, or complete lack of communication, may occur when words or sentences are inappropriately pronounced or stressed. Be that as it may, Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners are especially weak in speaking and in pronouncing (Mak, 2011; Zheng, 2010). Therefore, there is an urgent need to improve Chinese students' pronunciation ability, especially that of English majors in normal universities.

On the basis of above mentioned importance, phonetics (understood as pronunciation) is written into the current curriculum for English majors in China was published by the Ministry of Education (MOE) of China in 2000 (MOE, 2000). This curriculum is a programmatic document which offers overall guidance on teaching objectives, teaching materials, teaching hours and processes for all universities in China. Within this structure, many universities increase the teaching hours in phonetics owing to the importance of the mastery of good pronunciation. This is especially the case in normal universities.

Xingyi Normal University for Nationalities (XNUN), is located in Qianxi'nán Buyi & Miao Autonomous Prefecture (QBMP), Guizhou Province, where 33 ethnic minority groups live in a compact community. In this university, as elsewhere in China, task-based learning has been a common practice in the training of different language skills including phonetics, which is a compulsory course for both junior college and undergraduate English majors. As mentioned above, the number of teaching hours for phonetics was increased from the suggested number of 36 hours per semester to 72 hours spread over two semesters. This decision was taken due to the poor pronunciation of the students.

The major problems existing in XNUN pronunciation teaching have been identified and summarized on the basis of two sources of data. One was from previous studies on pronunciation instruction at XNUN (Yan, 2008; He, et al., 2014). Another was from

interviews of teachers who had been teaching the phonetics courses and the students enrolled in it.

Problems are identified as: a) pronunciation learning is not effective, students spent plenty of time on pronunciation learning but made little progress; b) students are unable to apply their knowledge to natural, face-to-face, communication; c) poor technology hampered their pronunciation learning.

In order to solve the problems, this study aims to

- a) investigate the effectiveness and efficiency of CALL-VT in pronunciation learning;
- b) compare the achievements of students who follow CALL-VT and those who receive pronunciation teaching with a traditional approach;
- c) investigate the students' opinions of CALL-VT in pronunciation learning; and
- d) examine the students' development of learner autonomy after exposure to CALL-VT.

In order to fulfill the research purposes of the study, the following research questions are addressed:

- 1) Is the CALL-VT system effective for pronunciation learning? If yes, in what ways?
- 2) Is there a significant difference in pronunciation improvement between the experimental and the control groups? If so, what is the nature of these differences?
- 3) What are the students' opinions of the CALL-VT system in pronunciation learning?
- 4) What are the teachers' opinions of the CALL-VT system for pronunciation learning?

Methods and materials

Participants

The participants in the present study were undergraduate first-year English majors in the School of Foreign Languages. They were randomly assigned as one experimental group and one control group. The experiment can be described as appropriate encouragement for self-managed learning on the basis of a verbotonal approach in a CALL environment. The starting point of the experimental design was based on Lian's (1980) instructional method for French intonation and Zhang's Somatically Enhanced Approach (SEA) for teaching Mandarin tones and prosody (Zhang, 2006). Both of these approaches are heavily based on the principle of the verbotonal approach of corrective phonetics. Students play and practice the filtered sentences on a computer and engage in further perception and production activities (some in a CALL environment). These sentences come from the same teaching materials used by the control group. However, these sentences have been filtered through a low-pass filter (set at between 320 Hz and 400 Hz depending on the fundamental frequency of the speaker's voice). Such treatment removes vowel and consonant sounds and liberates the intonation and rhythm patterns effectively. Thus, the "tune" of English becomes extremely obvious. After filtering, individual language sounds are no longer recognizable. Students can better feel the prosody through amplification of the parts of the sentences which are left. These activities

Instruments

Collection of data will entail the use of different research instruments, including pronunciation pretest and posttest, student and teacher's semi-structured oral interviews, students' written questionnaires, and student diaries.

Procedures

This research was conducted in a normal English learning setting, where two intact groups of students enrolled in the Phonetics Course participated in the study in a 14-week period. The focus of the study was to determine the effectiveness of filtered language training on the basis of verbotonalism theory on pronunciation learning. As discussed earlier, two groups of students enrolled in the Phonetics Course were the

participants in the quasi-experiment during regular class time in a 14-week period. This study was conducted from March 2014 to July 2014 - the second semester of the participants.

The specific procedures employed in this research are as follows. First, the two groups of participants were pretested by the pronunciation test developed by the researcher to determine if there were significant differences between the groups before the intervention. There were two pronunciation tests which are about the same difficulty. The research randomly used one for pretest and the other for the post test.

Subsequently, the two intact groups of students were randomly assigned to a control group and an experimental group. Next, the researcher applied the CALL-VT treatments to the experimental group. The control group did not receive any of the treatments given to the experimental group. Instead, the treatment in the control group consisted of the instruction typically conducted in EFL classrooms and the random learning activities normally engage in by students in the course.

At the end of the 14-week period, two groups of students were retested using the remaining pronunciation test (one of them has been used in the pretest). The students' scores on the posttest are again reported as a means of comparison.

The test score were given in detail. The overall scores, scores of individual phonemes, words, text reading, and oral interview were scored individually to get as much as possible information for further identification of problems they had and also, to identify their improvements on pronunciation after the intervention via CALL-VT.

The purpose of using different pronunciation tests as both the pretest and posttest to compare the subjects' scores on the two tests and to see their development after the intervention. Different pronunciation tests are used in the pretest and posttest to avoid the danger that the subjects' posttest scores might be influenced by their pretest score. The data obtained from the pretest and posttest were submitted for quantitative analysis.

The experiment

The experiment was conducted in the second semester of 2014. Pedagogic sequences consisted of two sets of activities: inside the classroom and outside the classroom.

Classroom activities

In the first phase (to help defeat students' "deafness" to the sounds of English), a sensitization session was conducted in order to lighten the load and also to raise students' awareness of the target language pronunciation characteristics. There were 7 steps in this phase:

Step 1: Ask students to sit in their preferred position so as to be as relaxed as possible. In principle, they could even lie on their backs on the floor if they wished to (unfortunately, the experimental conditions did not provide a comfortable place to allow them to do so). With the classroom quiet and dark, they received 5 to 10 minutes' of mind-calming exercises. Baroque music was played to help them be more relaxed and therefore receptive to the language input (Lian, 1980; Lozanov, 2009). Students were even free to play any mind-calming music that they could access through their own smartphones. Mind-calming exercises included: yoga breathing, relaxation exercises and baroque music.

Step 2: Students repeatedly listened to natural language sequences digitally modified through a low-pass filter set at 320 Hz. Filtering has the effect of removing all vowel and consonant sounds (essentially the words) and leaving behind the prosody of language: intonation, rhythm, and stress (the melody of language). Sentences sound very much as though they were being hummed rather than articulated and they were not intelligible in the usual way. Students listened to the filtered sentences at least ten times in succession. In the introductory lecture before the intervention, they were told that they

did not have to understand the meaning of the sentences but just to listen. The reason for this is that once the consonants and vowels have been removed, the elements left behind, intonation and rhythm, can be perceived and integrated more effectively (Renard, 1975). While students could not understand the detailed meaning of the sentence content, intonation does carry meaning and they were encouraged to guess the meaning of the intonation patterns themselves, e.g. "Is this a yes/no question?", "Is this a statement?" etc.

Step 3: While listening to the filtered sentences, students and the teacher hummed in unison with the melody and rhythm of the filtered sentences so as to practice intonation production (the fundamental frequency of the voice - F0 - is produced primarily by the vocal cords which are responsible for humming. At various moments in the lessons, volunteers would spontaneously stand up and present their humming to the group to demonstrate their understanding of the patterns being studied. The idea behind this step is to focus on the melody of the sentence without interference from consonant and vowel sounds and therefore reduce the processing load on the brain and the articulation organs. At the same time use of low-frequency patterns preferentially activates the right brain where melodic signals are processed (Hesling et al, 2005).

Step 4: The teacher and students clapped their hands to the rhythm and beat of the language. In this phase, some students also clapped and even danced. Students walked hand in hand or on their own to "express their feel of the language" or to jointly synchronise with the rhythm (develop a joint awareness of the rhythm and communicate it to each other). These activities were later reported, in the interview, to be the most interesting parts for the students. In this step, on the one hand, students could clap out the rhythm in their personal perceived ways. On the other hand, the teacher could also use this to present the correct rhythm to the students as a model. As a result, students were able to experience the rhythm of the sentence at a physical level and to compare and contrast their personal understandings of the rhythm and melody of English with one another and the teacher.

Step 5: Students and teacher "walked" the rhythm of the language presented with feet coming down on every stressed syllable. They used gestures to help express their perceptions of the rhythm and intonation since body movement and gesture were proposed as aids to intonation learning.

Step 6: Mouthing the words. In this step, the original unfiltered sentences were played. Students were required to mouth the words to the sounds of the filtered patterns but not actually utter any sounds. Mouthing the words is an intermediate step toward articulation of the full sentences and gives students an opportunity to practice the articulation of the sounds without placing them on a self-generated intonation background. Again this step is designed to reduce the load on students.

Step 7: Adding words to the intonation patterns. Students were asked actually to fully utter the words which they added to the "language tune" that they had been learning. Original sentences were played continuously. Then, students repeated the sentences in chorus. The teacher checked and corrected students as necessary.

It should be noted that sequencing of the above steps was not linear and steps were not planned to occur in a fixed order. After listening to the filtered sentences approximately 10 times, the students were able to listen to the normal sentences and to make comparisons between the filtered and unfiltered versions. They were free to choose to listen to specific filtered or unfiltered sentences of their choice as many times as they felt necessary. They could also record their voices and play them back so as to compare their production with the models that they had been listening to.

Out-of-classroom activities

The above listed classroom activities made up one part of the experiment. The other part of the experiment consisted of self-regulated pronunciation reinforcement exercises performed outside the classroom. Students were able to use a computer room set up to provide access to filtered sentences and other resources (like authentic models of native speakers) for pronunciation learning. They could listen to and practice what they had studied in class and they could engage in other activities of their choice to improve their pronunciation. For example, they could make recordings of their voices and compare them with the correct intonation patterns or hum or gesture as they had been doing systematically in class.

A simple online computer assisted system was developed to help students to be self-managing. They could listen to filtered and unfiltered models and could practice and enhance their pronunciation of intonation patterns. At the same time they could essentially generate their own lessons by navigating through the entire set of course materials in a simple way.

Results and discussion

Four Chinese experts were invited to rate the pretests conducted with both experimental and control groups. The findings of the pretest would be used to set a baseline for comparison and to help interpret the findings, particularly if any improvements or differences occurred at the end of the experiment.

This section describes the students' performances on the pretest and posttest as assessed by the validated test papers (the validity and reliability of the test paper were checked accordingly).

The participants' performances on the pretest and posttest were compared in order to check for any improvements in the students' pronunciation ability, thus to examine the effects of the pedagogical intervention. Descriptive statistics was used as a tool to provide an overall picture of the students' performance (see Table 4.14). It is interesting to see that the outcomes of the experimental group were more consistent since the standard deviation was smaller than that of the control group. In other words, the outcomes of the control group were more scattered and less reliable than that of the experimental group.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the results from the pretest and posttest

Group	Tests	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation
Experimental Group	Pretest	70.89	48	8.38
	Posttest	84.93	48	6.48
Control Group	Pretest	75.20	47	8.38
	Posttest	80.94	47	9.45

With regard to the improvement of each group, paired-sample t-test were used to perform the comparison of the pretest and posttest, thus to verify the potential effects of the pedagogical intervention on the EFL learners. This statistical analysis was appropriate because it compared the means of two variables—the pretest and the posttest—for each group. Statistical analysis showed that there was a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest in the experimental group ($p = 0.000$), and for the control group too ($p = 0.000$). That is, comparing the pretest and the posttest, both experimental group and control group improved significantly. However, the experimental group improved much more than the control group as Table 4.5 above shows. In the experimental group, the mean changed from 70.89 to 84.93, an increase of 14.4

(20.3%). In the control group, the mean changed from 75.20 to 80.94, an increase of 5.74 (8.09%). Moreover, there was a significant difference between the pretest means of the experimental group and the control group ($p = 0.014$) and there was a significant difference between the posttest means of the experimental group and the control group ($p = 0.018$). Initially, the control group was ahead of the experimental group. After the treatment, the experimental group had made up the difference with the control group and had overtaken it by a large margin.

In order to reduce within-group error variance and to eliminate confounds caused by any unmeasured variables, an Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) is used to remove the bias of the variables. In the pretest, there were significant differences between the control group and the experimental group ($p = 0.014$), which indicated that the control group was ahead of the experimental group before the treatment. However, the control group fell behind the experimental group in the posttest ($p = 0.018$). In the face of this starting inequality, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) on SPSS was used to test whether the treatment had an effect on the outcome variables (e.g. posttest score) after removing the variance for the preexisting differences.

The result of the ANCOVA yielded a p value of 0.000. This indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in the posttest. That is, the experimental group performed significantly better than the control group and it seems clear that the intervention was highly effective.

Conclusion

The CALL-VT system was effective in improving Chinese EFL learners' pronunciation ability in terms of both suprasegmental (prosody) and segmental (phonemes) features despite the lack of training in segmental features. Students' pronunciation was also significantly improved in terms of comprehensibility, pronunciation, and fluency. The experimental group outperformed the control group on all aspects of the study.

Within a task-based language learning system, CALL-VT situates itself in the pre-task phase where it is designed to improve all aspects of learning pronunciation, and, in particular face-to-face communication. After intensive training, students venture out into the task to be performed and test their newly-gained knowledge.

In this paper we sought to introduce a new approach to the learning of pronunciation in the context of Chinese EFL students involved in task-based learning. We described the theoretical basis of the approach and its implementation together with research safeguards to reduce the risk of error. Results clearly show high levels of progress in pronunciation in the experimental group of direct impact on task-based activities resulting in increased levels of comprehensibility and fluency, and, as a consequence, contributing to much higher levels of naturalness in face-to-face conversation.

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Heng-Tsung Danny Huang* & Shao-Ting Alan Hung**

National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan*

National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taipei, Taiwan**

dannyhuang123@ntu.edu.tw - alanhung@mail.ntust.edu.tw

Effects of a Video-Dubbing Task: Perspectives of EFL Learners

Bio data

Heng-Tsung Danny Huang is currently an assistant professor at National Taiwan University. His research interests lie in CALL and language testing. **Shao-Ting Alan Hung** currently works as an associate professor at National Taiwan University of Science and Technology. His areas of specialization include CALL, teacher education, and language assessment.

Current research

This study explored the effects of a video-dubbing task on L2 learning processes and outcomes from the perspectives of EFL learners. A total of 76 Taiwanese college students from three intact classes were recruited to complete a video-dubbing task in groups of three or four members. To accomplish this task, they first removed the original soundtrack of their chosen segment of an English-speaking movie and then dubbed it with their own voices and sound effects. Next, on the designated date, they played the dubbed video segment and performed the live dubbing act again in front of the entire class. All but two participating students answered a digital survey custom-designed with reference to prior relevant research (e.g., Burston, 2005; Chiu, 2012; Danan, 2010; Jungst, 2013) and consisting of 54 Likert-type items and 4 open-ended items that explored students' experiences of and perceptions toward partaking in the video-dubbing task. Descriptive statistics and qualitative analyses performed on the survey responses collectively revealed that students perceived the video-dubbing task as an educational and entertaining task that could function to enhance linguistic gains, decrease language anxiety, promote cultural understanding, strengthen communication confidence, increase learning motivation, reinforce learner autonomy, and foster an enhanced sense of learning community. Additionally, the independent t tests conducted on the responses between high-proficiency and low-proficiency participants in terms of the seven aspects gave rise to parallel results. In light of the derived findings, the researchers propose implications for L2 instruction in general and L2 task-based instruction in particular.

Task design & language learning and teaching

In response to the first question posed for the conference, the video-dubbing task, or the task of revoicing the soundtrack of an existing video, might serve as an authentic, useful, and enjoyable language learning activity. First, the video-dubbing task features an air of authenticity as students invariably need to deal with video clips produced for a real audience rather than a specified group of language learners. Second, by offering substantial listening, reading, and speaking practices, the video-dubbing task could help students advance their linguistic competence through improving their pronunciation and intonation, increasing their speaking fluency, and so forth (Chiu, 2012). Further, by allowing students to "take refuge behind their screen persona," the video-dubbing task could manifest itself as a less intimidating task and as such provoke a comparatively lower level of language anxiety in the students (Burston, 2005, p. 81). Taken together,

by benefiting both the linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language learning, the video-dubbing task could thus somehow emerge as a pedagogically useful tool that operates to augment language proficiency. Third, the video-dubbing task, when completed as a group project, would constitute "a refreshing and entertaining group activity" that helps cultivate a stronger peer bond and enables students to "have fun with the target language without having to be quizzed or drilled" (Danan, 2010, p.452). With respect to the fifth question raised for this conference, the affordances of technology in the context of a video-dubbing task include, *inter alia*, removing the time and space constraints, permitting the manipulation of the source video, and making possible the creative use of sounds. However, the limitations of technology to take into account in designing a video-dubbing task would consist primarily in the available functions of the chosen video-editing software and the quality of the accessible recording equipment, among other issues.

Short paper

Video-dubbing, in its simplest form, reflects the process of substituting voices and sound effects for the existing soundtrack of a full-length video or a selected video segment (Burston, 2005). In the context of foreign/second language (L2) learning, this particular application of video technology has been claimed to contribute favorably to the learning processes and outcomes in myriad manners. For instance, it offers substantial listening, reading, and speaking practices to help L2 learners advance their linguistic competence through improving their pronunciation and intonation, increasing their speaking fluency, and so forth (Chiu, 2012; Kumai, 1996). Additionally, video-dubbing constitutes a more intrinsically public task that fosters enhanced motivation through entailing the presentation of the dubbed video to an audience and, concurrently, manifests itself as a less intimidating task that reduces language anxiety by allowing the learners to "take refuge behind their screen persona" (Burston, 2005, p.81). Moreover, video-dubbing, when completed as a team project, would represent "a refreshing and entertaining group activity" that cultivates a stronger peer bond (Danan, 2010, p.452) and, in a way similar to other media projects, develops a strengthened sense of community among the students (Babaszewski, 2002).

However, despite the aforementioned pedagogical advantages of video-dubbing, the empirical efforts put forth to investigate the utility of video-dubbing tasks in the L2 classroom have hitherto remained largely limited and scarce. In light of this paucity of relevant literature and in view of the anecdotal observation that learners mostly enjoy working with multimodal materials (Jungst, 2013), the current researchers thus undertook a mixed-method study to explore English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) learners' experience and perception of completing a video-dubbing task and examine the potential interaction between L2 proficiency levels and the perceived value of the video-dubbing task as an L2 learning activity.

A total of 76 Taiwanese college students from three intact classes were recruited to complete a video-dubbing task in groups of three or four members. To accomplish this task, they first removed the original soundtrack of their chosen segment of an English-speaking movie and then dubbed it with their own voices and sound effects. Next, on the designated date, they played the dubbed video segment and performed the live dubbing act again in front of the entire class. All but two participating students answered a digital survey custom-designed with reference to prior relevant research (e.g., Burston, 2005; Chiu, 2012; Danan, 2010; Jungst, 2013) and consisting of 54 Likert-type items and 4 open-ended items that explored students' experiences of and perceptions toward partaking in the video-dubbing task. Descriptive statistics and qualitative analyses performed on the survey responses collectively revealed that students perceived the video-dubbing task as an educational and entertaining task that could function to enhance linguistic gains, decrease language anxiety, promote cultural understanding,

strengthen communication confidence, increase learning motivation, reinforce learner autonomy, and foster an enhanced sense of learning community. Additionally, the independent t tests conducted on the responses between high-proficiency and low-proficiency participants in terms of the seven aspects gave rise to parallel results. In light of the derived findings, the researchers propose implications for L2 instruction in general and L2 task-based instruction in particular.

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Philip Hubbard

Stanford University, Stanford, United States

phubbard@stanford.edu

Training learners for self-directed listening tasks

Bio data

Philip Hubbard is Senior Lecturer in Linguistics and Director of English for Foreign Students in the Stanford University Language Center. He has worked in CALL for over 30 years, most recently on CALL theory, listening, and mobile learning. He is associate editor of Computer Assisted Language Learning and Language Learning & Technology and serves on editorial boards of the CALICO Journal and ReCALL. He is incoming President of CALICO, 2015-16.

Current research

This study reports on lessons learned from over a decade of development, research and practice in teaching an ESL course in advanced listening and vocabulary development. The course has three objectives: 1) to significantly improve students' listening proficiency across a range of areas; 2) to expand their repertoire of words and phrases of value to them; 3) to develop effective personal learning strategies to support their autonomy both during the 10-week course and in preparation for self-directed learning thereafter. They work independently outside the class and then discuss those experiences during part of the class time. Much of that independent work centers on self-designed listening tasks mediated by technology.

One part of the study looks at the role of the self-directed listening tasks. These tasks play a dual role in this course: 1) providing learners with a mechanism for taking in content of interest to them for knowledge, pleasure, or both, and 2) incorporating self-directed exploration and practice activities that exploit the material for intentional development of language proficiency. Another part of the study involves the integration of learner training in the class. The goal here is for the students 1) to become adept in selecting personally interesting online materials that also embody qualities making them useful for building language proficiency and 2) to incorporate or adapt techniques and procedures for engaging in their listening tasks in ways that allow focus on form as well as meaning. The final part describes the key role of reflection in the process through small-group collaborative debriefings in class, bi-weekly individual tutorials, and weekly reflective reports. Data from these sources reveal learner progress and challenges during this process.

The discussion is supported by excerpts from a three-year research study on the learner training component of the course. It also includes a brief description of current research on the role of advice from those who have completed the course to those just beginning it.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Within the range of questions provided in the conference theme, the most relevant two seem to be 1) "Which tasks are best suited to which skills?" and 2) "How do our tasks fit

in with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, Socioconstructivist environments, Flipped Classroom approaches ...?”

With respect to the first question, the focus here is on listening tasks, which interestingly have received relatively little attention within the strongly communicatively and interactionally-oriented TBLT literature. Nevertheless, given the ubiquity of audio and digital media that are by design one-way rather than interactive forms of communication, there is a clear need to develop proficiency in this domain so that language learners can engage with the target language and culture through their audio and video artifacts. Further, the listening tasks within this course can be seen to incorporate four of the five elements of technology mediated TBLT from Gonzalez-Lloret and Ortega (2014: 5-6): primary focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centredness, and especially, reflective learning. The last is in line with recent movements in listening practice centering on developing learners’ metacognitive abilities (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). The link of these listening tasks to Gonzalez-Lloret and Ortega’s fifth element, holism, is more tenuous, as the course explicitly encourages learners to engage their analytical faculties. In line with widely accepted elements in SLA (Ellis, 2014) the class emphasizes the importance of both extensive, comprehensible input that is personally meaningful and opportunities to focus on form and engage in deliberate practice (especially for new vocabulary) to facilitate retention (see de Keyser (2007) for multiple perspectives on the role of practice in SLA).

With respect to the second question, the course is built on a blended learning environment, where students have a two-hour session together in a classroom each week and six or more hours outside of class doing listening and vocabulary development tasks on their own. The definition in Leakey & Ranchoux (2006) provides guidance here: “Blended learning in CALL is the adaptation in a local context of previous CALL and non-CALL pedagogies into an integrated program of language teaching and learning drawing on different mixes of media and delivery to produce an optimum mix that addresses the unique needs and demands of that context” (p. 358). In line with more recent views, it also draws on elements of a “flipped” classroom and in that the significant parts of class time are devoted to learners sharing and discussing their individual learning experiences from outside of class through small-group collaborative debriefings” (Hubbard, 2004). Although the goal of these debriefings is increasing motivation and metacognitive awareness, the practice also resonates with socioconstructivist views and is itself a communicative task.

Short paper

Introduction.

For over a decade, I have regularly taught a class at Stanford University in advanced listening for international graduate students. As briefly described below, the course has changed its form and content over the years but one constant, central element has been independent listening projects. I begin by describing the class as a whole and then shift the focus to the independent listening projects and tasks students experience through them. I then discuss the role of learner training for those projects, emphasizing the importance of reflection and interaction with peers and the instructor in the development of increased autonomy.

The listening tasks within this course can be seen to incorporate four of the five elements of technology mediated TBLT from Gonzalez-Lloret and Ortega (2014: 5-6): primary focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centeredness, and especially, reflective learning. The last is in line with recent movements in listening practice centering on developing learners’ metacognitive abilities (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). The link of these listening tasks to Gonzalez-Lloret and Ortega’s fifth element, holism, is more

tenuous, as the course explicitly encourages learners to engage their analytical faculties. In line with widely accepted elements in SLA (Ellis, 2014) the class emphasizes the importance of both extensive, comprehensible input that is personally meaningful and opportunities to focus on form and engage in deliberate practice (especially for new vocabulary) to facilitate retention (see de Keyser (2007) for multiple perspectives on the role of practice in SLA).

The class.

Initially developed about 20 years ago, the class labeled EFS (English for Foreign Students) 693B was added to the curriculum to accommodate students who wanted to expand formal training in listening skills beyond the lecture listening class (now 693A) that was our only offering at that time. Besides a review of lecture listening, the course involved theme-based units on listening to specific genres, such as news, television dramas, television comedies, and various types of movies. It went through name changes as "advanced listening", "listening and communication" before become "advanced listening and vocabulary development". The course has three objectives: 1) to significantly improve students' listening proficiency across a range of areas; 2) to expand their repertoire of words and phrases of value to them; 3) to develop effective personal learning strategies to support their autonomy both during the 10-week course and in preparation for self-directed learning thereafter. They work independently outside the class and then discuss those experiences during part of the class time. Much of that independent work centers on self-designed listening tasks mediated by technology described below.

The class was originally structured as most other EFS courses are, a 3-unit model with two 75-minute meetings per week. Following the loss of a full-time position due to a major budget cut, for three years (fall 2009-spring 2012), I taught it experimentally with just one 75-minute meeting per week to allow us to keep one of the sections, including additional homework and moving the independent project requirement from two to three hours a week. On the exit exam, there was no significant difference compared to previous years, although the strain on the instructor was significant (the same class time but twice as many reports to review and individual meetings to conduct). Due to the success of that experiment, when the lost position was restored, we extended the class time to two hours, once a week with the instructor getting credit for a full class.

The class material is structured around themes, moving from informational listening on topics in science, social science and news aimed at supporting their ability to process lectures and colloquia to listening for entertainment and cultural experiences. As part of the learner training described below, students are also provided with information in class about the listening process and its relationship to second language learning. The full set of class notes, which I use as classroom material as well as for further study by students, can be found at <http://web.stanford.edu/~efs/693b/>.

The independent work and heavy reliance on online materials qualifies this course to be "blended" in the sense of Leakey & Ranchoux (2006): "Blended learning in CALL is the adaptation in a local context of previous CALL and non-CALL pedagogies into an integrated program of language teaching and learning drawing on different mixes of media and delivery to produce an optimum mix that addresses the unique needs and demands of that context" (p. 358). It can also be considered a partially flipped classroom in that significant elements in some weeks are done outside of class time and then discussed in small groups and expanded on during the class meetings.

As an example, the first class session focuses on the life and work of Nikola Tesla. The class begins with a short video clip (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=akM9KNEv_JE) of Tesla to generate interest prior to the typical syllabus overview and introduction of the instructor and students. This is followed by an additional short clip from a different source and then a segment from a longer independent short film dramatizing Tesla's life.

Following a break, I introduce a simplified model of listening practice focusing on three areas: practice in comprehending more effectively, practice in improving processing (speed, accuracy, and capacity), and tasks for building language knowledge (sound system, vocabulary, etc.). Each of these is expanded on in later weeks, bringing in concepts like the importance of both top-down and bottom-up processing, cognitive resource limitations, and so on. The next part of this opening class shifts to discussions of vocabulary, including word frequency lists and the importance of selecting useful words and phrases to learn, an initial procedure for vocabulary development, and an introduction to Tom Cobb's Lextutor (www.lex tutor.ca) site for getting vocabulary profiles of transcripts. Beginning the second week, students are required to learn a minimum of 35 new words and phrases per week, which I quiz them on during individual meetings throughout the quarter. The first class ends with another video clip on Tesla (a TED talk by Marco Tempest). Homework consists of rewatching selected clips from the class, and attempting to draw new words and phrases from them. Two key takeaways from this experience for the students are 1) listening to several clips from different sources on the same topic (narrow listening) allows for some of the advantages of repetition while maintaining interest (there is always something new), and 2) trying to identify new vocabulary or heavily accented speech in the absence of a transcript or captions is a frustrating and time-consuming experience. Throughout the rest of the course, students will primarily rely on material that comes with text support.

The independent projects.

Teaching a small class (a maximum of 14) allows an instructor to get to know students much better as individuals. Early on it became clear that even among students from the same country and major, there were differences in perceived listening issues, learning styles, and especially preferred content for practice (Hubbard & Romeo, 2012). The independent listening projects allowed flexibility in both the materials and the paths through listening tasks to accommodate those differences, with students generally reporting increased motivation and satisfaction relative to teacher-assigned materials and tasks. Learner training as described in the following section provided support for learners as they worked on their own. The projects require students to work at least three hours a week on material they have chosen to improve specific areas of their listening and/or to build their vocabulary.

Two key aspects of the independent projects are the self-report form and individual meetings. The report forms initially require students to list the time they spent on a listening session, the URL of the material used, a brief description of the procedure, and comments. The comments are primarily aimed at getting students to reflect on how successful they were with that session and what they might either repeat or do differently based on the experience. About halfway through the course, another column requiring students to state one or more specific listening or vocabulary learning objectives for each session is added. Figure 1 shows an example of part of a first report by a student.

Date and time:	Material:	Procedure:	Comments:
4/16 6:30-7:15 pm	http://www.cnn.com/ studentnews	Look at the description below video first and then watch it. Watch without pausing at the first time. Re-watch again with pausing and rewinding.	Not hard to understand the news although I miss some words. Need to review transcript.
4/18 8:30-9:15 pm	http://ecorner.stanford.edu/authorMaterialInfo.html?mid=2913 http://ecorner.stanford.edu/authorMaterialInfo.html?mid=2914	For each clip: review the topic and think about it; Repeat 2 time to do a transcription; Check with transcripts; Listen a final time; Read the transcripts text to learn vocabulary	Her speed is a little fast, and I need to look through at the transcript to learn what is exact linked word. Do a transcription is a good way to learn

Figure 1. Example reflective report segment from first week.

Students also had individual meetings with me every two weeks. In the weeks without meetings, I provided feedback on reports through email, but at the individual meetings, we went through their choice of materials, objectives, and procedures in detail. It was here that I would discover and try to resolve student misunderstandings as well as introduce new ideas for materials and strategies. Interestingly, I learned of new websites and applications from them as well, which I could then pass on to the rest of the class.

Learner training.

Learner training is embedded centrally in the TESOL Technology Standards (TESOL, 2008), and I believe that a key element of the success of this course over the years has been the incorporation of *pervasive learner training*, a belief supported by the research in Romeo & Hubbard (2010). That work explores the implementation of learner training in this course both quantitatively and qualitatively. The underlying framework is from Hubbard (2004), which introduced a set of five principles for incorporating learner training into a language course.

1. Experience CALL yourself—begin understanding learner training by taking the learner’s perspective.
2. Give learners teacher training—for learners to become independent, understanding language acquisition and pedagogy is helpful.
3. Use a cyclical approach—recognize that training is a process and that repetition and gradual expansion is needed.
4. Use collaborative debriefings—take class time to let students learn from each other as well as from you.
5. Teach general exploitation strategies—show learners how they can control the learning environment rather than letting it control them.

In Romeo & Hubbard (2010), these principles are integrated into a more general conceptual framework for learner training divided across three domains:

- Technical training, *how* to use the options and controls of both general and specific applications on the computer for language learning purposes;
- Strategic training, *what* to do to support certain learning objectives, including how to link sequences of strategies (or techniques) into learning procedures;
- Pedagogical training (i.e., teacher training), determining specific learning objectives and understanding *why* to use certain techniques and procedures to achieve those objectives.

In the study reported there based on a cohort of 15 students across two classes, training was provided in class and through the individual tutorials. Training included guidance for selecting appropriate materials and vocabulary, strategies for the use of captions and transcripts for specific purposes rather than as a general crutch for comprehension, work with media players, including the play speed control for reducing speech rate, and many other areas (for details see the notes at <http://web.stanford.edu/~efs/693b/notes.html>). Given the pervasive nature of the training, we wanted to determine for ourselves whether the substantial cost in class and tutorial time was outweighed by the benefits.

Data was collected from a variety of sources, in particular the reflective reports, recordings of the individual meetings, and an exit interview. There was also a quantitative score based on a pre- and post-test using a variant of the Plaister Aural Comprehension Test (PACT) we had previously developed and validated as a placement exam.

Briefly, the data from reports, meetings, and the exit interview combined to show that reflective learning was taking place and that students were engaging in their listening tasks in ways that reflected an understanding of language learning principles. Motivation seemed high as well. Remarks from the final reports and the exit interview made it clear that many students had a much clearer understanding of the nature of the how, what, and why of independent strategies for language learning. Given the limited time available to us in a 10-week course, we were pleased to see that students had developed a foundation that would allow them to continue their learning autonomously should they so desire. Quantitatively, median scores on the PACT increased from 59% on the pre-test to 70% on the post-test, though in the absence of a control group, it is unclear how much of that gain could be attributed to the training.

While Romeo & Hubbard (2010) focused on general cost vs. benefit of learner training, a followup study (Hubbard & Romeo, 2012) looked at diversity among the learners. Areas of diversity beyond the obvious ones of gender, native culture, and major included the following:

- differences in scheduling, e.g., preferences for shorter, more frequent experiences vs. fewer longer ones, typically weekends;
- differences in student goals, e.g., conversational English embedded in US culture vs. academic English typical of the classroom and research setting;
- differences in the range of strategies employed, with some sticking to a handful of those they found familiar (e.g., shadowing) and other more adventurous ones experimenting across a wide range of provided options as well as ones of their own invention.

This study also observed that students tended to go through three stages during the process of learning to use their training independently. First, they came to recognize what media characteristics were making listening difficult for them (speech rate, accent, content familiarity, vocabulary, etc.). Second, they began to select materials and strategies themselves that would make comprehension easier while still maintaining an appropriate level of challenge to support learning. Finally, some seemed to have internalized a range of strategies and were using them more regularly and effectively, though it was clear that not all reached this stage in the time provided.

Additional remarks.

Along with the core course described, there have been a couple of more recent innovations that have been integrated into it. One of these is a collection of sets of curated TED talks (www.ted.com) that provide students with additional guidance in making selections for independent listening. In working through the reports over the years, I was often struck by comments showing that students had selected material they thought was interesting but found it too challenging to support their listening

development. There was also a tendency (despite prior instruction in the value of narrow listening) to mix completely unrelated materials together. I realized that by providing some additional information I could steer them toward material that would give them choice in terms of interest but be closer to an appropriate level to support language development. At <http://web.stanford.edu/~efs/693b/TED1.html>, I have four sets of talks, each on a different theme. The talks (four or five to each set) begin with easier and shorter ones and progress to somewhat more challenging ones, with the "humor" theme presenting the greatest challenge. In addition to the time and background information, students are provided with a comment on the speaker's accent and vocabulary profiles showing the percentage of words at the 3K, 5K, 10K and off-list levels to assist in determining the level of vocabulary difficulty. The average words-per-minute is also calculated for each spoken text as a proxy for speech rate. Students have remarked that they find these curated collections valuable and are anxious for more.

A second innovation has been to provide trans-generational advice. For the final reflective report (week 9), students are asked 1) to list the three websites they have found most valuable; 2) to list the three strategies or procedures they have found most useful, and 3) to provide advice to a student just beginning the course. Students can then check a box if they are willing to have their responses published online anonymously (most check that box). Early in the course, they are presented with that information from previous cohorts: see <http://web.stanford.edu/~efs/693b/peer-advice.html> for examples. I put everything up unedited. I have found this to be helpful not only in providing independent support for some of the concepts I am trying to get across to students, but also in discovering more about what students found most useful this way than I get through the standard university course evaluations.

Conclusion.

I have briefly described the results of both formal and informal research and development on this advanced listening and vocabulary class. I am scheduled to teach it again in the fall and am looking forward to refining the training component further. Interested readers should feel free to visit the course website to see how this evolves—I will update it weekly starting in late September 2015.

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Shao-Ting Alan Hung & Heng-Tsung Danny Huang

National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taipei, Taiwan.

alanhung123@gmail.com - dannyhuang123@gmail.com

Constructing multimodal peer feedback: Exploring strategies employed by L2 learners

Bio data

Shao-Ting Alan Hung is an Associate Professor in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at National Taiwan University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. His research interests include CALL, language assessment and language teacher education. He has published articles in *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, and *The Encyclopedia of Applied Linguistics*.

Heng-Tsung Danny Huang is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literatures at National Taiwan University. His research interests include language testing, CALL, and quantitative research method. He has published articles in *TESOL Quarterly*, *Asia Pacific Education Review*, and *British Journal of Educational Technology*.

Current research

Peer feedback provision activity is considered crucial in language learning. However, although the studies on peer feedback abound in the L2 literature, most targeted the face-to-face or written modality; few investigated the pedagogic potential of videos in enhancing students' engagement in the feedback provision process. This paucity of relevant research renders L2 learners' strategic behaviors in constructing video-mediated multimodal peer feedback (m-feedback) largely unclear. Therefore, the current study explored the strategies L2 learners employed when producing m-feedback. A semester-long m-feedback project was implemented. Students were each required to produce 3-minute video clips in which they orally responded to the assigned questions, watch their group members' video clips and produce 2-minute oral feedback video clips that contained several semiotic modes such as visual, spoken, gestural and textual.

Data analyses performed on the responses on a custom-designed questionnaire, the interview transcripts, and the m-feedback clip transcripts led to two major findings. First, in giving m-feedback, learners mobilized such meta-cognitive strategies as planning, monitoring, and evaluating, deployed such cognitive strategies as rehearsing, analyzing and reasoning, and utilized such social strategies as discussing with peers. Second, some m-feedback strategies were found to pertain specifically to the video-mediated modality, such as re-viewing the archived clips, using intonation to emphasize key points, and taking more notice of the linguistic features. These findings will offer implications for generating appropriate m-feedback to enhance language learning.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Feedback provision activity is considered essential to student learning (Juwah, Macfarlane-Dick, Matthew, Nicol, & Smith, 2004). Good quality and timely feedback are key features for supporting effective student learning processes. However, it has been known to be a challenge for both teachers and students. For teachers, providing

feedback could be a repetitive and time-consuming process. For students, receiving prompt feedback and receiving feedback that helps clarify points in their work what they did not understand are two major issues (Crook, Mauchline, Maw, Lawson, Drinkwater, Lundqvist, Orsmond, Gomez, & Park, 2011). To be more specific, Crook et al (2011) further point out that several problems have been raised on feedback provision in the university context; for example, time efficiency for faculty, lack of engagement by students, issues with the timeliness and quality of feedback received. The most common mode of student feedback is the written feedback because many students only see feedback as written comments on their assignment (Smith, 2007). Nevertheless, written feedback has its limitations, including problems of illegible handwriting and the potential for misunderstanding of written comments (Crook et al, 2011; Price, 2007; Walker, 2009). Hence, a number of studies have investigated the pedagogical application of digital technologies for enhancing feedback provision under the assumption that technologies may also provide the innovative edge that can help students engage more effectively with their feedback (Crook et al, 2012).

The current study intends to answer the question, How does technology impact on non-technological tasks?. Among all the technological applications that facilitate feedback provision, including automated feedback (Wieling & Hofman, 2010) and audio MP3 files (Lunt & Curran, 2010), audio technology has been regarded as effective in enhancing feedback provision (Ribchester, France, & Wheeler, 2007). According to Merry and Orsmond (2008), students appreciate audio feedback because it is more personal, easier to understand and had more depth. Students can also adjust the volume and tone to highlight key points and thus gain more understanding from the oral feedback. In addition to audio technology, video technology is also believed to have broad acceptance among students and offer richer format for feedback provision than audio (Cann, 2007). Several advantages are discussed; for example, video-based feedback has potential for demonstrations (Abrahamson, 2010) and provides a permanent record, which can be archived and replayed at students' convenience (Crook et al, 2011). Thus, it becomes reasonable to argue that the combination of multiple semiotic modes (i.e. audio, visual, gestural, textual) in the feedback might reinforce students' feedback provision experience.

In brief, given the above mentioned influences of technology on feedback, the present study implemented multimodal feedback task and explored strategies employed by L2 learners when constructing multimodal peer feedback. With the results from the study, teachers can employ more effective technological interventions to foster peer feedback provision experience.

Short paper

Feedback is defined as "all post-response information that is provided to a learner to inform the learner on his or her actual state of learning or performance" (Narciss, 2008, p. 127). It can generate positive and constructive effects on learning while it can produce no or negative effects. Peer feedback provision activity is considered crucial in language learning because Mory (2003) proposes that feedback can support learning in the following four ways. First, feedback can be used as an incentive for increasing response rate and accuracy. Second, it can be considered as a reinforcer that connects responses to prior stimuli. Third, it can be regarded as information that learners can use to validate or modify a previous response. Lastly, it can be used as a scaffold to help learners construct internal schemata and analyze their learning processes.

However, although the studies on peer feedback abound in the L2 literature, most targeted the face-to-face or written modality; few investigated the pedagogic potential of videos in enhancing students' engagement in the feedback provision process. When used in feedback provision, video technology is believed to have broad acceptance among

students and offer richer format for feedback provision than text and audio (Cann, 2007). Several advantages are discussed; for example, video-based feedback has potential for demonstrations (Abrahamson, 2010) and provides a permanent record, which can be archived and replayed at students' convenience (Crook et al, 2011). Hence, given the benefits of video technology, it becomes reasonable to argue that video can function to enhance students' oral feedback and it also becomes crucial to look for empirical evidence from the current project.

Targeting video-mediated multimodal peer feedback (m-feedback), the current study aimed to explore the strategies L2 learners employed when producing m-feedback. A total of 60 EFL learners were recruited for this semester-long m-feedback project. Participants were divided into 12 teams. Each team created a closed group on Facebook for uploading video-mediated oral responses and posting video-mediated oral feedback. For the intervention, each student was required to produce 3-minute video clips in which they orally responded to the assigned questions related to the discussions occurring in the classroom, namely, producing video-mediated oral responses. Then, they were asked to upload the video clips to their respective groups on Facebook. Next, they watched their group members' video clips and produced 2-minute oral feedback video clips on the performance of their peers, namely, producing video-mediated oral feedback that contained several semiotic modes such as visual, spoken, gestural and textual. In the feedback, they were instructed to comment on linguistic accuracy (i.e. syntactical, lexical, phonological) and presentational skills (i.e. volume, body language, eye contact) of their peers' oral responses. In the course of a semester, each student uploaded three oral response clips and six oral feedback clips to their respective groups.

Data analyses performed on the responses on a custom-designed questionnaire, the interview transcripts, and the m-feedback clip transcripts led to two major findings. First, in giving m-feedback, learners mobilized such meta-cognitive strategies as planning, monitoring, and evaluating, deployed such cognitive strategies as rehearsing, analyzing and reasoning, and utilized such social strategies as discussing with peers. Second, some m-feedback strategies were found to pertain specifically to the video-mediated modality, such as re-viewing the archived clips, using intonation to emphasize key points, and taking more notice of the linguistic features. With the findings from the current study, EFL teachers can employ more effective instructional interventions to foster peer feedback provision in the virtual learning environment. To be more specific, with reference to the strategies revealed from the study, teachers can raise learners' awareness of these strategies and thus develop their strategic competence when they train learners how to make the best use of multimodal resources in constructing effective oral feedback.

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Fenfang Hwu

University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, United States

hwuf@ucmail.uc.edu

Task promoting hypothesis-testing and providing communicative need via comic-creation

Bio data

Fenfang Hwu is an associate professor in the Department of Romance Languages and Literatures at the University of Cincinnati, USA. Her recent research projects include the development of instructional techniques to accommodate individual differences in second language learning, the use of tracking technology in CALL research, and production practice through CALL.

Current research

Most second language teachers and researchers believe that production practice is crucial for developing second language proficiency. In this presentation I will present comic-creation as a production-task goal for the acquisition of Spanish past tense forms in daily conversations. I posit that the aforementioned task, consisted of sequenced sub-tasks, provides learners with the communicative need and motivation to utilize the targeted language features. First, learners script dialogues through modeling, which enables them **to** test their hypotheses about the contexts in which the targeted grammar point should be used, before receiving feedback. Next, they elaborate the former task converting dialogues into digital comics. Finally, they vote to choose best comics, accordingly getting more exposure to the targeted features. Given current research and theories on output practice and individual learner differences, it is predicted that learners' performance will improve as a result of the aforementioned practice and there may be individual variations in performance.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The conference theme identifies three partly overlapping task types: (1) meaningful tasks in which the focus on particular forms is tightly embedded, (2) *tasks* with primary focus on meaning such as CMC or Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and (3) *exercises* that focus on isolated forms, including improved and enriched exercises as well as drill-and-practice.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned task types, the answer as to which type is best suited seems to depend on a host of factors. Firstly, what is to be learned, e.g., vocabulary, simple and straightforward morphology, or challenging form-meaning connection such as the connection between the past tense verb ending and the concept of past for learners whose mother tongues are non-inflectional languages? It seems that designing TBLT for vocabulary acquisition would be more straightforward than for the acquisition of complex form-meaning relationships.

Secondly, what is the stage of learning and how familiar is the learner with the targeted language use? It seems that TBLT is better suited for learners already familiar with the targeted language use to a certain degree.

Thirdly, if the purpose of the task is to elicit or provide opportunity for the targeted language use, how certain is a task type or a task itself able to elicit such use, whether it be the use of vocabulary or language features? It seems that exercises focus on isolated forms and meaningful tasks in which the focus on particular forms is tightly embedded are both able to elicit targeted language use.

Fourthly, what is the goal of the task, to give the learner the opportunity to practice a language use, to enhance overall communicative competence, to collect explicit or implicit language use data for research purposes, or to enhance higher-order thinking skills (see Roy, 2014)? It seems that CMC would be suited for overall communicative competence and TBLT for collecting implicit language use (Ellis, 2003).

Fifthly, SLA or learning theories can inform us what task type may be best suited for a given situation.

The task chosen for the study best falls under the first category, that is, meaningful tasks in which the focus on particular forms is tightly embedded. This task type was chosen to accommodate learners of the study, who were unaware of or unfamiliar with the targeted language use, involving two forms and each having more than one meaning, and to ensure that learners use the targeted language feature.

Further, this task type was chosen to provide opportunity for the learner to test their hypothesis about the appropriate context for a particular usage (Swain, 1995, 1998; Swain & Lapkin 1994). Accordingly, corrective feedback is indispensable. As to whether this task would be enjoyable, theories on learning style predict that the chosen task will be more enjoyable for tactile/kinesthetic learners. With respect to effectiveness, output hypothesis (Swain, 1995) predicts that it will be effective, but it will ultimately be an empirical question.

What this CALL task has learned from TBLT was that the language elicited corresponds to that found in normal communication (Ellis, 2003). Further, although the current task prescribed the language use, the context in which the form was to be used and the actual choice of meaning (the verb that followed the prescribed verb) was decided by the learner thus allowing creativity. In sum, to complete the task, the learner both used a linguistic tool (writing) and a non-linguistic tool (comic).

Short paper

Many factors affect the acquisition of Spanish past tense forms, preterite and imperfect, in daily conversations (Blyth, 1997, 2005; Dansereau, 1987; Frantzen, 1995; Hwu, 2004, 2005; Westfall & Foerster, 1996). Besides receiving adequate language models as input and pedagogical grammar explanations (Hwu, 2004), learners need opportunities to consolidate the knowledge they gain (see DeKeyser, 1998) and transfer what they have learned to functional language use through output practice (Swain and Lapkin 1994, Swain, 1995).

This study investigates comic-creation, consisted of a series of sub-tasks, as a production-task goal for the acquisition of Spanish past tense forms in daily conversations. It posits that this task provides learners with the ultimate communicative need (see MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998) and motivation to elaborate preceding sub-tasks (see Van den Branden, 2007) in a fun, creative, and "safe" environment.

After receiving input models consisted of talking comics, learners scripted their own dialogues. This activity enabled them to test their hypotheses about the contexts in which the targeted features should be used, before receiving feedback from the

instructor (see Swain and Lapkin 1994, Swain, 1995). Then, they elaborated the former task converting dialogues into talking comics. This activity aimed to promote deeper processing of the knowledge stored in their working memory, converting it to long-term memory. It may also accommodate tactile/kinesthetic/visual learners. Afterwards, students viewed comics created by peers and voted to choose best works in three categories: story, art, and pronunciation. This activity provided them with more exposure to the target grammar point and motivated them to engage in the aforementioned activities.

The participants were students of intermediate Spanish. All received input exemplars, consisting of talking comics, and pedagogical grammar explanations. The output groups also modeled their written dialogues on input exemplars and received feedback for their works. One output group further converted dialogues into talking comics and voted for best works.

Their performance data were collected through a pretest, a posttest after input and dialogue-writing or input alone, another posttest after comic-creation or no comic-creation, and a delayed posttest. The following questions will be addressed. (a) Is "input + dialogue-writing" superior to "input" alone? (b) Is "input + dialogue-writing + comic-creation" superior to "input + dialogue-writing"? (c) Does any type of learner benefit more from output practice compared to the other type as evidenced by the measure of knowledge gain?

Based on output hypothesis (Swain & Lapkin 1994, Swain, 1995), it is predicted that both the output groups will outperform the input group and the comic group will outperform the dialogue group. Further, given research on individual learner differences (e.g., Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2002; Hwu & Sun, 2012; Hwu, Pan, & Sun, 2013; Robinson, 2007; Snow, 1991), it is possible that some learners, e.g., poor language aptitude, poor language proficiency, or kinesthetic/tactile learning style, will learn better when they are given opportunities to reinforce their newly gained knowledge through output-based activities.

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Ana Ibáñez Moreno*, Anna Vermeulen & María Jordano***

Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Madrid, Spain*
Ghent University, Ghent, Belgium**

aibanez@flog.uned.es – anna.vermeulen@ugent.be – mjordano@flog.uned.es

VISP, an enjoyable app to enhance idiomaticity in English

Bio data

Ana Ibáñez Moreno is associate professor at the Faculty of Philology of the Spanish National University of Distance Education, UNED (Spain). Her current key area of research focuses on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Her main topics are error analysis and the development of communicative strategies when learning a foreign language, combined with the use of audio description as a didactic tool in the classroom.

Anna Vermeulen is associate professor at the Department of Translation, Interpreting and Communication of the Faculty of Arts and Philosophy of Ghent University (Belgium). In her research and publications, she concentrates on translation strategies and techniques, pragmatic aspects and linguistic variation in AVT, as well as AVT as a didactic tool in foreign language teaching and learning.

María Jordano is associate professor at the Faculty of Philology of the Spanish National University of Distance Education, UNED (Spain). She has been working on different subjects dealing with ELT, ESP, MALL and ICT. She has been collaborating with other Universities (Postgraduate courses) in the areas of e-learning and the elaboration of multimedia material (University of Alicante & University of Seville).

In the never-ending quest of finding learning methods that adapt to the changing profiles and needs of our evolving society, in 2010 we started working on a project that we called *ARDELE* (acronym for “*Audiodescripción como Recurso Didáctico en la Enseñanza del Español como Lengua Extranjera*”). The project aims to explore the pedagogical benefits and limitations of the use of audio description (AD) techniques within the Foreign Languages (FL) classroom. Initially, AD was created

Current research

In the never-ending quest of finding learning methods that adapt to the changing profiles and needs of our evolving society, in 2010 we started working on a project that we called *ARDELE* (acronym for “*Audiodescripción como Recurso Didáctico en la Enseñanza del Español como Lengua Extranjera*”). The project aims to explore the pedagogical benefits and limitations of the use of audio description (AD) techniques within the Foreign Languages (FL) classroom. Initially, AD was created to make audiovisual products (films, documentaries, theatre, opera, etc.) accessible to blind and visually-impaired people, turning the images into speech (Benecke, 2004). However, it soon proved to be also beneficial to elderly people, children, immigrants and students of translation or of FL (Snyder, 2005; Clouet, 2005; Cambeiro and Quereda 2007, Martínez Martínez, 2012). In this project, we work on the hypothesis that due to the time constraints of audio describing visual events and settings (confined to the spans between dialogues and sounds, or the pauses in monologues), accuracy, idiomaticity and fluency are essential, so carrying out AD-based tasks can be useful to enhance lexical and phraseological competence in the FL classroom, or to improve communicative competences in general, for that matter (Ibáñez & Vermeulen 2013, 2014, in press a, b). The project started at

the Department of Applied Language Studies at Ghent University (Belgium), with Dutch-speaking Belgian students who study Spanish, but from 2012, it has been widened to include Spanish students who study English, not only in a formal setting (the classroom), but also in the field of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), within the research project SO-CALL-ME⁵² from the UNED-based group ATLAS (Applying Technology to LAnguageS⁵³). That is when the application named *VISP* (VIdeos for SPeaking) was conceived.

Task design & language learning and teaching

In line with the ARDELE project, we created the mobile application (hereinafter *app*) *VISP* following the method of task-based language learning and teaching. As a large number of publications have shown (Long 1985, Nunan 1989, Willis 1996, Ellis 2003, Littlewood 2004), the concept of *task* is of paramount importance for obtaining successful learning outcomes. A task is a communicative activity, defined by Breen (1987: 23) as follows: "...any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task". Therefore, it is a structured work plan that aims to achieve a specific learning objective. Based on Bachmann (1990), Ellis (2003) delimits the authenticity of a task as follows: A pedagogical task is situationally authentic if it matches a situation found in the real world, and it is interactionally authentic if it results in patterns of interaction similar to those found in the real world. The AD task we propose in *VISP* corresponds to an activity that professional translators carry out. The foreign language is used as a medium for increasing the knowledge of a specialized field such as that of audio-visual translation, and more specifically, of AD, and is also used as a goal in itself, since the ultimate aim of the task is for students to learn specific vocabulary and to develop strategies so that they can be precise in what they say.

The Information and Communication Technologies have revolutionized the field of language learning over the last few decades (Gitsaki and Taylor 2000, Hernández Mercedes 2008, etc.), especially within certain methods, such as task-based learning. Following Hernández Mercedes (2008), this is because they comply with the basic requirements that Willis (1996) proposes for a task to be effective in promoting language learning: exposure, use and motivation. The app proposed in this study includes several steps: introduction, instructions, practice, and reflection. *VISP* lists these four steps on its home page: there are four buttons - in numerical order - so that users are guided into a sequenced task. These tasks are authentic, in the sense that they emulate the real duties of an audio describer: users have to audio describe a clip of 30 seconds from the movie *Moulin Rouge* by following certain guidelines (given under the "Instructions" button), once they have been briefly introduced into the world of AD (once they click on the button "Introduction") and seen an example of a real audio-described clip (five seconds of the movie *Memoirs of a Geisha*). The task is brief and combines images, sounds, and text. Its usefulness lies in the fact that students have to prepare and carry out a task (first a written draft, then a recording while watching the clip) that emulates the action of audio describing a film for a blind audience, thus acquiring the language of a medium to reach a goal, the goal that any professional translator doing an AD would have, namely to help the visually-impaired audience to have access to that film. The use of films in the classroom has been proven to be motivating by numerous works, and the results of our questionnaire at the end show that our app is enjoyable to use too, not only because of the social role that audio description fulfils, but also because it simultaneously combines images, sounds and text.

⁵² SO-CALL-ME stands for Social Ontology-Based Cognitively Augmented Language Learning Mobile Environment), funded by the Spanish Ministry of Science and Innovation (ref. FFI2011-29829).

⁵³ <http://atlas.uned.es/>

Introduction

In this work we present some of the pre-results obtained from a future comparative case study that will involve two groups of users: one group of Belgian students, and another one of Spanish Erasmus students, both of them learners of English as an FL at B2-level, according to the CEFRL 2001. These two groups were selected to test the first version of VISP at the Department of Applied Language Studies at the Faculty of Arts and Philosophy of Ghent University (Belgium) during the year course of 2014-2015. Our aim is to observe the similarities and differences in their learning results at both an oral and written level, as well as in relation to their motivation about the use of VISP. Based on the results, we also present some proposals for improvement and future research.

State of the art: the pedagogical aspects of MALL

A needs-analysis undertaken by ATLAS research group members (Martín Monje et al., 2014) has highlighted the need to develop pedagogically and linguistically solid language learning activities (for learning English) for mobile devices. So, in order to meet the wishes of the 'on-demand' generation (Caudron, 2011), who want instant access to everything, everywhere, all the time, as well as to promote learners' autonomy in line with the principles of life-long learning, in 2014 we decided to take the AD-based tasks of the ARDELE (Audiodescripción como Recurso Didáctico en la Enseñanza de Lenguas Extranjeras) project out of the classroom and implement them in the ubiquitous learning environment of mobile devices (Jones & H. Jo, 2004; Kukulska Hulme, 2013; Stockwell & Hubbard, 2013). The benefits of this approach are evident: it allows the learner to move away from the desktop or laptop in a formal educational setting in order to adapt to the new context of a society that is constantly on the move. Moreover, it not only increases mobility, but also flexibility, since the learners can access their materials and communicate with their coaches and their peers, if need be, anytime and anywhere.

The evaluation of some of the vast number of existing FL learning-related apps, undertaken by the ATLAS research group members (Pareja-Lora et al., 2013, Martín Monje et. al 2014), has revealed that however attractive, the apps often are not pedagogically sound. That is why we decided to follow the principles of the consolidated and successful communicative approach to language teaching, and within it, the task-based learning and teaching method (TBLT), to design a MALL app called VISP (VIdeos for Speaking). TBLT focuses on the use of authentic material. In the case of VISP, it is a short clip of an American film, *Moulin Rouge*, where users are asked to complete a meaningful task (Ellis, 2003), namely to create an AD in order to enhance the accessibility of audiovisual material, as is required in the current job market.

Objectives

As for language-learning outcomes, our focus lies on helping users improve their lexical and phraseological competences, following and implementing the lexical approach of Lewis (1997), who revealed that the process of achieving proficiency in an FL requires much more than the acquisition of isolated vocabulary and grammar rules. An FL learner needs, above all, guidance for acceptable word combinations and how and when to use them (Wray, 2002; Boers et al., 2006; Durrant & Schmitt, 2013). By integrating AD into the mobile app that we present here, VISP, we hope to help advanced students of English (possessing already B1 level, according to the CEFR 2001) to improve those competences that are more difficult to develop at certain levels, such as the fluent use of idiomatic expressions and collocations. VISP also seeks to foster language awareness by reflecting on how the use of certain expressions can affect the recipient. Therefore, VISP is conceived following these principles: on the one hand, flexibility and mobility, and on the other, a task-based teaching method with special focus on the lexical approach.

Description of the task in VISP

As for the steps to follow, the app consists of a four-phased learning task: 1) An introduction, where users are first given some information about AD, specifying goals (the aim of creating an AD) and skills needed (by way of guidelines of good practice). They are also directed to a short online preliminary questionnaire, where they are required to provide basic personal data, and a short test, where they are tested on lexical and phraseological items that will later on be necessary to perform the AD-based task. Here, they are introduced to the actual world of AD by means of a sample (a short clip of the film *Memoires of a Geisha*); 2) Instructions. In this step, users have access to some succinct guidelines based on ICT 2002 (Independent Television Commission); 3) Practice. After the first warming-up steps, they reach the actual task: they watch a very short clip of a film (31 seconds of the film *Moulin Rouge*) as many times as they want. That is the clip that they have to audio-describe. When they feel ready (possibly after drafting a small written AD script), they are required to record an oral AD about this clip (that is, they can record their voice while they are playing the clip). They can watch their task and listen to their performance as many times as they want. Once they are satisfied with the result, they can proceed to the last step: 4) Finish. When they have reached this stage, they can send their recording by clicking on a button that says "send". Their audio-clip is then uploaded to an account. This recording is also kept in the user's email in the section of "sent emails", because the app is connected to the user's e-mail service. In this last step, users can access a final questionnaire and test by clicking the relevant button: "To assess, and reflect upon, your performance and gain more information on how to audio-describe, please click here". This questionnaire at the end also includes a clip with the official AD retrieved from the DVD. Also, the students are required to complete a test at the end, which contains formal and functional task-related questions, as well as the official AD, so that they can assess their own performance by comparing both versions, namely their own one and the original one performed by a native speaker. One whole session of practice with VISP takes about 30 minutes, but users may decide to spend more or less time on the tasks, depending on their own rhythm and motivation. Thus, the users perform a meaningful and useful task, based on authentic material, a clip taken from a real film. The fact that the ultimate aim of audio description is to make the clip accessible to blind or visually impaired gives people a sense of satisfaction, which is also reflected in the questionnaire at the end.

Instruments to collect data

With regard to data collection for the purposes of our research on how VISP can be effective to motivate and support users in their learning process, we will analyse the data obtained from the questionnaires before and after the task, as well as the recordings made by the users. These recordings will shed light on many different aspects: orally, we can examine the users' fluency and pronunciation, and linguistically, we can assess the users' accuracy through their use of specific vocabulary and collocations. Overall, their performance as audio describers can be useful to evaluate their communicative abilities, too.

Some provisional conclusions and steps for further development

The practice and answers given by the users in the questionnaire at the end reveal some shortcomings of our app. Based on the quality guide drafted by Fernández-Pampillón et al. (2012), from a technical point of view (format, usability, accessibility, visibility and compatibility), the users pointed out that the size of the clip's image (the display of the clip in a mobile phone) is rather small. They also mentioned the inconvenience that it is only available on Android smartphones, and that it requires an Internet connection, which is not always available. Also, the presence of background noise makes it difficult to record and listen in some conditions (outdoor settings, crowded indoor settings). From a pedagogical point of view (cognitive value and pedagogical coherence, content quality, capacity to generate learning, interactivity and adaptability and motivation), they indicated that they would like to record their AD several times before sending it to the coaches, giving them the chance to select the best version. At this point of development,

VISP only allows for recording over the previous version, and the only way they can keep all the versions is by sending them, which is, in fact, not practical for us or the users. In future, we will also promote collaborative learning by including the option of sending the recordings to a wiki or social network, such as a Facebook or Google Plus community, instead of sending it in an e-mail to the coaches only.

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Kristi Jauregi

Utrecht University & Fontys University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

k.jauregi@uu.nl

Task development for telecollaboration among youngsters

Bio data

Kristi Jauregi is Professor of Language Education at Fontys University of Applied Sciences and Lecturer-researcher at Utrecht University (The Netherlands). Her main area of research is on CALL, particularly on Telecollaboration carried out with synchronous applications (video communication or 3D virtual worlds). She has been engaged in different European projects (NIFLAR, Euroversity) and is project leader of the TILA project (www.tilaproject.eu) funded by the European Commission.

Current research

The TILA project (Telecollaboration for Intercultural Language Acquisition) aims (1) to innovate, enrich and make foreign language teaching programmes more meaningful and effective by encouraging the implementation of telecollaboration activities in secondary schools across Europe and (2) to study the added value that telecollaboration may bring to language learning in terms of intercultural understanding, motivation and communicative growth amongst younger learners (Jauregi et al., 2013).

Different telecollaboration tools are being used within TILA for both synchronous (chat, video communication and 3D virtual worlds) and asynchronous (forum, wiki) communication modes.

One of the main areas of research within the project refers to the development of tasks and the relationship between the developed tasks and the activity that learners carry out in telecollaboration sessions.

Task design & language learning and teaching

Task development is a key issue within the TILA project. Our main concerns are:

- (1) how can tasks that are authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable be developed for younger learners who are learning foreign languages in a very specific context, that of secondary education; and
- (2) how can tasks contribute to the development of intercultural competence of these younger learners.

We approach tasks as “an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language” (Van den Branden, 2006, p. 4). Essential components of tasks in our approach are: meaning-orientation, intercultural-orientation, goal-orientation and real-world relationship mediated by technology.

Based on TBLT (Ellis, 2003; van den Branden, 2006; Willis, 1996), research into Intercultural Communication (Byram, 1997; 2014; Hinkel, 2004; Müller-Jacquier, 2003) and CALL TBLT (Canto et al., 2014; Chapelle, 2001, 2014; Doughty & Long, 2003; González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Hampel, 2006; Hoffstaedter & Kohn, 2014; Jauregi et

al., 2012; Müller-Hartman & Kurek, 2014; O'Dowd & Waire, 2009) we have developed a task grid for task development and assessment that focuses on six categories: task design, intercultural focus, communication focus, language learning potential, learner centeredness and technology.

Based on these criteria tasks have been developed and telecollaboration sessions carried out. Results on questionnaires and interaction analysis show that when technological preconditions are met tasks do prompt meaningful sequences of (intercultural) information exchange among peers and that learners experience tasks as relevant, useful and fun.

Short paper

Introduction

The TILA project (Telecollaboration for Intercultural Language Acquisition) is a European educational project that aims (1) to innovate, enrich and make foreign language teaching programmes more meaningful and effective by encouraging the implementation of telecollaboration activities in secondary schools across Europe; (2) to empower teachers in their efforts to integrate innovative telecollaboration activities in their teaching and assist them in the development of digital, intercultural, pedagogical and organisational competences; and (3) to study the added value that telecollaboration may bring to language learning in terms of intercultural understanding, motivation and communicative growth amongst younger learners (Jauregi, Melchor-Couto & Vilar, 2013).

Telecollaboration has been defined as: "internet-based intercultural exchange between groups of learners of different cultural / national backgrounds set up in an institutional blended-learning context with the aim of developing both language skills and intercultural communicative competence" (Guth & Helm, 2012: 42).

Different telecollaboration tools are being used within TILA for both synchronous (chat, video communication and 3D virtual worlds) and asynchronous (forum, wiki) communication modes.

One of the main areas of research within the project refers to the development of tasks and the relationship between the developed tasks and the activity that learners carry out in telecollaboration sessions.

Theoretical framework

The starting point in the process of task development within the TILA project derives from Task Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Within TBLT tasks have been defined as "an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language" (Van den Branden, 2006: 4). According to this broad definition, tasks could be almost anything. Clearly, we need a more detailed approach to tasks to enable educational experts to design and implement meaningful tasks for teaching and researchers to study task performance (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014: 4; Chapelle, 2014). Long (2015) includes the concept of "real-world" authenticity as one of main characteristics of TBLT, whereby learners' needs analysis would constitute the core endeavor in the process of task development within TBLT (González-Lloret, 2014; Long, 2015). Other essential components of tasks within TBLT (Ellis, 2003; 2012; Long, 2015) would be:

1. Meaning-orientation: tasks should stimulate information or opinion exchange as well as meaning negotiation.
2. In order for tasks to enhance this meaning-orientation, there should be some kind of gap (the need to convey information, to express an opinion).

3. Learners should use all (linguistic) resources available to attain the specific task goals.
4. Goal-orientation: tasks should have clearly formulated goals and outcomes 'other than the use of language' (Ellis, 2012: 198), as language should be used as a means to achieve the outcome, not as an end.

According to Long, TBLT should respect 10 methodological principles (see Table 1). These principles have been grounded on empirical results of SLA research (Long, 2015: 300-327) and refer to four categories: activities, relevance of input, learning processes and learner characteristics.

	Methodological principles for TBLT
Activities	MP1 Use task, not text, as the unit of analysis
	MP2 Promote learning by doing
Input	MP3 Elaborate input
	MP4 Provide rich input
Learning processes	MP5 Encourage inductive "chunk" learning
	MP6 Focus on form
	MP7 Provide negative feedback
	MP8 Respect learner Syllabi and developmental processes
	MP9 Promote Cooperative collaborative learning
Learners	MP10 Individualize instruction

Table 1. Methodological principles of TBLT proposed by Long (2015)

When looking critically at this major scholarly work within TBLT, we miss specific references to key aspects of foreign language teaching in the 21st century: digital learning and the "intercultural turn" in language pedagogy (Thorne, 2010). Fortunately, several publications have started to fill in this gap recently (see González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Thomas & Reinders, 2010).

Task design in TILA

Task development is a key issue in the process of investigating how telecollaboration exchanges can best be integrated in foreign language learning. Since the tasks being developed within the TILA project are not meant for the traditional classroom but for pupils communicating with peers abroad through technology, three key aspects permeate the design and implementation processes: pedagogy, technology and interculturality. In this sense, the researchers' team engaged in TILA tackle the following questions:

1. how can tasks that are authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable be developed for younger learners who learn foreign languages in a very specific context, that of secondary education;
2. how can tasks be developed that take into account the specific affordances of the digital tools being used;
3. how can tasks contribute to the development of intercultural communicative competence of these younger learners when they engage in telecollaboration encounters; and,
4. how can the different pedagogical phases, face-to-face sessions with the teacher and pupil to pupil telecollaboration exchanges, best blend in order to reinforce meaningful foreign language learning processes.

Based on TBLT (see previous section), studies into Intercultural Communication (Byram, 1997; 2012; Hinkel, 2004; Müller-Jacquier, 2003) and CALL TBLT (Canto, Graaff & Jauregi, 2014; Chappelle, 2001, 2014; Doughty & Long, 2003; González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Hampel, 2006; Hoffstaedter & Kohn, 2014; Jauregi et al., 2011; Müller-Hartman & Kurek, 2014; O'Dowd & Waire, 2009) we have developed a task grid for task development and assessment that focuses on six categories: task design, intercultural focus, meaning focus, language learning potential, learner centeredness and technology.

Task Design

For tasks to be meaningful and useful, they have to have clear objectives, have to be clearly sequenced and integrated into the curriculum and all required resources and support must be made available for pupils. For adequate integration of blended approaches we address the task cycle in three phases (Willis, 1996):

1. The pre-task phase generally takes place in the classroom setting under the guidance of their teacher. Pupils receive information about the task they will be carrying out during the telecollaboration session and get prepared for it by working on linguistic, communicative, intercultural, interpersonal and/or technological aspects related to the specific telecollaboration task.
2. In the task-phase they perform the task with pupils abroad in a one to one setting using a given telecollaboration tool, that can vary according to the preferences &/or network robustness at schools.
3. The post-task phase generally takes place in the classroom. During this stage the task results are shared with the teacher and the classmates and reflection upon linguistic, communicative and/or intercultural issues of the telecollaboration session is stimulated.

Issues related to Task design
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the task objectives clearly formulated?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are task instructions clear?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are learner <i>handouts</i> and other necessary resources provided?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have intended task outcomes been clearly specified?
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are task demands well addressed by providing enough support (linguistic, communicative, intercultural, interpersonal, ICT)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are the 3 task phases well integrated in a blended approach: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Pre-Task: Preparatory stage ○ Task (telecollaboration exchange) ○ Post-task (product creation, reflection about intercultural, communicative, linguistics or ICT concerns, consolidation)

Table 2: Issues related to task design in TILA.

Intercultural focus

The traditional TBLT approaches neglect to a certain extent any intercultural focus on task development. Yet, different authors (Byram, 1997; Möllering & Levy, 2012; Thorne, 2010) refer to the shift that foreign language pedagogy is experiencing in the 21st century, which is moving away from a sheer communicative focus to fully embrace the intercultural component of human communication in a highly globalized society. In addition to learning how to exchange information in the TL, learners need to develop intercultural competence, which lays emphasis on the ability to decentre and take up the perspective of the other, as well as to establish and maintain relationships with speakers with a different cultural background (Byram, 1997: 3). The TILA project places the intercultural focus at the center of task development processes by stimulating learners to develop attitudes of curiosity, empathy and openness towards the Other, while developing awareness and knowledge of one's own and the other's culture and social practices (Table 3).

Telecollaboration tasks
1. Stimulate learners to address their partners in a way that supports openness and empathy and enhances curiosity for <i>otherness</i>
2. Prompt learners to acknowledge & understand others' values and perspectives
3. Support the learning of cultural knowledge and social practices
4. Prompt awareness about their own culture and social practices
5. stimulate the discovery of new, similar or different aspects of the participants' cultures
6. Prompt learners to compare and interpret artefacts from different cultures and discover relationships among them

Table 3. Intercultural focus in the tasks developed in TILA.

Communication focus

Following mainstream TBLT approaches, tasks in TILA are clearly meaning oriented and communication focused. Tasks stimulate information and opinion exchange as a result of inbuilt natural gaps. Participants in telecollaboration engage in the process of co-constructing discourse through interaction. This implies a two way approach to discourse construction, and the need to focus not only in what one wants to convey, that is on the speaker/writer, but on the receiver as well, who will need to capture and understand what the speech partner is conveying, react appropriately and use the information to jointly achieve the task goals. Pupils will collaborate with one another in pairs or group work across natural borders according to their specific idiosyncrasies (Table 4).

Telecollaboration tasks
1. Include an information and opinion gap
2. Require a two-way information exchange: learners need to use the information they receive from their peers to complete the task adequately and jointly achieve the task goals
3. Stimulate the learners to use the language to engage in activities involving real-world processes of language use
4. Prompt negotiation of meaning (see next section)

Table 4. Communication focus on tasks developed in TILA.

Language learning potential

The language learning potential of tasks has been broadly studied within the TBLT research field (see Ellis, 2012; Long, 2015). Discourse activities have been analysed where learners negotiate meaning or engage in language related episodes. However, much of this research has been carried out in laboratory settings, which calls into question the validity of such results for language education as 'laboratory studies omit all kinds of contextual factors that contribute very significantly to the impact of a task (Samuda & Bygate, 2008:261). The tasks within TILA are being developed and implemented taking into account the ecology of education in which they are used. These tasks aim to enhance language learning by offering rich input and prompting input elaboration by stimulating negotiation of meaning among other things (Table 5).

Telecollaboration tasks
1. Offer <i>substantial input</i> to learners (exposure to authentic, multimodal, and contextually relevant language)
2. Prompt learners to elaborate the input by means of interactional modification or negotiation of meaning
3. Stimulate some focus on form and promote the acquisition of useful chunks
4. Should stimulate learners to use the target language pragmatically and communicatively, instead of simply displaying knowledge of the target language
5. Should promote collaborative learning by assigning complementary roles, information and perspectives to the participants/learners

Table 5. Language learning potential of tasks developed in TILA.

Learner centeredness

When developing the tasks key attention must be paid to the learners' needs, interests, styles and background (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010). In order to meet these needs, telecollaboration tasks in TILA are being developed by teachers, who are typically the experts on local conditions and who have direct contact with pupils, and who are coached in the design, implementation and evaluation processes by an educational researcher (Table 6).

Telecollaboration tasks
1. Need to be relevant to the learners' needs
2. Have to be attractive, engaging and motivating for the pupils
3. Need to respect specific learner idiosyncrasies

Table 6. Learner centeredness in tasks developed in TILA.

Technology (affordances, robustness)

In order for telecollaboration tasks to be meaningful and useful at all, technological pre-conditions have to be met. One of the main challenges we are facing when carrying out telecollaboration tasks in the secondary educational setting relates to technology. Tasks might be useful, meaningful, engaging and fun on paper, but if technology does not work, tasks will lose all pedagogical potential. In order to address this technological issue, we are working on different scenarios: organizing telecollaboration sessions in classroom settings and piloting sessions at home (as homework), as the main objective within TILA is to look for pedagogical sustainable ways to integrate telecollaboration in the curriculum. When developing tasks the specific affordances of a given digital application will need to be optimally exploited (Jauregi et al., 2012). The technological issues we address are described in table 7.

Telecollaboration tasks	
1. Should exploit optimally the specific affordances of the digital environment or application being used	
2. Should contribute to enhance learners' ICT-literacy skills	
3. Telecollaboration exchanges organised in the classroom setting: accessibility and usability	a) Are hardware & software up to date and are network connections robust enough to allow for good communication exchanges?
	b) Are there enough computers / laptops for pupils to carry out the task?
	c) When using video communication or virtual worlds have measures been taken to facilitate qualitative sound exchanges (headsets, not too many pupils talking in the same physical space)?
4. Telecollaboration exchanges organised as homework and being carried out from home: usability	a) Have hardware and software been checked and are internet connections good?
	b) Has sound been checked and does it work properly?
5. ICT-literacy	a) Have learners learned (tutorial) how to use the specific tools?
	b) Have learners reflected about "netiquette" issues: how to communicate appropriately using technology?

Table 7. Technological issues addressed when developing tasks in TILA.

User experience with telecollaboration tasks

Using the above mentioned criteria telecollaboration tasks have been developed for the different target languages: English, French, German and Spanish and for language levels ranging between A1 to B2 (CEFR).

The results of the first pilots (December 2013-May 2014) as reflected by questionnaire results, were quite positive (Jauregi & Melchor-Couto, 2014).

In the follow-up sessions (November 2014 - April 2015) more learners participated in telecollaboration exchanges. From these 210 learners from different countries (see Figure 1) filled out a digital survey evaluating a range of aspects related to the telecollaboration practices: technical quality, suitability of the environment used, communicative performance, motivation and tasks. Telecollaboration sessions are still being carried out, consequently, we present here the preliminary results of an ongoing research and focus on how pupils perceived telecollaboration tasks.

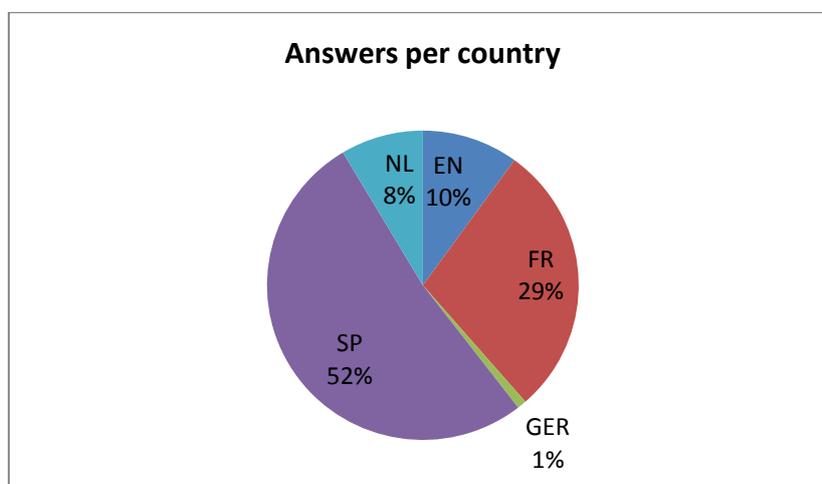


Fig. 1. Distribution of pupils that filled in the surveys in the follow up sessions (Spain, France, England, Nederland and Germany)

Although the majority of pupils used video communication software BigBlueButton to carry out their telecollaboration exchanges, a few resorted to 3D virtual worlds, chats or discussion forum (see Figure 2).

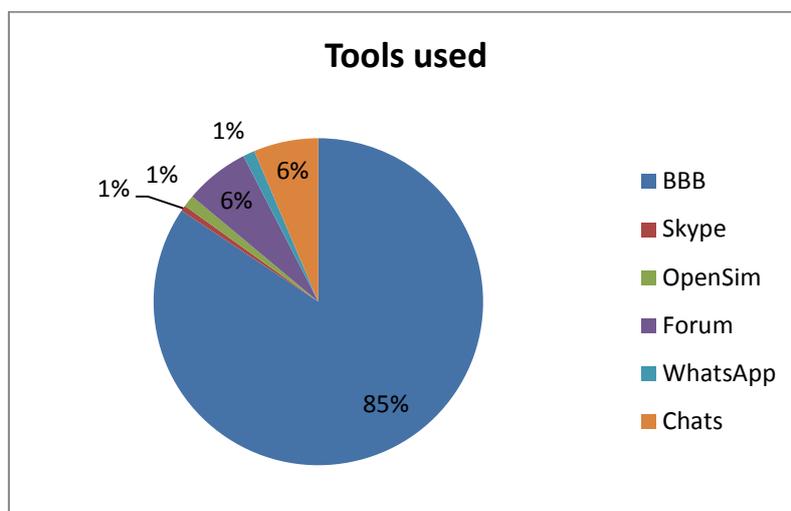


Fig. 2. Digital used in the exchanges (BBB: videocommunication open source; OpenSim: 3D virtual world open source)

For the closed items a 5 point Likert scale was used. As we can see in table 8, tasks were rated quite positively. However, pupils using audiovisual environments, particularly the video communication platform of BigBlueButton, experienced many sound problems due to bad internet connections and background noise, which probably influence the way they experience the telecollaboration exchanges.

Item	Mean	Sdev
SOUND was good	2.5	1.2
I enjoyed the online task	3,6	1.0
I found the online task interesting for interaction with peers of other countries	3,7	1,0
I found the online task useful for my language learning	3,7	1.0
The online task helped me discover new things about the other culture	3,3	1.0
I would suggest to a friend to take part in this kind of online collaboration	3.6	1.0

Table 8. Survey result on tasks (N:210 / 5-point Likert scale)

Conclusions

Based on criteria from TBLT, CALL and intercultural communication studies, telecollaboration tasks have been developed and implemented in several secondary schools, using mostly video communication applications (BigBlueButton) for conducting online intercultural exchanges. One of the categories for developing telecollaboration tasks refer to technology. The tasks developed might be meaningful, motivating and useful as workplan but if technology does not work, if pupils cannot hear each other, if there are problems with their microphones, there will be no place for information exchange, negotiation of meaning or intercultural development at all. The data seems to indicate further that when technological preconditions are met tasks seem to prompt meaningful exchanges and that learners experience tasks as relevant, useful and fun. However, additional in-depth analysis of the recorded data, triangulating results with

surveys and interviews is needed in order to compose a thorough picture of all aspects affecting task performance in telecollaboration exchanges.

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Kristi Jauregi* & Linda Gijzen**

Utrecht University & Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Tilburg, The Netherlands*
Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Tilburg, The Netherlands**

k.jauregi@uu.nl - l.gijzen@fontys.nl

Task design for telecollaboration

Bio data

Kristi Jauregi is Professor of Language Education at Fontys University of Applied Sciences and Lecturer-researcher at Utrecht University (The Netherlands). Her main area of research is on CALL, particularly on Telecollaboration carried out with synchronous applications (video communication or 3D virtual worlds). She has been engaged in different European projects (NIFLAR, Euroversity) and is project leader of the TILA project (www.tilaproject.eu) funded by the European Commission.

Linda Gijzen works as a teacher trainer at Fontys University of Applied Sciences Tilburg and is the coordinator of the M.Ed English. She has a MA degree in English Language and Culture. She is a member of the research group Second Language Learning in a Modern Perspective led by Professor Kristi Jauregi Ondarra and has been studying the effects of a TBLT approach to task design on collaboration in telecollaborative projects.

Current research

The TILA project (Telecollaboration for Intercultural Language Acquisition) aims (1) to innovate, enrich and make foreign language teaching programmes more meaningful and effective by encouraging the implementation of telecollaboration activities in secondary schools across Europe and (2) to study the added value that telecollaboration may bring to language learning in terms of intercultural understanding, motivation and communicative growth amongst younger learners (Jauregi et al., 2013).

Different telecollaboration tools are being used within TILA for both synchronous (chat, video communication and 3D virtual worlds) and asynchronous (forum, wiki) communication modes.

One of the main areas of research within the project refers to the development of tasks and the relationship between the developed tasks and the activity that learners carry out in telecollaboration sessions.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Task development is a key issue within the TILA project. Our main concerns are:

- how can tasks that are authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable be developed for younger learners who are learning foreign languages in a very specific context, that of secondary education; and
- how can tasks contribute to the development of intercultural competence of these younger learners.

We approach tasks as "an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language" (Van den Branden, 2006, p. 4).

Essential components of tasks in our approach are: meaning-orientation, intercultural-orientation, goal-orientation and real-world relationship mediated by technology.

Based on TBLT (Ellis, 2003; van den Branden, 2006; Willis, 1996), research into Intercultural Communication (Byram, 1997; 2014; Hinkel, 2004; Müller-Jacquier, 2003) and CALL TBLT (Canto et al., 2014; Chapelle, 2001, 2014; Doughty & Long, 2003; González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Hampel, 2006; Hoffstaedter & Kohn, 2014; Jauregi et al., 2012; Müller-Hartman & Kurek, 2014; O'Dowd & Waire, 2009) we have developed a task grid for task development and assessment that focus on six categories: task design, intercultural focus, communication focus, language learning potential, learner centeredness and technology.

Task Design

For tasks to be meaningful and useful, they have to have clear objectives, be clearly sequenced and integrated into the curriculum. The main points we address are:

- Are the task objectives clearly formulated?
- Are task instructions clear?
- Are learner handouts and other necessary resources provided?
- Have intended task outcomes been specified?
- Are task demands well addressed by providing enough support (communicative, intercultural, interpersonal, ICT)
- Are the 3 task phases well integrated in a blended approach:
 - Pre-Task: Preparatory stage
 - Task (telecollaboration exchange)
 - Post-task (product creation, reflection about intercultural, communicative, linguistics or ICT concerns, consolidation)

Intercultural focus

A main pedagogic priority in foreign language curricula and in the TILA project is the development of intercultural communicative competence. Tasks should:

- stimulate learners to address their partners in a way that supports openness and empathy and enhances curiosity for otherness
- prompt learners to acknowledge & understand others' values and perspectives
- support the learning of cultural knowledge and social practices
- prompt awareness about their own culture and social practices
- stimulate the discovery of new, similar or different aspects of the participants' cultures
- prompt learners to compare and interpret artefacts from different cultures and discover relationships among them

Communication focus

Tasks in TILA are clearly meaning oriented and communication focused. Tasks developed for telecollaboration should:

- have an information and opinion gap
- have the requirement for a two-way information exchange: learners need to use the information they receive from their peers to complete the task adequately and jointly achieve the task goals
- stimulate the learners to use the language to engage in activities involving real-world processes of language use
- prompt negotiation of meaning

Language learning potential

Tasks need to be useful for foreign language learning purposes. This means that tasks:

- have to offer substantial input to learners (exposure to authentic, multimodal, and contextually relevant language)
- should prompt learners to elaborate the input by means of interactional modification or negotiation of meaning
- would facilitate some focus on form and promote the acquisition of useful chunks
- should stimulate learners to use the target language pragmatically and communicatively, instead of simply displaying knowledge of the target language
- should promote collaborative learning by assigning complementary roles, information and perspectives to the participants/learners

Learner centeredness

When developing the tasks key attention must be paid to the learners' needs, interests, styles and background, in order tasks to be meaningful to them. Tasks should:

- be relevant to the learners' needs
- be attractive, engaging and motivating for the pupils

This would imply a previous study of learners' needs.

Technology (affordances, robustness)

In order for telecollaboration tasks to be meaningful and useful, technological pre-conditions have to be met. One of the main challenges we are facing when carrying out telecollaboration tasks in the secondary educational setting refers to technology. Tasks might be useful, meaningful, engaging and fun on paper, but if technology does not work, tasks will lose all pedagogical potential. In order to address this technological issue, we are working on different scenarios: organizing telecollaboration sessions in classroom settings and piloting sessions at home (as homework). The main objective within TILA is to look for pedagogical sustainable ways to integrate telecollaboration in the curriculum. The questions we address are:

Classroom setting

- Are hardware & software up to date and are network connections robust enough to allow for good communication exchanges?
- Are there enough computers / laptops for pupils to carry out the task?
- When using OpenSim or Virtual Worlds have measures been taken to facilitate qualitative sound exchanges (headsets, not too many pupils talking in the same physical space)?

Homework

- Have hardware and software been checked and are internet connections good?
- Has sound been checked?

Both settings:

- Have learners learned (tutorial) how to use the specific tools?
- Have learners reflected about "netiquette" issues: how to communicate appropriately using technology?
- Are the affordances of the specific environment optimally enhanced in the task?
- Does the task contribute to enhance learners' ICT-literacy skills?
-

Based on these criteria tasks have been developed and telecollaboration sessions carried out. Results on questionnaires and interaction analysis show that when technological preconditions are tasks do prompt meaningful sequences of (intercultural) information exchange among peers and that learners experience tasks as relevant, useful and fun.

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María Jordano de la Torre, Elena Martín Monje & Lourdes Pomposo Yanes

Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Madrid, Spain

mjordano@flog.uned.es - emartin@flog.uned.es - lpomposo@flog.uned.es

The importance of task design in a distance learning context (in terms of participation, motivation & interest of the students)

Bio data

María Jordano de la Torre works as an associate professor for the English Studies Department at UNED. She has been working as in other universities delivering different subjects dealing with ELT, ESP and ICT. She has been collaborating with other Universities Postgraduate courses in the area of e-learning and multimedia material. She has been very active in different professional associations. Her teaching experience has pushed her to focus her own research interests on ICT, ESP and Applied linguistics in general.

Elena Martín Monje is a lecturer at UNED, Spain, where she teaches mainly in the areas of English for Specific Purposes and CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning). As a member of the ATLAS research group (<http://atlas.uned.es>), her current main fields of research are mobile learning and MOOCs (Massive, Open, Online Courses). She has taught foreign languages and worked as a teacher trainer for over 10 years, and both her research and teaching practice have received official recognition, including a prize for her PhD thesis and a University Excellence in Teaching Award.

Lourdes Pomposo Yanes is a graduate in English Philology from the Universidad de La Laguna, 1986, and has been teaching English since then. Her teaching career has involved teaching in schools, universities and in-companies. She is now teaching English for Specific Purposes in UNED (Spanish University for Distance Learning), she is a teacher trainer and is an examiner of BULATS (Business Language Testing Services) exams (Universidad de Salamanca). She is doing research in English learning with ICTs, MALL (ATLAS Research group) and in oral business English.

Current research

The three authors belong to the same research group, ATLAS, Applying Technology to LAnguageS (<http://atlas.uned.es>), and have focused their research on technology-enhanced language learning, mainly in the field of English for Specific Purposes. Their most recent publications deal with the following topics: improving spoken competence through CALL (Computer-Assisted Language Learning), CMC (Computer Mediated Communication), Web 2.0 and language learning, foreign languages and distance learning, professional English (both in English for Tourism and Business English), assessment of languages in technology-enhanced environments, Massive, Open, Online Courses for language learning and also Mobile-Assisted Language Learning.

All three authors are lecturers at UNED, a distance learning university in which technology plays an important role in the students' learning experience. It has been the interest of the authors for many years to investigate how to keep student motivation and raise standards and results in those who take language-related courses.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Since the Bologna process was integrated within Spanish Universities, course design and teaching practice have evolved towards methodologies which focus on acquiring competences rather than memorizing information (Consejo de Europa, 1999; Rué Domingo, 2007). This has resulted in a radical change in the development of the activities created to learn the contents of any subject. The learning process as such has gained relevance and activities now have to be devised in such a way that they enable the acquisition of both course content and related competences (Bocanegra Valle, 2012).

The aim of this study is to analyze the evolution and results of different activities proposed in the course "The Application of ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) to English Studies", an optional subject for undergraduate students in their fourth year of the Bachelor's Degree in English Studies at UNED (Spanish University for Distance Learning). It was first delivered in 2011-12 and all the activities in the online course have been revised and updated year after year, taking into consideration the students' feedback and the advancement of technology.

Given that this course is taught entirely at a distance and that the background and personal interests vary among students, the teaching team decided to label the activities as compulsory or optional depending on their relation with the core topic of the each unit. Students would then compile their own record of activities using a template available in the virtual course and submit it at the end of the semester to be assessed.

Most of the activities were based on testing tools and applications relevant to English Studies independently and then sharing their experiences in the course forum, wiki and blog. They were also encouraged to create charts and documents collaboratively, as a way of further enhancing of their learning experience. The contents of the subject were offered in 5 pdf files (one per unit) with direct web links and QR codes accompanying some of the activities and reference websites, in order to facilitate their access to those reading the course materials on mobile devices.

Information on the students' background, learning experience and perceived results have been collected through questionnaires –before, during and after the course-. This has enabled the teaching team to acquire an overall idea of the degree of success and effectiveness of the task design throughout the three academic years in which this subject has been offered. Additional information has been extracted from brainstorming sessions and final open questions which have been discussed in the course forum.

Results point towards the pertinence of such task design –focusing on the acquisition of competences; classifying activities into compulsory and optional; encouraging collaborative work and the creation of collective knowledge; enhancing independent study but also promoting participation, peer feedback and social learning in the online course. All these aspects are crucial in a distance learning environment such as UNED's, in which students may become unmotivated if they feel that they are unsupported or without the necessary guidance to complete the course successfully (White, 2014).

Short paper

Learning at an adult age in the Era of Information (Hermans, Kalz, & Koper, 2014) and with a certain level of maturity requires to learn in a different way, more appropriate for students of this nature (Hurd, 2005; White, 2006). They are approaching the end of their studies, and, although some of them do not pursue to obtain a job related to what they have studied, others know very well what they expect from their short term future (Andretta, 2011). All of them demand a solid training in the digital competences drawn

by the linguistics, literature and culture of the 21st century (Stephenson, Peritore, Webber, & Kurzynske, 2013).

This is of the reason why the teaching team decided to design a syllabus with tasks coming from a wide variety of areas to give solutions to the real needs of different professional contexts. The topics included ranged from web-based specialized databases, bibliographic reference management, collaborative qualitative and quantitative research software to publishing industry applications.

Given that this course is taught entirely at a distance and that the background and personal interests vary among students, the teaching team decided to label the tasks as compulsory or optional depending on their relation with the core topic of the each unit. This way, the students were able to easily locate the basic practice tasks that would enable them to pass the subject successfully and, at the same time, allowed the most advanced ones to go further in their own learning. Students would then compile their own record of tasks using a template available in the virtual course and submit it at the end of the semester to be assessed.

Most of the tasks were based on testing tools and applications relevant to English Studies independently, and then students shared their experiences in the course forum and external web 2.0 activities such as microblogging or a blogging. The subject offered the possibility to follow a Twitter⁵⁴ and a WordPress⁵⁵ profile voluntarily in order to receive news and be informed about webinars and other sort of events related to the topics of the subject (Jordano, 2009). They were also encouraged to create charts and documents collaboratively in a wiki⁵⁶, as a way of further enhancing of their learning experience during the course and afterwards.

These tasks and activities were included within the contents of the subject were offered in 5 pdf files (one per unit) with direct web links and QR codes , in order to facilitate their access to those reading the course materials on mobile devices. They could be found as well although the virtual course and fora for an easier location once in front of the computer.

Information on the students' background, learning experience and perceived results has been collected through questionnaires –before, during and after the course-. This has enabled the teaching team to acquire an overall idea of the degree of success and effectiveness of the task design throughout the three academic years in which this subject has been offered. Additional information has been extracted from brainstorming sessions and final open questions which have been discussed in the course forum.

The previous questionnaire has been passed to three different generations of students showed that all of them share a similar level of digital competence in bibliographic and research tools knowledge, except from some of them coming from other fulfilled degrees. One of the most shocking evidences was to discover that 80% of the respondents affirmed to begin their academic searching through "Google", instead of using any of the databases offered by the University. Almost none of them knew of the existence of specialized software to manage bibliographic references.

Thanks to the comments shared in the forum, the teaching team realized year after year of the importance of delivering a subject like this in this Degree, covering different aspects of English Studies and its relation to ICT. Some of them even recommended moving it to earlier courses so that students could receive a general perspective of technology applied to these areas of knowledge. For instance, just 4% knew how to work with wikis.

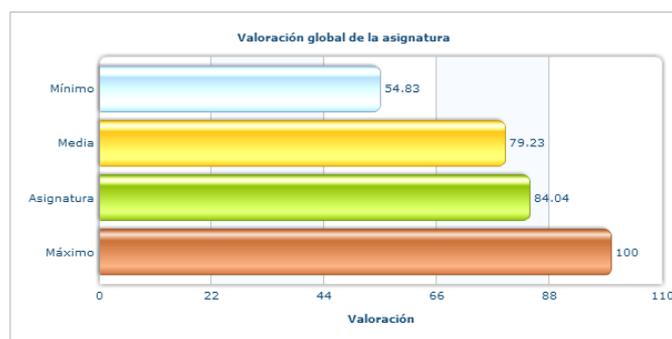
⁵⁴ https://twitter.com/apps_tic_ei

⁵⁵ <https://mjordano2013.wordpress.com/>

⁵⁶ <https://aplicacionesticee.wikispaces.com/>

In the questionnaire completed during the development of the subject, 50% of the respondents ranked the unit dealing with working in collaboration as the most useful unit, probably because they feel it closer to the sort of applications already used by them every day. The questions about time spent in the different units are more detailed in the survey delivered by UNED by the end of the semester, but most of the units share a measure of 16 hours of work per unit.

The official UNED satisfaction survey obtained a higher score than the average results for these courses, although a higher participation would be desirable in order to obtain more accurate data.



Número de cuestionarios recibidos 46

Valoración global de la asignatura 84.04

Significación Baja (Precisión: > 11% y <= 15%)

Since the first year of delivery of this subject, three years ago, there have been different attempts to improve the design of tasks. On this occasion, it was the final one that was modified slightly so that it could be fulfilled from the very beginning of the course to the very end. The rationale behind this decision was to motivate and encourage students to study through practice and not only by reading and memorizing notes. Apart from that, the contents have been fully revised and enriched with direct links to tasks in order to access easier to the student.

Results point towards the pertinence of such task design –focusing on the acquisition of competences; classifying activities into compulsory and optional; encouraging collaborative work and the creation of collective knowledge; enhancing independent study but also promoting participation, peer feedback and social learning in the online course. However, there are voices who claim to reduce the quantity of applications dealt to focus on the most basic ones. All these aspects are crucial in a distance learning environment such as UNED's, in which students may become unmotivated if they feel that they are unsupported or without the necessary guidance to complete the course successfully. Although most of them feel immensely gratified because of the amount of new things learnt, others have confessed in several occasions to become overwhelmed with so many tools seen from a so superficial perspective. All in all, it could be affirmed that it is one of the most comprehensive ICT subjects dealing with English studies within the Spanish territory.

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Nicole Keng

Coventry University, Coventry, United Kingdom

Nicole.Keng@coventry.ac.uk

Using QQ to supplement EAP task: the challenges and affordances in China

Bio data

Nicole Keng holds an MA degree in TESOL from Canterbury Christ Church University and a PhD in English Learning from the University of York. Prior to her current position as a Lecturer in Academic English at Coventry University, England, she worked at Xi'an Jiaotong Liverpool University (XJTLU), China, and Tampere University of Technology in Finland.

Current research

Both my MA and PhD research studies focused on English teaching and learning. They focused primarily on the use of group work in a multilingual classroom, and the implementation of and resistance to changes in EFL teaching. Based on the experience of investigating the individual differences of learners in classroom and group dynamics in the language classroom, my research direction further drove into the area of vocabulary learning and testing. In 2013, I was a grant holder for a project to develop Chinese students' vocabulary level tests. In 2014, I published a paper about the comparison of Chinese, French and Finnish learners in vocabulary acquisition (Smith and Keng, 2014).

In 2014, I presented a paper on the International Conference on Internationalisation of Higher Education at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS) to support my view of the importance of EAP teaching in Higher Education context in China, and I shared experiences about the use of principles of EAP teaching and learning to enhance learner engagement.

Task design & language learning and teaching

How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?

Ellis (2003) suggests that no matter what theory is applied, language learning is a process for learners to participate in communication. Breen (1987) describes the frequent disparity between what the teacher intends as the outcome of a task, and what the learners actually derive from it. Outcomes will also be affected by learners' perceptions about what they should contribute to complete the tasks and their views about what the tasks are. Nunan (2004) suggests that one way of dealing with this common danger in curriculum design that teacher focuses on one thing but learners focus on other things is to be make learners aware of their learning strategies, such as allowing learners to make choices about what to do and how to do it.

Tasks should engage learners in the process of acquiring language as well as academic skills. Willis (1996) shows a framework of TBLT that teachers set language learners genuinely purposeful, problem-oriented, or outcome-driven tasks which are comparable to real-world activities, in order to encourage meaningful communication context. The principles of TBLT show a strong learner-centredness (Ellis, 2003; Candlin, 2001; Willis, 1996), which has been an influential concept in language pedagogy. In this study, I will give examples of how EAP project tasks can create opportunities for the use of English in

and outside the classroom and encourage collaborative learning. Much work has been done to understand more about motivation to learn, for example, Dornyei (2001), and the effects on this by task characteristics and group dynamics in the field of language teaching. When students are able to relate to task topics at a personal level, more opportunities for discussion and motivation in communication are opened up. Using such tasks also provides students the possibility of planning and monitoring their own learning, and this will break down some traditional hierarchies in teaching and learning.

To what extent do tasks depend on context?

One of the obstacles to encouraging learner autonomy through Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is that many factors in the context seem to be easily ignored. Bax proposed in 2003 that CALL would be able to be considered successful only when it had been completely integrated into education and everyday life; in many western contexts that stage has now been reached. However, in China, there are many environmental issues in Higher Education. Many universities are not equipped with classroom Internet access or even computers. When use of technology in teaching seems to be a challenge and not a common practice, reluctance to implement CALL is a significant phenomenon. The aim of this study is to find out whether it is useful to integrate a locally relevant alternative (e.g. QQ) to create more student engagement. QQ is one of the most popular Internet service portals for IM in China, and almost every Chinese student is familiar with the QQ interface. There have been some higher education (Xu, 2009), constructing collaborative learning communities (Zhang et al., 2009), enhancing academic English writing (Liu, 2010), and translation (Dai, 2011). This study will be the first to show how the familiar QQ interface can be adapted to pedagogical use in the Chinese university context.

Short paper

EAP and CALL in China

The English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context has grown exponentially over the past 20 years. It is usually defined as teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language (e.g. Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001: 8; Jordan, 1997:1). More specifically, as Hyland (2006) pointed out, EAP aims at capturing language use in the academy in order to understand disciplinary knowledge. Different academic needs, such as writing, referencing, collaborating in projects, problem-solving and critical thinking skills have been a great challenge to international students in the UK, especially Chinese students and others from non-Western cultural backgrounds, when adapting to studying in a UK university. When preparing students for entering a new learning context, it is important to find out what can help them to be successful learners in order to turn a new page of their academic life. However, Hyland (2006: 10) also warned that EAP is too hard for students with limited English proficiency. Weaker students are often seen as not ready for discipline-specific language learning tasks and need preparatory classes to give them a good understanding of "general English" first. In China, students' language competence is still seen as the crucial element in English education, while the importance of teaching academic skills has in my opinion been undervalued. Nevertheless, as part of a task-based approach, EAP can actually serve to motivate students.

Almost every international student in the UK and other western countries has to become familiar with the use of a VLE (Virtual Learning Environment, such as Moodle) in the university. In China, Moodle is not commonly used, and accessing technology can be a challenge in some universities in China. However, the use of technology by individuals in China has moved from nil to adoption on a massive scale in virtually all sections of society in a very short space of time (Gu et al., 2006). Almost every student makes constant and frequent use of computers, the Internet and smartphone in daily life. The impact of technology is very visible in urban China, with the use of text and especially

voice messaging in evidence in public and private spaces. The fact that young people in China are so engaged with technology, it seems, could usefully be exploited in education: tasks in classrooms should be modified to reflect this context. This shows a close link to the principle of TBLT – the relevance of learner’s experience, and the provision of opportunities for learners to focus on not only language but also on the learning process itself (Nunan, 2004).

The current study

This qualitative research consists of an exploratory study to find out whether it is useful to integrate a locally relevant alternative (e.g. Tencent QQ, the very widely used instant messaging service) to a VLE to generate better student engagement. The study will give an example of an EAP task design in a 2+1 partnership programme between a UK university and a Chinese college. In particular, it will explore how the use of QQ can supplement EAP tasks and facilitate students’ learning not only in English but also in developing academic skills.

Research setting:

Participant background

The students in this particular Chinese college are a group of students who differ from regular university cohorts in that they did not reach the Chinese University Entrance Exam standard. After losing the eligibility and the opportunity to pursue a university degree in local Chinese universities, some students have the option to enter a 2+1 programme offered by private Chinese colleges and western universities. It is seen as a second chance in their academic life to be able to obtain an undergraduate degree. The 2+1 programme is a new format of internationalization partnership between many western universities and Chinese colleges. It provides a platform where students have to complete 2 years of foundation studies and training in China, then progress to the partner universities abroad to complete the final year undergraduate degree. This pedagogical model provides students a route to be able to study abroad. However, most of the students spend the first two years with very little idea of their future plans. Most of the students appear to have very low motivation and are generally reluctant to engage with learning; they may only be in the institution at all because they were told by their parents to enter the programme. As low academic achievers, their English proficiency is usually also low.

As mentioned earlier, with the massive and quick technology development in China, most of the students are familiar with smartphones and the Internet as their main means of communication (even in the classroom!). My use in the classroom of VLEs such as Moodle or Classjump proved unpopular; students seem to be more keen on using locally made applications/tools (e.g. QQ). The possible reasons for this are explored in the study.

Research design

There are expected to be around 100 business major students participating in this study, divided into three classes and into six groups within each class. Phase one is a four-week group project, which involves students participating and completing an EAP project task and using QQ as a supplementary tool for collaboration in groups. Each group will use screen shots to record their discussion on QQ. Each week each student will write a short report about how the task was accomplished. In phase two, focus group interviews will be conducted to find out if there are any difficulties or advantages in using QQ as a tool of communication. Their feedback evaluation will reveal the challenges and affordances of the IM technology.

Task design

Each group will choose one product or service area as their project topic. The group members will find at least one related product/service in an overseas market. Next, they will use QQ to discuss and analyse the examples they found and explain to what extent

they think the product or service will sell in the China market. They will make comparisons with the local Chinese competitors, and create a survey questionnaire for fellow students to complete. After the questionnaire is designed, they will administer the survey to their peers in other groups/classes, again using QQ, and finally they will analyse the results. They will need to present a business pitch including the market research they have done to the whole class.

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Brandon King, Jhon Cuesta-Medina & Yi Zhang

University of South Florida, Tampa, United States

bjking@usf.edu - jhon@mail.usf.edu - yiz@mail.usf.edu

Engaging with native speakers: looking at conversation openings in second life chat-logs

Bio data

Brandon King is a doctoral candidate in the Second Language Acquisition and Instructional Technology program at the University of South Florida. His research primarily focuses on adaptive task design and pedagogy for integrating authentic interactions in Second Life into the Spanish language classroom.

Jhon Cuesta-Medina is a doctoral student in the Second Language Acquisition and Instructional Technology program at the University of South Florida.

Yi Zhang is a doctoral student in the Second Language Acquisition and Instructional Technology program at the University of South Florida.

Current research

Being confronted with the task of initiating a conversation with an unknown target language (TL) speaker can be a daunting prospect for non-native speakers (NNS), particularly when a student perceives them to be a native speaker (NS). Initiating these conversations can raise student affect so much that in study abroad contexts many have claimed not having access to NSs despite evidence to the contrary (Hernández, 2010). Many existing studies on how these students engage with target populations and the target language rely on self-report data—authentic linguistic data of interactions is often missing. Conversation Analysis (CA), in the context of language learning, takes a social interactional approach (Gumperz, 1982) by employing detailed analyses of naturally occurring interactions (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974), such as those missing from many study abroad studies. This study seeks to fill this gap by applying CA (see Raclaw, 2008) to a corpus of chat-logs from four sections of intermediate Spanish students using the virtual world Second Life (SL) as a virtual study abroad component and by investigating “How do students engage TL speakers in conversation within SL?” The corpus was made of 255 chat-logs (137,357 words), gathered bi-weekly, and documenting student interactions with TL speakers in authentic conversational contexts.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The current study examines one aspect of how Spanish students in a social learning environment, the 3D virtual world Second Life (SL), acquire, adapt, and apply conversation opening strategies as they engage in authentic interactions with Spanish speakers from all over the world (Blasing, 2010) and cultural artifacts afforded to students that mediate this communication. SL is a stunningly rendered, immersive, and adaptive social environment that is experienced through an avatar, a customizable 3D representation afforded to the user (Andreas, Tsiatsos, Terzidou, & Pomportsis, 2010). The open format of SL shows promise in providing invaluable affordances for mediating language learning (Blasing, 2010; Chen, Warden, Tai, Chen, & Chao, 2011; Ibáñez, García, Galán, Maroto, Morillo, & Kloos, 2011; Jauregia, Canto, de Graaff, Koenraad, &

Moonen, 2011). Further, rich cultural sites and groups also afford students the opportunity to engage in expeditions (Blasing, 2010) into the target language's culture through avatar mediated immersive interaction with these sites and their denizens. The existing SL research suggests that the many SL affordances support collaborative language learning by fostering authentic dialogue with target language (TL) speakers (Blasing, 2010; Jauregia et al., 2011; Sykes, 2008), facilitating TL community access (Jauregia et al. 2011), heightening intercultural competency (Jauregia et al. 2011), and motivating students (Wehner, Downey, & Gump, 2011). Specifically, the ability to customize an avatar over time has shown to have a unique effect on language learning (Blasing, 2010), which could be especially useful for some students as they attempt to engage native speakers in conversation. However, these affordances may vary in usefulness to student learning without directed task design (Jauregia et al., 2011). To address this, the current study also explicitly describes how students were supported in the design and implementation of adaptive tasks. Finally, this study closely examines patterns and strategies in student chat logs to understand what the authors argue is the most important aspect of asking students to engage in authentic communication with other speakers of Spanish: opening a conversation.

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Kurt Kohn* & Petra Hoffstaedter**

University of Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany*
Steinbeis Transfer Center Language Learning Media, Konstanz, Germany**

kurt.kohn@uni-tuebingen.de - petra.hoffstaedter@gmail.com

Flipping intercultural communication practice: opportunities and challenges for the foreign language classroom

Bio data

Kurt Kohn is Prof. em. of Applied English Linguistics at the University of Tübingen and director of the Steinbeis Transfer Center Language Learning Media (www.sprachlernmedien.de). He has been involved in EU projects on multimedia content authoring, blended language learning, pedagogic corpus development, intercultural telecollaboration, interpreter training in virtual reality, and language teacher education.

Petra Hoffstaedter (Dr. phil. in Applied Linguistics) is deputy director of the Steinbeis Transfer Center Language Learning Media (www.sprachlernmedien.de). Her main field of expertise is in computer-enhanced language learning in blended learning contexts, spoken corpora for language learning and teaching, telecollaboration for intercultural language learning, interpreter training in virtual reality, and language teacher education.

Current research

Our current research is situated at the crossroads of complementary fields of research and practice: intercultural communication, English as a lingua franca, second language learning and teaching, and web-based communication and interaction. We are currently involved in the EU LLP projects EVIVA: "Evaluating the Education of Interpreters and their Clients through Virtual Learning Activities" [<http://www.virtual-interpreting.net>] and TILA: "Telecollaboration for Intercultural Language Acquisition" [www.tilaproject.eu]. In these projects, focus is on exploring the pedagogic potential of videoconferencing and 3D virtual world environments for flipping monolingual or bilingual intercultural communication practice. The overall objective is to work out sustainable pedagogic solutions, to identify needs and requirements for teacher and learner preparation, and to design and implement workshops and coaching concepts for online teacher education and support.

Task-based language learning and teaching

What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?

Because of the essentially communicative orientation of language learning, technologies that facilitate and support communicative interaction are of strategic importance for maximizing learning relevance and outcomes. In this connection, synchronous technologies for spoken communication put highest demands on internet network capacities and support (cf. Hoffstaedter & Kohn 2014). More (financial) effort is critical for boosting network capacities in educational institutions and to ensure adequate technical support for teachers.

How do our tasks fit in with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory, Socioconstructivist environments, Flipped Classroom approaches?

According to a social constructivist understanding of language learning and teaching, learners need to be given space for exploring and learning to trust their own non-native speaker creativity (cf. Kohn 2011, 2015). This is best achieved in a telecollaboration environment that provides rich opportunities for authentic intercultural communication practice and requires learners to activate and stretch their linguistic resources in their collaborative struggle for meaning negotiation.

For purposes of language learning and teaching, the original notion of flipping should be revised and extended beyond mere knowledge intake to include any learning objective the physical classroom cannot adequately support. With this generalization, tools and environments for written and spoken telecollaboration can be used to effectively flip authentic communication practice, a notorious pedagogic challenge for the traditional language classroom.

Which tasks are most appropriate for developing intercultural competence?

Telecollaboration tools and environments can be effectively used to facilitate and support intercultural contact and authentic communicative interaction, an essential requirement for successful development of intercultural competence. Communication with native speakers, however, commonly preferred by language teachers, only covers part of the intercultural picture. The native speaker approach is thus not entirely appropriate. It needs to be complemented by a lingua franca approach, according to which learners (also) communicate with other non-native speakers of the respective target language (cf. Kohn 2015).

Short paper

According to modern foreign language pedagogy, learning a language is all about learning to communicate. The development of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972; Canale & Swain, 1980) is the overarching learning objective, and exposure to communicative practice (Council of Europe, 2001: 1) is generally deemed to be an essential element of successful foreign language learning and teaching. With the emergence of globalised communication needs and interactions, in particular in relation to English, the pedagogic attention widened to incorporate the dimension of intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997). Educational standards for secondary schools, for instance in Germany (Kultusministerkonferenz, 2012), are paying heed to these research insights and to the expanding communicative foreign language needs people experience in their private and professional lives. Functional communicative competence is expanded to include language mediation and intercultural competence is repositioned as intercultural communicative competence including being able to use the respective foreign language in lingua franca contexts.

On closer inspection, however, the pedagogic implementation of a truly communicative and intercultural orientation in our foreign language classrooms turns out to be seriously limited by two restrictions.

The first restriction concerns foreign language pedagogues' deeply ingrained preference for native speaker norms and conventions. The communicative competence foreign language learners are expected to acquire and emulate generally tends to be closely modeled on the competence of native speakers. In this vein, the "Can Do" statements of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) show ample evidence of a strong inclination towards native-speaker-related criteria; compare e.g. "Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party" (p. 24) or "[Can] sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or

irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker" (p. 35). This orientation towards native speakers is part and parcel of foreign language pedagogy, and it is also a key feature of the pedagogic reconceptualization of Hymes' (1972) notion of communicative competence by Canale & Swain (1980). Leung (2005) criticizes the pedagogic native speaker bias in communicative language teaching and argues for a return to Hymes' original ethnographic approach to better account for the communicative "reality" of foreign language learners. Leung's reasoning is strongly corroborated by observations concerning the strategic creativity with which non-native speakers struggle to meet the challenges of negotiating meaning, balancing attitudes, handling misunderstandings, and bridging linguistic and cultural knowledge gaps in English as a lingua franca communication (Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Kaur, 2011; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2009).

The second restriction is to do with the physical conditions of the ordinary foreign language classroom. The adoption of communicative language teaching approaches and the implementation of bilingual classes following the model of content and language integrated learning (CLIL), e.g. biology classes in English, constitute innovative milestones of modern foreign language pedagogy. All these achievements, however, and all the pedagogic ingenuity teachers might be able to muster, cannot change the simple fact that groups of 20 or 30 pupils hardly provide ideal conditions for efficient and successful communicative practice, let alone in its oral manifestations. And what is more, the usual lingua-cultural homogeneity of the typical foreign language classroom creates a somewhat barren environment for intercultural communication. To ensure that foreign language learners can develop the kind of competences they need for being able to hold their ground in truly intercultural encounters, it is essential for them to relativize the artificial native speaker orientation in the wider intercultural context and to reach out beyond the immediate confines of the classroom to embrace real-life interaction.

What can be done?

Communicative telecollaboration in combination with a flipped classroom approach offers a viable solution. Flipping the classroom is commonly understood to unburden the classroom by outsourcing content learning to home study with online video lectures or other web-based multimedia resources. The decisive pedagogic advantage, so the argument runs, lies in making precious classroom time available for creatively and collaboratively discussing and exploring what has been learnt at home. In this understanding of flipping, e-learning is reduced to a fairly traditional and somewhat input-heavy form of content learning, while more innovative ways of learning through interaction and involvement with learning partners are assigned to the face-to-face classroom. But this narrowly defined division of labour does not help to come to grips with the communicative and intercultural limitations of the physical classroom, nor does it adequately exploit the rich and diversified pedagogic potential virtual learning environments provide.

Flipping, however, must not be restricted to using technology to merely help learners take in new content. Particularly for purposes of communicative language learning and teaching, this falls too short. Learning in a virtual environment has more to offer than working with multimedia resources; it is also about communication and interaction. Telecollaboration tools and environments such as blog, wiki, forum, chat, videoconferencing, and 3D virtual worlds are particularly suitable for supporting intercultural contact and communication practice among pupils from different lingua-cultural contexts. It is thus possible, and indeed essential, to generalize and extend the notion of flipping to encompass delegating to a virtual learning environment all those tasks and activities that a traditional classroom may not support sufficiently. With this widening of perspective, new pedagogic options arise for blending and enriching the face-to-face classroom with communicative virtual learning environments. The added value for communicative and intercultural foreign language learning is obvious. It concerns in

particular more space and flexibility for communicative interaction and a potential increase in authenticity through new possibilities for situational embedding.

Such a generalized flipped classroom approach has been adopted in the EU project TILA: "Telecollaboration for Intercultural Language Acquisition" (Jan 2013 - June 2015) [<http://www.tilaproject.eu>]. A key project objective is to explore and study how telecollaboration tools and environments can be used to enhance foreign language learning and teaching by flipping intercultural contact and communicative practice. Moodle courses are used as a kind of pedagogic hub for implementing and managing blended learning ensembles across three activity dimensions:

- synchronous spoken and written communication via videoconferencing, 3D virtual worlds or chat,
- asynchronous written communication via forum and blog,
- face-to-face classroom activities for pedagogic preparation and follow-up.

The technological infrastructures deployed vary between classroom, the school's PC lab and pupils' home computers.

Using the available or preferred telecollaboration environment and location, pupils engage in pairs or small groups in conversational interactions with peers from other countries and cultures. Emphasis is on the actual communicative exchange, whose intercultural nature is considered to derive from the fact that the speakers belong to different cultural backgrounds. Topics are thus chosen (by the teachers) to trigger communicative and intercultural curiosity and motivation.

An important pedagogic choice teachers need to make is the one between two pedagogic language constellations, tandem and lingua franca.

In a tandem constellation, the target language of each of the two conversation partners is the native language of the other. This makes it possible to switch from one target language to the other, either within or between conversation sessions; the speakers act as language learners or language experts depending on the respective learning direction. Pupils thus always interact with native speakers, which is fully in line with the common native speaker orientation in foreign language pedagogy. This certainly explains why tandem seems to be the natural preference, at least initially, for most TILA teachers. However, due to a strong imbalance between high and low-demand foreign languages, finding a partner with a matching native/target language combination can be difficult, even impossible. Another challenge concerns the rather low time-efficiency of a tandem constellation. Being able to practise accommodating one's native language performance to the needs of the respective non-native interlocutor is certainly a pedagogically valuable side benefit. It remains though that only during half of the time available for telecollaboration pupils actually use their foreign language. In particular in educational contexts with limited teaching hours this might be experienced as a serious problem.

In a lingua franca constellation, both telecollaboration partners communicate in the same non-native target language, which in TILA may include English, French, German or Spanish. This is a significant departure from the common pedagogic "ideal" of having non-native speakers interact with native speakers. The pedagogic focus is shifted towards intercultural communicative exchanges between peers who are in the same non-native language boat. This telecollaboration scenario makes it possible to create near-authentic opportunities for communication. The speakers are strongly invited to use their non-native target language naturally like in an everyday lingua franca situation. Activating and stretching one's non-native speaker competence to collaborate with the other partner and negotiating a common intercultural space by relativizing and adapting one's own communication-related requirements become more important than mere compliance with native speaker norms and conventions. And what is more, being able to

mirror oneself in the performance of other non-native speakers opens a door to discover and consolidate one's own non-native speaker identity. The lingua franca constellation thus provides the kind of communicative challenges necessary for pushing the pupils to engage in collaborative "languaging" (Swain, 2006), to seriously explore their "zone of proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1978) and to experience themselves as speakers of their target language, not merely as learners, with a right to their own criteria of success (Kohn, 2015).

A number of TILA pilot sessions provide further insights into the pedagogic affordances and challenges of flipping intercultural communication practice by means of lingua franca telecollaboration. The technologies deployed in these sessions include a 3D virtual world environment in OpenSim, the videoconferencing system BigBlueButton as well as chat and forum in Moodle. Depending on availability, access to the respective environments was from pupils' home computers or from the computer lab in school. First evaluation results based on performance observations and feedback comments from pupils and teachers paint a promising, yet somewhat mixed picture.

The "vision", as outlined above, of using telecollaboration to facilitate a pedagogic lingua franca approach was confirmed by empirical evidence from two German lingua franca exchanges involving Dutch/French and Dutch/British pupils and one English Lingua Franca exchange involving German/Spanish pupils. Both videoconferencing in BigBlueButton and 3D virtual world interaction in OpenSim proved suitable for enabling the pupils to engage in fluent spoken lingua franca conversations. In a German lingua franca exchange in BigBlueButton, for instance, the participants enjoyed talking to other non-native German speakers. They were less worried about making mistakes, and made an effort to communicate well and seriously. More often than not, pupils got carried away and talked much longer than the teachers had suggested; after having finished their original task, they simply addressed other topics they were interested in. Communication was greatly encouraged by topics close to the pupils' own experiences and opinions such as "Fashion and dress code in school", "A day without mobile phone or computer", or "New technology and social media". The arrangement of speakers in pairs also helped to secure communicative commitment. Despite initial worries concerning the pedagogically unfamiliar lingua franca condition, the teachers' evaluation feedback was highly positive and encouraging.

The various telecollaboration tools and environments clearly have different and complementary pedagogic affordances. While videoconferencing allows speakers to see each other, the OpenSim environment offers more possibilities for situational learning support, in our case sitting in a cafe or standing in front of poster-based learning stations with task-related visuals and text. Other differences concern voice versus text chat, or synchronous text chat versus asynchronous forum exchanges. Which of these features is experienced as an "advantage" does not only depend on their respective communication support but is also subject to personal preference. In addition, certain telecollaboration environments may not be equally available for all learners, particularly if access is from home. For better learning results, it was thus deemed important to introduce an element of choice. In the case of the lingua franca pair conversations, the thematic layout was the same for all pupils. Depending on technological constraints in school, computer equipment at home, and pupils' or parents' preferences, however, each conversation pair was free to choose between synchronous spoken (BigBlueButton or Opensim), synchronous written (chat) or asynchronous written (forum) as well as, most importantly, between participating from the school's computer lab or from home. The lingua franca homework option in BigBlueButton was particularly well received: the pupils liked to communicate from home; they found the situation more relaxed, with no time pressure, no immediate supervision and, compared to the computer lab, no distracting background noise from other pupils in the room. According to the teachers, all this had a positive effect on the pupils' communication in terms of fluency and conversational naturalness and authenticity. Another interesting finding concerns conversations via

videoconferencing (BigBlueButton or Skype) and forum (Moodle). Mainly because of technical and organizational issues, the number of successful videoconferencing conversations was fairly small compared to forum exchanges. In terms of pedagogic evaluation, however, videoconferencing was consistently given higher ratings on criteria such as appeal, intercultural interaction, language learning, cultural learning, recommendation to others, and own future use. All in all, the flexible combination of available telecollaboration facilities makes it possible to keep all pupils in a foreign language class on board, despite often varying conditions of telecollaboration access. This is clearly in line with the call for greater individualization of learning. Most importantly, however, this approach also gives pupils, teachers and parents more leeway to slowly accustom themselves to new telecollaborative learning options and styles.

Another observation that deserves mentioning concerns a tendency among pupils to use the intercultural telecollaboration exchange to make appointments for meeting privately in a telecollaboration environment of their own choice outside the original school setting. With their decision to take advantage of a school-based learning activity and turn it into a real-life experience pupils seem to thwart the pedagogic purpose and teachers might feel cheated for all the pedagogic effort they invested. From a slightly different angle, however, pupils' obvious wish to go private appears as a direct result of the real-life potential of telecollaboration and is thus strong evidence of its pedagogic success. If the ultimate objective and justification of teaching is to enable pupils to develop their autonomy and eventually stand on their own feet in their own lives, intercultural telecollaboration fits this requirement.

The emerging pedagogic affordances of flipping intercultural contact and communication with telecollaboration tools and environments offer a great potential for a pedagogic revitalization of the foreign language classroom. This must not, however, tempt us to overlook or trivialize the realities of pedagogic implementation. After almost ten years, O'Dowd & Ritter's (2006) verdict, "It is by now well established that telecollaborative exchanges frequently end in 'failed communication'" (p. 623), is equally valid today, and even more so. The reasons for failure they discuss include learners' current intercultural communicative competence, their motivation and expectations, teacher-teacher relationship, task design, learner matching procedures, local group dynamics, pre-exchange briefing, technology, and general course organization (p. 629). While all these reasons can be identified in failed TILA exchanges, the weight of the technological factor has changed since 2006 quite significantly because of the more prominent role of synchronous oral telecollaboration in videoconferencing and 3D virtual world environments. Serious challenges have been observed in this respect, which need to be urgently addressed to ensure pedagogic sustainability (cf. Hoffstaedter & Kohn, 2014).

A key issue concerns the actual time and physical location of the telecollaboration exchange. Since pedagogic activities in school are centered on classrooms and fixed class hours, transfer of entire class sessions to the school's computer lab seems to be the natural choice for telecollaborative excursions. Computer lab arrangements, in which pupils are usually assigned to separate computer stations for pair or small group interactions with pupils from the partner class, are affected by obvious problems with regard to pedagogic organization and finding partners with matching class hours. In the case of oral telecollaboration, however, an even more serious handicap concerns insufficient network capacity. In our TILA BigBlueButton and OpenSim exchanges, we experienced severe sound problems, and avatars being reduced to clouds, due to network overload in one or both of the partners' computer labs. In addition, oral communication involving parallel teams in the same room usually generates a lot of disturbing background noise as well as distractions by unsolicited comments from other pupils (often in their native language), and thus generally reduces the speakers' communicative privacy.

Changing the physical location of telecollaboration to the pupils' homes avoids the negative effects of a crowded computer lab and also tends to offer more flexibility for addressing issues of technology-related quality. And what is more, telecollaboration outside class and from home has been given a highly positive assessment by both pupils and teachers (see above). Oral telecollaboration from home, however, is not a sure-fire road to success. According to teachers' observations, more advanced pupils were also more likely to seize this opportunity for intercultural communication. Weaker learners usually require stricter forms of pedagogic embedding with more preparation, supervision and follow-up in order to be able to value the exchanges as pedagogically relevant and necessary. Another important issue concerns the distorting effects of first-time experience. More often than not, instances of weak learning or teaching performance as well as negative or overly enthusiastic evaluation comments are influenced by the fact that the respective pupils and teachers are novices in the pedagogic use of telecollaboration for oral intercultural communication. More long-term involvement is necessary for them to develop authentic and tried and tested telecollaboration styles and preferences.

All this does not fit in easily with traditional ways of organizing foreign language learning and teaching in schools. More pedagogic implementation research is needed to develop appropriately adapted models of telecollaborative practice, pedagogic work organization, continuous teacher education and learner preparation. In the end, an adequate learning and teaching culture is more important than mere technology.

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Hsiao-chien Lee

National Kaohsiung Marine University, Kaohsiung, Taiwan

marianlee@webmail.nkmu.edu.tw

Picture storytelling task for less-proficient English learners: a blended learning

Bio data

Dr. Hsiao-chien Lee is an Associate Professor of Foreign Languages Education at National Kaohsiung Marine University (NKMU), Taiwan, where she teaches General Education English courses to learners of English as a foreign language. She earned her Ph.D. in Learning, Teaching and Curriculum at University of Missouri, USA. Her research interests include computer assisted language learning, multi-modal literacy, and TESOL.

Current research

An intact class of third-year Taiwanese university students (n=30) participated in a storytelling project conducted by the teacher-researcher, for the general education English course in which the low-proficiency students were enrolled. Class hours, two per week, lasting for 18 weeks, were used to 1) guide the students to read adapted true-life stories, 2) lead the students to answer the comprehension questions based on the readings, and 3) have the students retell the stories when story illustrations were provided as hints. The extension activity was for the students to create their own folktales, adapted by the students from popular Taiwanese legends, then to tell the stories by using the audio publish platform, VoiceThread, a most recently developed social broadcast medium, and then to receive oral comments from peers. The teacher-researcher asked the following questions: 1) How did the students perceive the blended task-based project throughout the different phases? 2) Did the project affect their English speaking ability? To answer the questions, various sources of data were collected and analyzed, including the scores for students' recorded pre and post-test picture storytellings, an exit survey of open-ended questions concerning student reflections of the learning experiences, and the teacher-researcher's informal discussions with the students. The findings suggested that in general the students enjoyed the project and there was a significant increase in their speaking competence scores. However, students' view of the extension activity, that is, the VoiceThread story sharing, appeared divergent. Further discussions and pedagogical suggestions will be provided in the report.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) has been established for some time as one of the main approaches to language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003). With the advance of technology and its wide use in today's language classrooms, TBLT has been integrated with computer-mediated communication (CMC) to provide language learners with effective means to acquire the target language. There has been an array of definitions of the term "task." However, there appear to be some central characteristics, that is, focusing on meaning and based on learners' communicative needs in the real world (O'Dowd & Waire, 2009). In this study, the teacher-researcher adopts the definition of the task as "an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language (Van den Branden, 2006, p.4). A blended learning model was employed as the participating students were required to accomplish a task of storytelling in both the face-to-face classroom and virtual contexts. Several

methodological principles proposed by scholars (Doughty & Long, 2003) have been followed. First, a socio-cultural stance has been adopted, since acquisition of the language occurs *in* rather than *as* a result of interaction (Ellis, 2003). Therefore, in this project, peer response feedback was one essential component when the students shared their Taiwanese folktales on the VoiceThread medium. Second, in class instructions the students were exposed to rich inputs as they read a variety of real life stories before they told the folktales online. A focus-on-form approach was also used so that the students were conducting a meaningful language task, that is, retelling the stories they read. Usage of vocabulary, sentence patterns, and the organization of a narrative were brought up only when the teacher-researcher observed a need to induce "noticing" (Schmidt, 1990). Lastly, autonomous and collaborative learning was encouraged when groups of students worked together to come up with their own adapted Taiwanese folktales.

The design of the task-based lesson was produced to cover the three chronological phases of a task (Ellis, 2009): The 'pre-task' was conducted when the teacher guided the students through the stories presented in the textbook and planning time was given for the students to prepare for the retelling of the stories. The 'during-task' was performed when the students retold the stories before the whole class with story illustrations as hints only. The 'post-task' was the follow-up performance when groups of students shared their self-chosen folktales on the VoiceThread medium. The significance of such task design was that it integrated both face-to-face and CMC media when the students were required to accomplish the language task of telling a story. As previous studies usually focused on either face-to-face conditions or virtual contexts, this study contributed to the literature by seeking to investigate how the students perceived such an integrated project. The findings may help provide pedagogical suggestions to the task designs when a task-based teaching approach is adopted by language teachers.

Short paper

Guided by the socio-cultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978) that learning occurs in social interactions and also guided by the communicative learning pedagogy emphasizing that interaction is both the means and ultimate goal of language learning, a storytelling project was conducted when a group of Taiwanese EFL university students (n= 30) were involved in a series of task-based English learning activities. The tasks were conducted chronologically into three stages, including the pre-task stage where the students were guided through stories and given planning time to prepare for story retelling, the during-task stage where the students retold the stories as they were allowed access to the input data, the story pictures (Ellis, 2009), and the post-task stage, where the students, working as a group, told their own Taiwanese folktales via a CMC medium, *VoiceThread*. Various sources of data were collected and analyzed to help the teacher-researcher answer the two questions asked prior to the implementation of the project. The following presents the research results and discussion.

Question 1. How did the students perceive the blended task-based project throughout the different phases?

The findings reveal that more students held a positive attitude toward the project. To be specific, the student exit surveys shows that nine students found the project interesting, sixteen students thought that it helped with their English learning, and five students commented that it was a great project. Therefore, in total, 25 students (68%) held a positive opinion of the project. Among the 11 students who did not like the project, eight thought it was too much work while three thought it was not helpful.

What needs to be noted is that the students did not appreciate the learning tasks at the beginning (some even during the proceeding) of the project. The entries marked in the teacher's journal indicate that some students, when firstly engaged in the project, complained that the storytelling task was too challenging for them. In addition, during

the storytelling stage, sometimes the teacher was not happy with the student performances and had to request some of the students to retell the story one more time after an extra week of preparation.

However, this negative feeling seemed to dim away as the project came to the end. Follow-up interviews with six randomly chosen students suggest that the students, when looking back, found that the project helped them improve their English oral skills. One academically low-achieving student commented, "I appreciate it that the teacher offered us this opportunity to practice speaking English. Because of this course assignment, I had to practice and practice until I could say all the words and sentences."

The post-task learning activity, sharing a Taiwanese folktale on the *VoiceThread* platform, also appeared discouraging in the beginning. The teacher kept receiving complaints from the students, stating that it was difficult for them to figure out how to use the platform or it was troublesome as every member of the group was required to record their storytelling. However, in the follow-up interviews, all the six students interviewed preferred such an activity to any other options. They either commented that it was interesting to try telling a story through an online tool or expressed that such an assessment of English ability, replacing the traditional paper-and-pencil tests, was much less intimidating. Students with less confidence and lower proficiency in speaking English found that this approach allowed them to make preparations and set their own learning pace.

An obvious transformation of student attitudes was observed throughout the implementation of the project. The students started with objections but, when reflecting on the learning experiences, shared appreciation in the end. The implication gained from such an understanding is that for many of the Taiwanese students, who had been used to the traditional classroom patterns where the teacher instructed and the students received, memorized and repeated (a banking education, Freire, 1970/2006), it is essential to give them an easy and smooth start by providing sufficient support and scaffolding. While plenty of planning time is necessary, Ellis (2009) also suggested similar tasks and providing a model. Therefore, the teacher-researcher of the current study recommends that the storytelling task, after the teacher constantly models, can be accomplished by the teacher initiating and describing the first several pictures, leaving the last one for individual students to finish. Or, more capable learners can be paired with less proficient speakers and each takes turn telling the stories by following the order of the pictures until the whole story is told.

As for the use of the *VoiceThread* platform, a teaching assist can be assigned to provide onsite and after class help whenever the students encounter any difficulties technically. Since the free tutorial presented by the platform is narrated in English, the teacher needs to provide a translated version (in Mandarin) for the students so that every student can learn how to create an account, record, and make comments. The students can also be grouped, with one technology savvy in each group, to ensure that every group will accomplish the post-task activity without difficulty.

Question 2. Did the project affect their English speaking ability?

The teacher-researcher collected the students' pre-test oral scores and post-test ones, respectively conducted at the beginning and the end of the project when the students read aloud two short passages and told a story with three comic strip pictures as hints. Two graders helped give scores to both tests when a rubric evaluating student oral accuracy (five points), complexity (five points), and fluency (five points) was adopted. Then the mean values of the two graders were counted. A paired samples t-test was used to see if there was any significant difference between the students' pre-test and post-test scores. The results show that the students improved in their speaking ability significantly. In specific, there was a significant difference in the scores for accuracy between the pre-test ($M=2.93$, $SD=0.91$) and post-test ($M=3.73$, $SD=0.64$), $t(29)=-$

5.17, $p = 0.000$. There was a significant difference in the scores for complexity between the pre-test ($M=2.20$, $SD=0.96$) and post-test ($M=3.17$, $SD=1.49$), $t(29)=-3.29$, $p = 0.003$. There was also a significant difference in the scores for fluency between the pre-test ($M=2.63$, $SD=0.81$) and post-test ($M=3.67$, $SD=0.66$), $t(29)=-7.40$, $p = 0.000$. Therefore, there was a significant difference for the total scores before the project ($M=7.83$, $SD=2.23$) and after the project ($M=10.57$, $SD=2.08$), $t(29)=-6.87$, $p = 0.000$. The implication, accordingly, is that the project of storytelling tasks successfully helped the students to enhance their speaking skills. The students showed improvements in all the three aspects including accuracy, complexity, and fluency. The mean value of the total oral scores also increased from 7.83 to 10.57.

In conclusion, findings gained from the study reveal that engaging EFL university students in storytelling tasks has proved to be an effective approach, which helps boost the student oral skills and allows them to practice speaking in English in an interesting way. The students, although may show objection in the beginning, will turn to appreciate such a course design as they find it helpful for their English learning. However, as there were only 30 students participating in the study, the small scale appears to be one limitation of the study. Another limitation is that there was no control group for comparison. Although the qualitative data, such as the exit survey, the teacher's journal, and the follow-up interviews, served to provide supplementary information in this research work, there is a need, in the future, to conduct an experimental study design. For future study, the teacher-researcher would also be interested in finding out who, the more proficient or the less proficient learners, will benefit more when a blended storytelling project is adopted in an EFL classroom.

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Yow-jyy Joyce Lee* & Ming-Han Lee**

National Taichung University of Science and Technology, Taichung City, Taiwan*
Institute of Information Science, Taipei City, Taiwan*

yjlee@nutc.edu.tw - joseyarashio@gmail.com

Using an automatic training system for enhancing learning English public speech

Bio data

Yow-jyy Joyce Lee is an associate professor in the Department of Applied English at National Taichung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. Her main research interests include finding innovative public speaking training methods, developing effective speech course design, and applying educational technology to aid public speech training and evaluation.

Ming-Han Lee specializes in programming, Digital Signal Processing (DSP), and web application development. He holds a MS degree from the Graduate Institute of Computer Science and Information Engineering at Chang Gung University. Currently he is a research assistant at Institute of Information Science, Academia Sinica, Taiwan.

Current research

The application of voice recognition technology is a promising topic in computer-assisted language learning for assisting learners to be engaged in meaningful oral training (Chen, Huang, & Liu, 2014; Chiu, Liou, & Yeh, 2007). However, very few applications of voice recognition technology were done in the field of English public speaking, which is deemed as a critical ability in Asian students for advancement in their future career (Nunan, 2003). The researchers of this study had developed a web-based computer-assisted presentation training (CAPT) system supported by the application of voice recognition technology to help EFL learners receive explicit public speech training that leads to better oral competence (Lee, Lee, & Lyu, 2015). As a follow up, the current study offered this self-developed CAPT system as a learning aid to voice skills training for self-practice outside classroom to 29 Applied English majors registered in a Public Speaking course at a university of science and technology in central Taiwan.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In addition to classroom lectures and activities, a task outside the classroom was adopted for the pedagogical purpose of promoting the participants' voice skills in public speaking. It meant that the participants needed to work toward the goal of fluently delivering a designated speech segment by practicing at home. The speech, originally delivered by Hillary R. Clinton on September 5, 1995, in Beijing, China was selected from an OER website "Top 100 Speeches—American Rhetoric." It is an indexed database of full text transcriptions and sound files of top 100 most significant American speeches of the 20th century by rank order (American Rhetoric, 2014). Clinton's speech was chosen because of its clarity and liveliness, and because it was featured on the homepage of the website. The segmented speech transcription and recording were prepared by the researchers and then were provided online as the model for the participants to follow and practice.

How the task is monitored and evaluated?

Specifically, the voice skills refer to the three elements in voice: rate, pause, and pronunciation. The participants, modeling on Clinton, made frequent self-practice of vocally delivering the segmented speech on the CAPT system available on the Web. It was open for access from the middle of the semester till the end of the semester for 6 weeks. To monitor that they made the self-practice regularly during the training period, every two weeks the participants were required to upload a practice delivery of the segmented speech modeled on Clinton's address.

At the end of the semester, each participant's recorded and uploaded a final recording to the CAPT system for final evaluation of the task: voice skills in public speaking. The students' oral recordings were rated by the voice recognition technology engine and were given test scores. It primarily rated whether the participants provided appropriate input of vocal expressiveness (represented by correct speech rate and pauses) and pronunciation correctness. Data collection at the end of the project included the students' speech recordings, scores from the final recordings, and learning analytics from the final recordings.

What are the consequences for Learner Analytics?

While the participants were recording the speech, the CAPT system, in addition to evaluating the final learning outcome of the students by assigning a synthetic score individually, captured students' online footprints in terms of rate, pause, and pronunciation. The learning analytics collected from this CAPT system showed how the participants learnt and revealed patterns indicating what public speaking learners needed to improve and what they tended to do well. They are valuable feedback which can help speech instructors adapt their teaching. In addition, the students will leave education with detailed knowledge of their specialist subject—public speaking—and with the necessary voice skills solidly learned.

The results of the study showed that a CAPT system, when uploaded with a model speech, was helpful for the college English majors in practicing speech voice skills. Learning analytics induced from the CAPT system also indicated overall enhancement of students' voice skills in public speaking in the positive direction.

Short paper

Introduction

Frequent practice is the most effective way to EFL four skills learning. Few opportunities, however, for conversing in English daily exist in Asia. Even when they do, learners may be too shy to practice English effectively. The application of voice recognition technology is a promising topic in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) which assists learners to be engaged in meaningful oral training (Chen, Huang, & Liu, 2014; Chiu, Liou, & Yeh, 2007). A computer-assisted presentation training (CAPT) system powered by automatic speech recognition (ASR) has several advantages for language learners. First, it allows learners to learn under a less stressful environment as well as to practice as many times as they like. Moreover, language learners repeatedly practice to correct their errors if it provides corrective feedback on errors in EFL learners' spoken inputs. In general, such a learning mechanism saves time, energy, and yields better learning results.

However, very few applications of voice recognition technology were done in the field of English public speaking, which is deemed as a critical ability in Asian students for advancement in their future career (Nunan, 2003). The researchers of this study has developed a web-based CAPT system supported by the application of voice recognition technology to help EFL learners receive explicit public speech training that leads to better oral competence (Lee, Lee, & Lyu, 2015). This speech application prototype automatically evaluated speakers' English speech passage based on the factors of pronunciation, rate,

and pause. As a follow up, the current study adopted this self-developed CAPT system as a learning aid to voice skills training for self-practice outside an English public speaking classroom. With the feature of tuning to individualized needs and pace of study, hopefully the needs of learners of varying levels of language ability can be more satisfactorily addressed with the aid of such technology.

Methodology

A self-developed CAPT system (Lee, Lee, & Lyu, 2015) was employed as a learning aid to voice skills training for self-practice outside classroom to 29 Applied English majors registered in a Public Speaking course at a university of science and technology in central Taiwan.

Procedure

In addition to classroom lectures and activities, a task outside the classroom was adopted for the pedagogical purpose of promoting the participants' voice skills in public speaking. It meant that the participants needed to work toward the goal of fluently delivering a designated speech segment by practicing outside the classroom. The speech, originally delivered by Hillary R. Clinton on September 5, 1995, in Beijing, China was selected from an OER website "Top 100 Speeches—American Rhetoric." It is an indexed database containing full sound files and text transcriptions of top 100 most significant American speeches of the 20th century by rank order (American Rhetoric, 2014). Clinton's speech was chosen because of its clarity and liveliness, and because it was featured on the homepage of the website. The segmented speech (word count: 87 words) transcription and recording were prepared by the researchers and then were made available on the school e-learning platform as the model for the participants to emulate and practice.

The participants, modeling on Clinton, made frequent self-practice of vocally delivering the segmented speech on the CAPT system available on the Web. It was open for access from the middle of the semester till the end of the semester for 6 weeks. To monitor that they made the self-practice regularly during the training period, every two weeks the participants were required to upload a practice delivery of the segmented speech modeled on Clinton's address.

At the end of the semester, each participating speakers recorded and uploaded a final recording to the CAPT system for final evaluation of the task: voice skills in public speaking.

Data Collection

The students' oral recordings were rated by the voice recognition technology engine and were given test scores. It primarily rated whether the participants provided appropriate input of pronunciation correctness and vocal expressiveness (represented by correct speech rate and pauses). Specifically, the voice skills refer to the three elements in voice: pronunciation, rate, and pause. While the participants were recording the speech, the CAPT system, in addition to evaluating the final learning outcome of the students by assigning a synthetic score individually, captured students' online footprints in terms of pronunciation, rate, and pause. Data collection at the end of the project included the students' speech recordings, scores from the final recordings, and learning analytics from the final recordings.

Results and discussion

The learning analytics collected from this CAPT system showed how the participating speakers learnt and revealed patterns indicating what public speaking learners needed to improve and what they tended to do well in terms of pronunciation, rate, and pause. The system's native acoustic models for pronunciation were trained by using the Wall Street Journal Speech (WSJ) corpus (Charniak et al., 2000), which contains an assortment of

English native accents; the system's models of native duration and pause distributions were trained by using Hillary Clinton's speech.

Pronunciation

Each speaker's utterance was compared against the WSJ corpus. Setting the score 60 to be the standard of "generally satisfactory, intellectually adequate pronunciation performance" in a scale of 100 (as is the convention of grading scale for student teaching in Taiwan), this research examined each participant's pronunciation in two aspects. First, a personal average pronunciation score (APS) was computed by averaging the 87 word pronunciation scores (WPS). It is found that the 29 speakers' APS ranged from 72 to 86. Second, all of a speaker's 87 WPS were inspected. The speaker was then noted with the number of the bad WPS (scored below 60) that he/she produced. This number was further expressed as a percentage of the passage, with 87 words as total. This computational procedure was performed for each speaker, with 29 as total. The results showed that the 29 speakers' correct WPS performance rates ranged from 74% to 97%. Performance at both the APS and WPS levels indicated that the final output in terms of pronunciation was highly satisfactory after 6 weeks' practice.

Rate / Duration

Lewis (1982) regarded Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) as an effective evaluative index and even proposed the standards of the predictive accuracy for MAPE. According to Lewis, the predictive power of MAPE can be categorized into four levels (Table 1). We examined the MAPEs of the words in all 29 test utterances. MAPE, which objectively reflects the difference level of word duration (WD) between the target utterance and the test utterance in this study, is employed to be the evaluative basis of the WD lengths. The smaller the MAPE value, the higher the predictive power, meaning the duration similarity of the speaker's test utterance to the target utterance in this research.

Table 1: Standards of the predictive accuracy for MAPE (Lewis, 1982)

<i>MAPE</i>	<i>Predictive Power</i>
<i><10%</i>	<i>Accurate</i>
<i>10%~20%</i>	<i>Good</i>
<i>20%~50%</i>	<i>Reasonable</i>
<i>>50%</i>	<i>Not accurate</i>

All of the MAPEs of a speaker's 87 words were analyzed to find out which words maintained more proper duration and which did not. MAPE was set at $\pm 50\%$ of the target duration as the acceptable/normal range in the analysis to find out the number of bad WD length (BWD); a word duration above or below 50% of the corresponding target duration was considered as BWD of that particular word. First, BWDs from a speaker's 87 words were noted. The speaker was then noted with the number of the BWD that he/she produced. This number was further expressed as a percentage of the passage, with 87 words as total. This computation was performed for each speaker, with 29 as total. The results showed that the 29 speakers' BWD rates range from only 3% to 25%. The low BWD level indicated that the final output in terms of speech rate after 6 weeks' practice was highly satisfactory.

Pause

In the 87-word passage, nine pauses were identified and served as the correct pauses to be modeled. We investigated the question "how well the 29 speakers do in terms of making correct pause" from two aspects. First, in terms of the location of the correct pause (LCP), the speakers did very well in four pauses (i.e. Pause 3, 4, 6, and 7), fair in one pause (i.e. Pause 9), and poorly in four pauses (i.e. Pause 1, 2, 5, and 8) (Table 2).

Table 2: Number of people making LCP

Location of the correct pause (LCP) made	Frequency (# of person)
Pause 1	0
Pause 2	6
Pause 3	25
Pause 4	23
Pause 5	2
Pause 6	26
Pause 7	28
Pause 8	9
Pause 9	13

Second, in terms of the number of correct pauses (NCP) made by each speaker, the higher the number, the more correct pauses he/she made. The smaller the number, the more mistaken pauses he/she made. Statistics showed that less than 50% of them were able to make five or more correct pauses; more than 50% of them were only able make four or less correct pauses (Table 3). The final output of small LCP and small NCP indicated that six weeks' practice on pause not effective.

Table 3: Statistics of the speakers' NCP

Number of correct pauses (NCP) made	Frequency (# of person)	Percentage	Accumulated Percentage
2	2	7%	7%
3	6	21%	28%
4	7	24%	52%
5	8	28%	80%
6	3	10%	90%
7	3	10%	100%
total	29	100%	100%

In conclusion, learning analytics collected from the CAPT system indicated an overall performance of students' voice skills in public speaking in the positive direction, but the performance in pause was not as good as expected despite six weeks' practice session. It clearly reveals that acquiring the technique of making speech pauses requires more assistance and coaching from the speech instructor.

Conclusion

This is a preliminary research with the learning analytics collected from this CAPT system. The results of the study showed that a CAPT system with a model speech was helpful for the college English majors in practicing speech voice skills. It showed how the participants learnt and revealed patterns indicating what public speaking learners needed to improve and what they tended to do well. They are valuable feedback which can help speech instructors adapt their teaching. In addition, learning analytics induced from the CAPT system also indicate overall enhancement of students' voice skills in public speaking. It means that the students will leave education with detailed knowledge of their specialist subject—public speaking—and with the necessary voice skills solidly learned. Further research should focus on finding the error patterns and analyzing what public speaking learners need to improve accordingly.

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Chenxi Li

The Open University, Milton Keynes, United Kingdom

cecilia.li@open.ac.uk - lichenxi2011@gmail.com

The pedagogical values of a peer evaluation task

Bio data

Chenxi Li is a current PhD student from the Centre for Research in Education and Educational Technology (CREET) at the Open University. Her main research interest is to develop online tasks for Chinese students to improve their communicative competence. She achieved Distinction for her MA Degree at the University of Warwick with her thesis on *Exploring the Pedagogical Values of Peer Evaluation in a Chinese College EFL Context*.

Current research

Evaluation is the last, yet one of the most important stages of a task design cycle, which is often done by teachers, without students' participation. However, only a few researchers (Topping, 2009; Freeman, 1995) have considered peer evaluation process as a proper task for students. In this study, the author aims to explore the pedagogical values of a peer evaluation task. To achieve this goal, the author designed the study in five stages: co-constructing evaluation criteria (pre-task 1), recording an oral presentation (task 1), training in the use of an evaluation form (pre-task 2), peer evaluation with both scores and comments (task 2), and the teacher's summary of the oral presentation and the peer evaluation task (post-task). Semi-structured interviews were conducted to elicit students' opinions on the peer evaluation task and the use of technology for practicing spoken English. The results show the peer evaluation task has a positive effect on improving students' motivation and learner autonomy. The author has also identified some mechanisms through which peer evaluation could promote students' reflective and critical thinking skills. In addition, students reported that the audio-recording-and-screen-capture tool is very helpful for promoting their oral presentation skills. This study suggests that adding a peer evaluation task to the original speaking task could result in more pedagogical benefits to students.

Task-based language learning and teaching

While Long (1998) proposed the approach of focus on form, many other researchers (see Prabhu, 1987; Ellis, 2003 and Numan, 2004) argue that tasks should have a prime focus on meaning. In this study, the two tasks (oral presentation and peer evaluation) focused on not only meaning and form, but also on other linguistic features. This is because there were multiple criteria for the peer evaluation task, including vocabulary, sentence, grammar, overall structure, content, pronunciation, intonation and fluency. These criteria were co-constructed by students themselves, so when recording their oral presentation, they would try to do their best in all the eight aspects. It could be seen that some criteria have a strong focus on form (e.g. vocabulary, sentence and grammar), some criteria are mainly meaning focused (e.g. content and overall structure), and others focus on other linguistic features (e.g. pronunciation, intonation and fluency).

The findings of this study are in relation to the question of how we could design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks. To make the speaking task authentic and meaningful, the author set up a situation where students went to study abroad in UK

and wanted to introduce themselves to native speakers. The peer evaluation task was totally based on students' performance in the oral presentation, so both tasks would involve some 'real world authentic and meaningful language use' (Ellis, 2003). Furthermore, students were given the chance to learn from each others' strengths and weaknesses and to reflect on their own performances, so that the task could become useful to them. Last but not least, the tasks were designed to be enjoyable for students because they were given the privilege to act as a 'teacher' and express their real opinions.

In conclusion, the author suggests that instead of designing tasks within the theoretical framework and focusing on the main task, maybe we could try to extend and develop the task cycle defined by Willis (1996). In this study, the author extended the post-task activity by letting students to do the evaluation. It might also be worth considering if we could somehow develop a task in which students need to work out a clear task instruction for others. It is hoped that by looking at the bigger picture, we could come up with more creative task designs, especially in a time when we are well-equipped a variety of educational technologies.

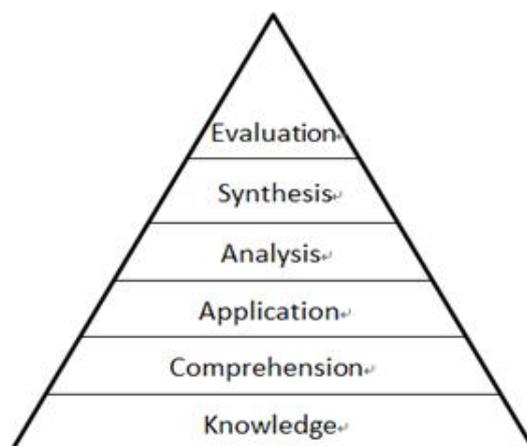
Short paper

Introduction

This study aims to address two questions in relation to the conference theme. (a) How can we design a peer evaluation task which is authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable? (b) To what extent does a peer evaluation task depend on its context? In this study, students were asked to first record an oral self-introduction presentation, which were then evaluated by their peers with scores and comments. The author proposes the model of an extended task cycle based on the theoretical framework of Bloom's Taxonomy and attempts to examine the values of a peer evaluation task.

Bloom's Taxonomy

In Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956), he divides different learning objectives of the cognitive domain into six stages: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation. Evaluation is considered to be the highest learning objective and the highest level of thinking skill. In this study, I attempted to take students to achieve all the six learning objectives step by step through two tasks: an oral presentation task to introduce themselves and a peer evaluation task on their peers' oral presentation.



Graph 1: Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Objectives

What is peer evaluation?

According to Bloom (1956), evaluation refers to the ability to 'present and defend opinions by making judgments about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria'. Peer evaluation, or peer assessment is an arrangement for learners to consider and specify the level, value, and quality of a product or performance of other equal status learners (Topping, 2009). To specify both value and quality, students were asked to provide both scores (quantitative evaluation) and comments (qualitative evaluation). Another important element is equal status learners, which does not necessarily mean equal language proficiency. In fact, it is the gap in proficiency between learners of equal status that activates the process of self reflection and even autonomous learning.

Values of peer evaluation

Researchers have observed some improvement in students' knowledge of and skills in English, for example, greater improvement in writing proficiency in peer feedback groups (Topping, 2003), significantly improved performance in oral presentations using peer review (Mitchell & Bakewell, 1995) and similar effectiveness as teacher comments on grammatical accuracy for assessment of essays (Jacobs & Zhang, 1989). With regard to beneficiaries, peer assessment is associated with gains for assessors, assesses, or both (Topping, 2005; Topping & Ehly, 1998). Equally important, many researchers (see Topping, 2009; Linda, 2008; Strom, Strom, & Moore, 1999; Elliott & Higgins, 2005; Brown, 2004; O'Donnell & Topping, 1998; Stanley, 1992) reported that peer assessment is pedagogically beneficial, mainly because it enhances motivation and learner autonomy, reflective and critical thinking. But very few have demonstrated how peer evaluation could lead to pedagogical benefits.

Research questions in relation to the conference theme

Therefore, my research questions is "In what ways can peer evaluation lead to pedagogical benefits, including enhanced motivation and learner autonomy, reflexive and critical thinking skills?" The two sub-questions related to the conference themes are as follows. (a) What strategies can we use for task design to maximize the pedagogical benefits of peer evaluation? (b) What technologies can be used to facilitate learners' task accomplishment?

Problems of peer evaluation

The biggest challenge concerning peer evaluation is validity. It is reported in Topping's review (2009) that over 70% of the studies found reliability and validity adequate (Sadler & Good, 2006). Promising as the figure seems, lessons need to be learnt from those unsuccessful cases. For example, by saying that 'I am not the teacher' (Sima, 1998), secondary school students expressed their inability and lack of confidence in assessing their peers' work. Other researchers honestly acknowledged that low achievers find it more difficult to assess their peers when compared to high achievers (Jafarpur, 1991; Pond *et al.*, 1995; Orsmond *et al.*, 1997; Sullivan and Hall, 1997). Quantitative data and students' interviews implied that students in their particular context were not capable of offering their peers valid and effective evaluation. Therefore, it is crucial to target the appropriate students and context for the peer evaluation task to work well.

Research participants and context

The twelve research participants in this study come from a teacher training course in a private institution from my hometown Changchun, China. They are first or second year students from different universities in Changchun, and most of them are majoring in English or English Education. This research project was introduced to them by their teacher, Professor Geng. Their English proficiency in this particular context is around intermediate to upper intermediate. The students are motivated to participate in this project because they want to become English teachers in the future and it is important for them to develop both oral presentation and evaluation skills. For them, both the oral

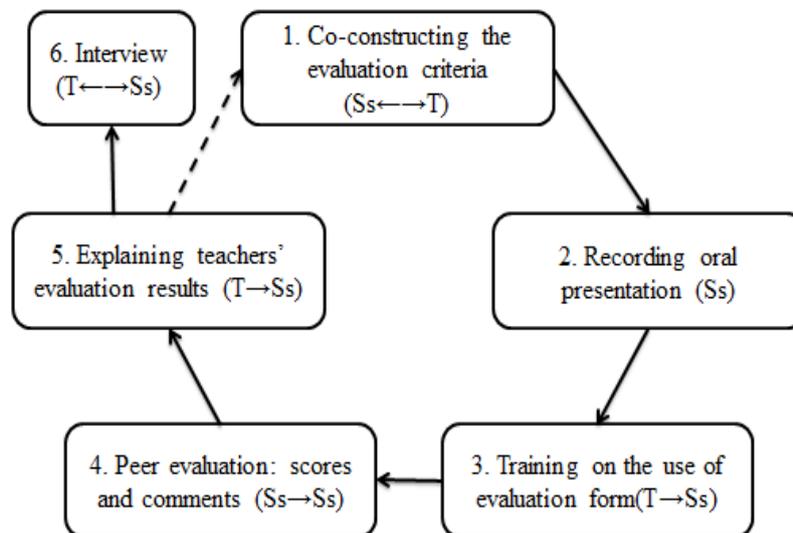
presentation task (a self-introduction with power point slides) and the evaluation task (on their peers oral presentation) are authentic and meaningful.

Training

Many researchers emphasize that students who are engaging in peer evaluation should be given sufficient training on the proper use of marking criteria to enhance peer evaluation validity (Oldfield and Macalpine, 1995; Jafarpur, 1991; Adams and King, 1995; Mowl and Pain, 1995; Pond et al., 1995; Kwan and Leung, 1996; Orsmond et al., 1997). Similarly, Freeman (1995) argues that adequate training and practice in peer-assessment is necessary to minimize potential inconsistencies associated with subjectivity. This is why I recorded a training video in which I explained the evaluation criteria, demonstrated a sample evaluation couple with an exercise so that students could watch whenever they need as many times as they want.

Research Design

In order to answer the research question, the author designed this research as follows (see Graph 2): First, students were involved in the criteria making process, in which they discussed what makes a good oral self-introduction. Then, according to the criteria constructed by students, they recorded an oral self-introduction, using a screen capture tool called 'Web-ex Recorder'. Before the actual evaluation, the students watched a training video explaining how to use the peer evaluation form containing eight criteria. Of the twelve student participants, three were selected to be evaluated by all of their classmates, including themselves. Then students watched their peers' performance and filled in the evaluation forms which asked them to give scores, and write comments to justify their scores. After the students submitted their peer evaluation forms, the teachers gave them a short lecture sharing their evaluation results on the three students' oral self-introduction and explained in detail why certain scores were given. Finally, a semi-structured one-to-one interview was carried out to explore what students actually did and what they learned throughout this peer evaluation process.

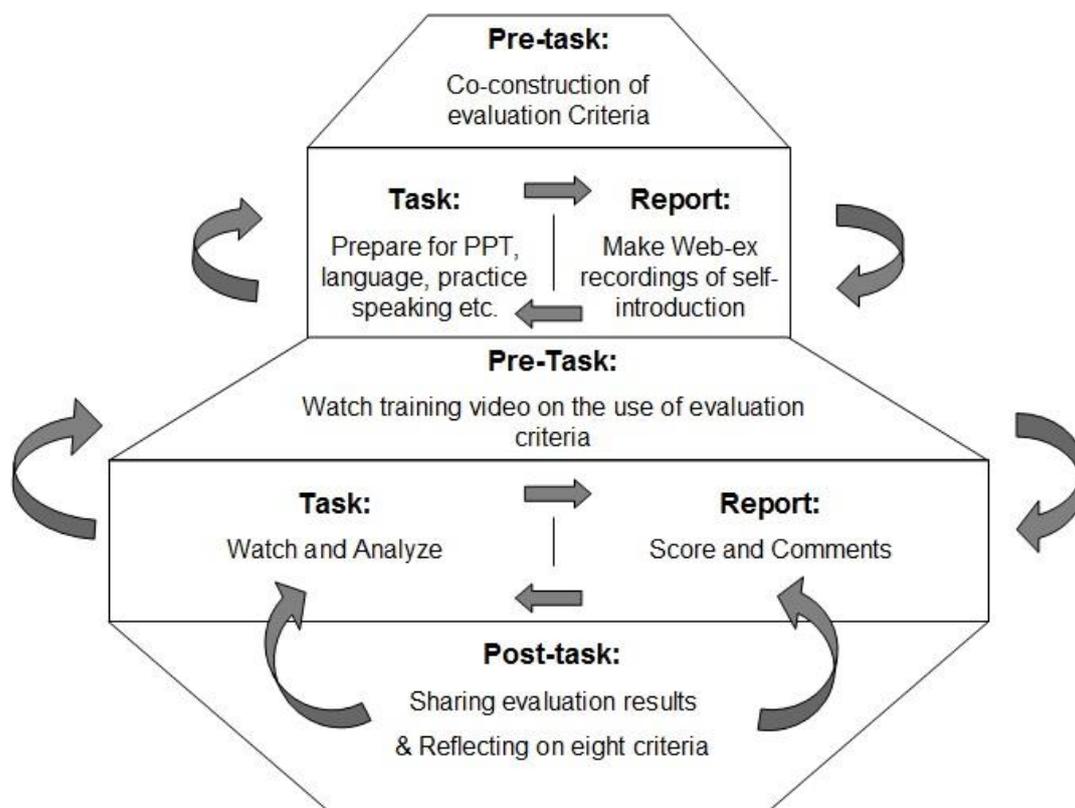


Graph 2: The Research Design

The Extended Task Cycle

In order to better sequence the two tasks, I devised a task-based framework what I call 'the extended task cycle'. The first two stages for the oral presentation task are the same as the original model. This is followed by a full task cycle for the peer evaluation task, which consists of three stages: (a) the pre-task when students watch the training video on the use of evaluation criteria; (b) the main task in which students watch and analyze their peers' oral presentations and then give scores and comments; and (c) the post-task

activity which focuses on sharing both teachers' and students' evaluations and reflecting on what could be learned from the two tasks.



Graph 3: The Extended Task Cycle

Technology

Three major tools were used including: (1) Adobe Connect, an audio conferencing tool for online lectures; (2) Web-ex Recorder - a screen capturing and voice recording tool recording students' oral presentations; (3) QQ - a Chinese online chatting tool for some daily conversations and online interviews. From all recording tools considered, 'Web-ex Recorder' has been especially chosen because it allows presenters to show the important information contained in their oral presentation on screen, which can be beneficial for both presenters and evaluators. On one hand, the information on the screen serves as an outline and a reminder for presenters to refer to. On the other hand, it enhances the listeners' understanding of the content, especially when the content recorded is not clear enough, due to students' faulty pronunciation or other technical problems. Moreover, as long as people have downloaded the file in their computers, they can watch and listen to it whenever and wherever they want. This makes the recording and evaluation process quite flexible and convenient for teachers and students.

Data collection

This study collects multiple forms of data for a comprehensive analysis. The main data are (a) web-ex recordings of students' oral presentation of a self introduction; (b) evaluation forms on 3 students' oral presentations from all 12 students and (c) online one-to-one semi-structured interviews with 12 students. Other forms of data include: (d) recordings of the online lectures through the audio-conferencing tool, Adobe Connect; (e) evaluation forms on 3 students' oral presentations from 3 professional English teachers for comparison with students' evaluation results, and (f) a training video on how to use the evaluation criteria.

Result on Validity

The final equation of linear regression between students' and teachers' evaluation results is $y = 1.0256x - 0.4896$ ($R^2 = 0.2785$). This shows that the students' evaluation results are similar to the teachers', so the validity of peer evaluation is relatively high. But the

linear regression line is below the line $y=x$, which means that scores given by teachers (y) are generally lower than those given by students (x).

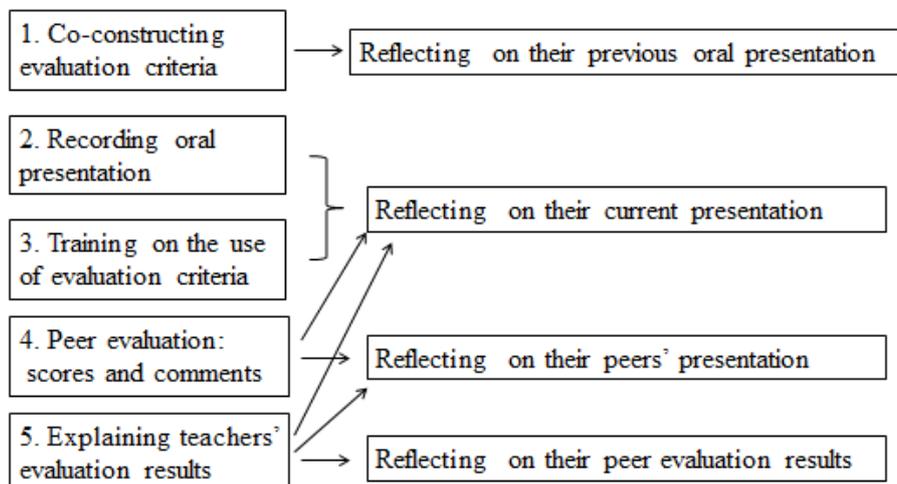
Motivation and Learner Autonomy

According to the interview data, it was discovered that students' motivation could be enhanced both before and after the peer evaluation task.

First, when preparing for their oral presentation, 10 out of 12 interviewees admitted that the notion of having an audience would motivate them to work harder. For example, student C, whose oral presentation was used as a sample in the training video, indicated that this was a good opportunity for him to 'show off', and he did not want to 'lose face' in front of his classmates. In fact, he told the author he had recorded oral presentation many times and tried to improve each time before the final submission. Just as Stanley (1992) suggested, peer evaluation helps students in achieving an improved sense of audience. The finding of the current study has further confirmed this argument.

After the peer evaluation, when students had carefully watched, analysed and evaluated their peers' oral presentation, they became motivated to improve their own performances in future tasks. According to the interview data, when asked whether students would compare their classmates' oral presentation with their own, almost all of them answered with an absolute yes. Some students emphasized that the comparison process happened naturally, and that they just could not help comparing themselves with others. It seems that such comparison would create some invisible competition among classmates, which could lead to higher motivation. In fact, all the interviewees admitted that their peers' good performance would encourage them to work harder. This finding suggests that peer evaluation could motivate students not only within the peer evaluation process, but also in students' future study. In other words, it can be inferred that peer evaluation activity could have some positive long-term effects on students' motivation.

Reflective and Critical Thinking



Graph 4: Peer Evaluation and Reflection

Graph 3 has briefly summarized possible reflection processes within the two tasks reported by interviewees. For example, when asked about the co-construction of evaluation criteria, student H said that she was reflecting on her previous experience of an oral English contest and tried to think from the markers' perspective. And eight interviewees admitted that they did reflect on their own oral presentation when they were watching the training video on how to use the evaluation criteria. To top it off, all the interviewees would reflect on their own performance when they noticed some mistakes or weaknesses in their peers' oral presentation. On the other hand, many students emphasized that they should learn from their peers critically, by adopting

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Jia Li* & Zheng Zhang**

University of Ontario Institute of Technology, Oshawa, Canada*
University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China**

Jia.li@uoit.ca - zhengzhang@cuhk.edu.hk

A task-based approach to developing authentic instructional materials for teaching English: Canadian and Hong Kong university students collaborate in creating open educational resources.

Bio data

Jia Li is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education, the University of Ontario Institute of Technology, and a Canada-U.S. Fulbright Scholar at the Harvard Graduate School of Education (2011-2012). She received her masters and doctoral degree in second language education at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, the University of Toronto. Her research focuses on data-driven innovative language instruction using new technologies for linguistically diverse urban students and English language learners, and technology enhanced vocabulary learning and reading strategies.

Zheng Zhang is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education, the Chinese University of Hong Kong. Her research interests include curriculum designs for English language instruction, multiliteracies, and curricular studies of international education and transnational education.

Current research

High quality and authentic materials which are relevant to the teaching context, and well aligned with learning interest of English language learners (ELLs) and meet the curriculum goals in the local school systems have demonstrated great benefits for teaching English as a foreign and second language. However, to develop such materials in a timely manner that meet ELLs' diverse interest and their increasingly technology-oriented learning strategies can be challenging for both in-service English instructors and professional curriculum developers. This paper reports on a transnational research project between 35 Canadian university students mostly majored in the Education and Digital Technology program and 47 Hong Kong (HK) student teachers in the Teachers Education program. These student participants with diverse linguistic backgrounds in two universities engaged in tasks in developing authentic English teaching materials as multimedia open educational resources (OERs), and they collaborated for a term through an asynchronized online platform.

The research results of the present study, suggestions for future research and pedagogical recommendations will be presented with the full-length paper along with the samples of students' OER projects and thematic analysis of the excerpts of their online discussions.

Task-based language learning and teaching

In light of recent research advances in task-based language teaching (TBLT) through integrating new technologies to enable asynchronous communications (e.g., Hauck, & Youngs, 2009; Gorjian et al., 2015; O'Dowd, & Waire, 2009; Sotillo, 2000), this present study examines two overarching research questions: How do we efficiently develop

English curriculum materials using and for OERs with authentic, learner-centered, meaningful, and enjoyable tasks? 2) Which of these tasks are most appropriate for developing intercultural competence?

The study took place in the intact classroom settings with Canadian participants were registered in an undergraduate online course, entitled "Culture and Digital Tools", while the HK participants were enrolled in a face-to-face B.Ed. course, "Principles of Curriculum and Instructional Design". Students in both universities are exposed to online instruction using Blackboard as the course management system. The study was well aligned with the shared objectives of their courses, 1) which required both Canadian and HK students to learn to use digital technologies to develop a multimedia group project that can be used as OERs; and 2) which aimed to enhance intercultural and multicultural competence for these university students.

The advantages of asynchronous discussions supported by web. 2.0 has been found providing students "more scope for developing closer relationships with their learning partners" (Hauck, & Youngs, 2009, p.103) and more flexibility to "self-regulate the required support and learning strategies" (Gorjian et al., 2015, p.385), as well as allowing students, who have different levels of language proficiency including writing skills, extra time to review, reflect and compose messages, therefore it likely leads to strong motivation and encourages thoughtful discussion (de Wever et al., 2007). A task-based approach was implemented to conduct this study by designing an optimal constructive learning environment using WebKF as an asynchronous discussion platform. Specific considerations were given to evaluate the fit between the tasks and the technology application, following the methodological principles and pedagogic procedures by Doughty and Long (2003) and with reference to the previous studies.

The results of the present study indicated that the instructional design embedded with appropriate tasks, which are facilitated by web 2.0 technologies, enabled these student participants to form a transnational learning communities that harness strengths of their skills and diverse perspectives. These students from the divergent geographic regions had a broad array of enriched experience in the Eastern and Western values of learning and teaching, as well as skills of using new technologies; and they were eager to share relevant insights and gained the first-hand information about different culture along with critical reflections that challenge biased assumptions. As a result, they were able to create quality OERs for English teaching with a constrained time period while learning from each other to meet one of the specific goals of their respective courses – developing intercultural competence.

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Jia Li*, Yan Wang & Kevin Mooney***

University of Ontario Institute of Technology, Oshawa, Canada*
University of South Florida, Tampa, United States**

jia.li@uoit.ca - yanw@mail.usf.edu - kevin.mooney@uoit.net

University ELLs' perception on learning academic vocabulary through reading tasks using text messaging as the scaffolding**Bio data**

Jia Li is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Education, University of Ontario Institute of Technology. She received her masters and doctoral degree in second language education at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, University of Toronto. Her research focuses on data-driven innovative language instruction using new technologies for linguistically diverse urban students and English language learners, and technology enhanced vocabulary learning and reading strategies.

Yan Wang is a doctoral student at the College of Education, University of South Florida. Yan received her masters degree from Lynch School of Education, Boston College. Her research interests include English language learners' language acquisition and educational assessment.

Kevin Mooney is a fourth-year undergraduate student and research assistant at the Faculty of Education, University of Ontario Institute of Technology. Kevin has a background in technology assisted ESL instruction, web development and digital media production. His current research focuses on technology assisted language learning, specifically mobile assisted vocabulary development.

Current research

This paper investigates undergraduate ELL students' perspective on an intervention study that aimed at enhancing their academic vocabulary learning through reading comprehension tasks by providing them with instructional learning support using mobile technologies, such as Short Message System (SMS) texts. This intervention was aligned with two content-based English for academic purposes (EAP) courses required for undergraduate students in a large Toronto university. It targeted the teaching of academic and low frequency words embedded within the readings assigned by the courses to ELLs. The schedule of the intervention lessons were synchronized with the students' weekly reading tasks, following instructors' course outline in order to form a synergistic effort to help the students learn difficult words.

The results of the study are derived from data collected from interviews with 10 students who received the vocabulary instruction from the intervention. The research results, suggestions for future research and instruction will be presented with the full-length paper along with the samples of the instructional materials developed for the intervention.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Mobile technologies have demonstrated great potential in providing opportunities for ELLs to improve their learning (e.g., Kim et al., 2013; Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Stockwell, 2007). Recent research has shown that many ELLs have comparable access as the general population to new technologies and are even more interested in using some aspects of technology than their native-English speaking peers (e.g., Li, Snow & White, 2014). For example, the study by Rideout et al. (2010) showed that minority youth in the US spent about 1.5 hours more each day using their phones for activities such as watching videos and television than White youth. Some studies also showed that these ELLs, language minority students, are very interested in using technology to learn language skills (e.g., Li, Snow, Jiang & Edwards, 2014).

However designing feasible and effective mobile assisted language instruction in intact classrooms can be challenging due to the complexity of many associated factors, namely different cellphone features, data plans and time constraints, etc. Two critical questions have to be examined to profile the compatibility between target language skills, tasks, and mobile applications (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Robinson, 2011); that is, 1) To what extent do tasks depend on context? 2) Which tasks are best suited for which skills?

Our findings from the survey and interviews have shown 1) that a large percentage of ELL undergraduates, including international students, enrolled in urban Canadian universities are among the technology-savvy urban youth who highly value optimal technology features, broad virtual connections and communities, and access to information. They were open to technology-assisted language instructions and responded exceedingly positively to our intervention, e.g., 90% of students in three classes voluntarily participated in the study, which they received vocabulary focused text messages on their cellphone three times a day and five days a week for two months in addition to words game exercise and weekly words review via email messages. 2) Students were motivated in adopting technology assisted language intervention, if the instructional design efficiently and explicitly responds to their learning tasks required by the course requirements, and confirms with their current practice of instant access to the information, and peer social interaction dynamics. The significant implication of these findings has pointed out that it is feasible to accelerate university ELLs' learning of academic vocabulary within a challenging timeframe by tapping into their interest in mobile technologies with explicit instruction.

Short paper

Introduction

Over the recent decades, technology has been increasingly integrated with students' learning in diverse ways (e.g., Lee & Chen, 2010; Murchland & Parkyn, 2011; Warschauer, 2006). English language learners (ELLs), as a unique student population, have been leveraging technology-based language instruction to enhance their language skills (e.g., Kim et al., 2013; Li, Gromik & Edwards, 2013). A large volume of literature has investigated how technology transformed the English language learning and teaching process, and impacted students' learning outcomes. For example, Peterson (2006) examined the interaction among university ELLs during task-based activities involving a three-dimensional virtual world with avatars. He found that the use of avatars facilitated students' interaction and negotiation of meanings in jigsaw, decision-making, and opinion-exchange tasks. Son (2007) studied the impact of web-based tasks on students' language learning experience, and observed students' enhanced engagement and positive attitudes towards those tasks. The learning tasks in the computer mediated communication environment (CMC) has been found to have positive influences on enhancing ELLs' language skills (e.g., Wu, Petit & Chen, 2015; Chen & Brown, 2012).

Technology also played a significant role in improving the learning of vocabulary, a fundamental and critical part of language learning (e.g., Lin, 2002; Li 2009, 2010). For instance, Song and Fox (2008) investigated undergraduate students' use of the Personal Digital Assistance (PDA) in incidental vocabulary learning and found that PDA was used for various purposes that shaped the vocabulary learning activities. Loucky (2002) found that college students' use of computerized bilingual dictionaries in reading tasks was effective in aiding their learning of low-frequency words and reading comprehension. Although there has been much literature devoted to the impact of technological devices on vocabulary learning, the influence of texts via cell phone, which is popular among teens and young adults (Lenhart, 2012; Smith, 2012), has not been well studied. In addition, academic vocabulary, which is critical to students' academic success, has not been the focus of recent studies examining the impact of mobile technologies on ELL vocabulary learning. Therefore, this study aims to explore how texting could facilitate the academic vocabulary learning of undergraduate ELLs during reading comprehension tasks through an intervention.

Mobile Phone and Task-based Vocabulary Learning

The ubiquitous mobile phones have been increasingly embedded within language learning and teaching (e.g., Chen, Chung & Wang, 2008; Stockwell, 2007). The effectiveness and benefits of such integration have been examined and reported in literature. For example, Basoglu and Akdemir (2010) conducted an experimental study to compare the effect of vocabulary learning via mobile phones and flash cards. By analyzing the pre-post test scores and interview transcripts, they found that students had positive attitudes toward using mobile phones to learn vocabulary than using flash cards. The former was also found to be more effective in assisting students' learning than using flash cards. Thornton and Houser (2003) compared the effectiveness of Japanese college students' vocabulary learning through emails via mobile phones, the web via desktops, and paper materials. Their findings showed that students from the mobile learning group had the most significant vocabulary growth than the other two groups. Stockwell's (2010) longitudinal study compared students' experience in using mobile phones and desktops to complete vocabulary tasks, including passive and productive language learning tasks. However, he found no significant difference in students' performance between those activities.

Compared with the features mentioned above and the other features available on mobile phones, texting has been one of the most frequently and widely used services (Lenhart, 2012; Smith, 2012). A few studies have examined the effect of texting on ELLs' vocabulary learning. Lu (2008) conducted an intervention study by randomly assigning students to two groups, learning vocabulary via short message service (SMS)- and paper-based tasks. The results showed that students from the SMS group had positive attitudes towards vocabulary acquisition through mobile phones and they recognized significantly more words than the other group. Similarly, through an intervention study, Zhang, Song and Burston (2011) compared the effectiveness in learning vocabulary using texting versus the paper method. However, there was no significant difference between the SMS and paper groups in their levels of knowledge, indicated by the delayed test scores. As the both interventions were implemented in a relatively short period of time, and the studies did not focus on reporting students' perception on the vocabulary learning via SMS embedded within any tasks, such as reading comprehension or writing. Therefore this present study attempted to investigate university ELL students' perception on learning academic vocabulary through reading tasks with the support of text messaging during a longer term intervention study.

Methods

Context and Participants

This present study was part of a large study which lasted for three months and was conducted among ELLs with diverse linguistic backgrounds, and the majority of them were freshmen in a large Canadian university. The participants were recruited from six content-based English for academic purposes (EAP) classes and volunteered to

participate in the study. Three classes were randomly assigned to three treatment groups which had about 50 participants in total. The other three classes were the control groups that had a similar number of participants. About 35-50% of participants in the classes are ELLs with Chinese as their first language. Ten students were randomly selected from three treatment classes for interview after the intervention, which contributed to the data for the present study.

Research Procedure-Tasks

Target academic vocabulary used in the intervention was selected from the reading materials of those EAP classes so the vocabulary learning could be embedded within students' reading comprehension tasks. Three words were texted to students each day, with one in the morning, one at noon, and one in the afternoon. Each text message included the target word, page reference to the reading material where the word came from, its definition, and a sample sentence. Email messages containing the same content, in addition to word games and summary were also sent to students on a daily and weekly basis.

Data-collection and analysis

Upon completion of the study, 10 participants were interviewed regarding their perceptions of the benefits of the mobile-assisted language intervention to enhance their learning of English, in particular vocabulary and reading comprehension. Transcripts were the primary data source for this present study. The interview questions focused on students' perceptions from the three major aspects as below.

- using mobile technology to learn English in academic contexts
- their personal preferences in learning English language for academic purposes
- mobile-assisted (texting) and web-based (email) instruction they received during the intervention

Conducted in either English or Chinese, each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes to 1.5 hours. The interviews were recorded to MP3 using an iPhone. Interviews that were conducted in Chinese were audibly translated to English, and then transcribed. Each transcript was analyzed, applying a thematic analysis that looked across all the data to identify the common perceptions and collective experience that students had of the intervention. Grounded theory, or open coding (Strauss, 1990) was the method of categorization for each theme. Concepts were identified using keywords and key phrases were marked with labels. Using qualitative data analysis (QDA) Miner Lite, interview transcripts were analyzed and coded using four categories related to perceptions of the use of mobile technology, learning preferences, reading activities, and self-directed learning.

Results and Conclusion

Three distinctive themes emerged. First, the most frequently recurrent theme evolved around student learning preferences in using technology, particularly mobile devices. For example, many participants reported using their cell phones to access electronic dictionary apps and websites. Furthermore, although they all approved of using text messages and email for the intervention, while all participants had indicated a preference for receiving vocabulary learning materials via text messaging over email, and half of the participants reported checking text messages more frequently than email. Second, students have reported on their active engagement in self-directed learning new words to build their vocabularies using mobile devices. Five of the 10 participants reported learning new words by reading, and their preferences were online newspapers, articles and English novels. Third, results reflect that these students prefer a usage-based language acquisition, that is, they prefer to learn through comprehending utterances and text, and "in doing so they often must comprehend a word in the sense of determining the functional role it is playing in the utterance" (Tomasello, 2009, p. 75). For example, majority of them found the sample sentence included with each word definition is

particularly helpful. Some participants expressed desire for more sample sentences and exercises that provided more contextual information for a deeper understanding of how to use new words and their meanings.

To conclude, this research should provide insight into task-based instruction and learning activities using mobile technologies, including text messaging, to enhance vocabulary learning for English language learners. Instructors may see opportunities to modify their current curriculum to include materials and instruction that can be accessible via mobile devices. We hope the findings can serve as an impetus for future research that substantiate the present findings. Finally the present results may also help us understand how ELLs develop their vocabularies using mobile technologies outside of the classroom and the impact that these outside factors on understanding new words encountered in their daily activities as well as academic learning tasks.

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Xiaobin Liu, Jianli Jiao & Han Xu

South China Normal University, Guangzhou, P.R.China

liuxiaobin@m.scnu.edu.cn

Developing critical thinking through TBLT and SCMC-based peer feedback in EFL classes

Bio data

Xiaobin Liu is currently a PhD student in the School of Information Technology in Education at South China Normal University and a lecturer in the School of Foreign Studies at South China Normal University. His research interests include computer assisted language learning and educational technology.

Jianli Jiao is currently vice dean and professor in the School of Information Technology in Education at South China Normal University. His research interests include computer assisted language learning and educational technology.

Han Xu is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Studies at South China Normal University. His research interests include translation studies and teaching.

Current research

Critical thinking is believed to be an important skill that should be fostered in EFL/ESL classes. However, many researchers claim that critical thinking is difficult to teach explicitly in L2 classrooms. Therefore, those advised strategies that can be used in the language classes for attaining critical thinking encourage L2 learners to question the validity of ideas or judge the ideas of other people.

The problem is, active questioning and prompt feedbacks from learners in EFL/ESL classes are scarce due to the reasons such as Chinese students' shyness to speak out, boring activities, limitation of time, etc. By introducing WeChat Wall, a new form of SCMC, the current research provides a better way to solve the above problem with the hope of developing critical thinking skills among EFL learners.

This research carries out a teaching experiment which spans nearly 4 months in a translation practice course for English majors. By transforming the class into a translation "workshop" and adopting elements of modern translation project management, the teacher/instructor is thus able to design meaningful tasks and assign specific roles to individuals of each task group. Students are given enough freedom and incentive to work with each other to finish the tasks or "translation projects", and the accomplishment of which is sufficiently and comprehensively reflected in their multiple class presentations aided by WeChat Wall.

To testify the effectiveness, California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) and California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) are adopted as a survey instrument to compare the experimental group and the controlled group. The synthesis of our research findings indicates that TBLT and SCMC-based peer feedback in EFL Classes influence students' disposition to think critically and improve students' critical thinking skills significantly.

Task design & language learning and teaching

Through a series of teaching practice, the research tries to answer the follow question: How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?

According to Ellis, TBLT basically calls for teachers and students to “forget where they are and why they are there”, which indicates the implicit learning nature of classroom activities. While developing critical thinking skills also encourages those implicit learning activities such as questioning and judging ideas. Therefore, TBLT and the development of critical thinking skills share a lot in common, and critical thinking can be attained through the implementation of TBLT.

As functionalist translation theory suggests, translation, or the practice of translation is, like many human behaviors, a purposeful activity. And critically thinking denotes that students should be trained in the hows and whys, in addition to the whats. In the context of a translation class, the probe into the process of translation is just as important as the product. These rationales are crucial in the designing of authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks. In the translation class where current research is conducted, two important approaches, translation “workshop” and translation project management were introduced with four distinctive features. The first one is authentic and diversified translation materials from real-life translation activities, which are presented as task packages in different categories according to text types and usages. No two task groups get the same materials to ensure students all have different materials to work on. Secondly, student groups are required to not only present their translation products, but also their translation process in the form of stage reports, which indicate their progress throughout the whole course of the class. Thirdly, the task is as detailed as possible in accordance with the science of translation project management to try to reproduce real translation practice, with such non-lingual work as team-building, glossary and background information collecting, quality-control, relationship managing, etc.. Fourthly, diverse and process-oriented evaluation is introduced. Students are not only assessed by their translation work, but also by their performance in different stages of the tasks and the accomplishment of their individual responsibilities in the groups.

The introduction of Wechat Wall into the class facilitates the above mentioned reforms in that it gives students a powerful and popular tool to effectively and creatively record and reflect the whole translation process during real-time feedback. Teachers can expect more enthusiasm in students’ participation and more self-reflection and self-improvement, which eventually enhance their ability to think critically.

By using Wechat Wall, learners send text comments to an additional screen of the classroom during a groups’ presentation. The texts are sent via a mobile phone APP namely Wechat, which is very popular in present Mainland China, and the whole class can see all the comments in the screen. After all the groups have done their presentations, each learner votes for the best group in the Webchat space and the result of the vote can also be shown on the screen.

During the presentation, technology and TBLT align their theoretical emphasis on “doing language” and experiential learning and share similar pedagogical functions in terms of enhancing motivation and authenticity in language learning (Lai & Li, 2011), providing feedback, and ultimately fostering critical thinking.

Short paper

Introduction

Developing learners' critical thinking skills has become an important goal for higher education in many nations, and researchers also generally agree about the importance of developing critical thinking skills in EFL/ESL classes and in higher education (Puthikanon,

2009; Behar-Horenstein & Niu, 2011; Omidvar & Sukumar, 2013). Among the strategies of developing critical thinking in the language classes, communicative activities such as questioning the validity of ideas or judging the ideas of other people are encouraged since critical thinking has long been considered as a concept of "social practice" and therefore difficult to teach explicitly (Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996a; Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996b; Atkinson, 1997; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999; Puthikanon, 2009; Omidvar & Sukumar, 2013).

According to researchers, the essence of TBLT is that communicative tasks serve as the basic units of the curriculum (Lai & Li, 2011), and it basically calls for teachers and students to "forget where they are and why they are there", which indicate the implicit learning nature of classroom activities (Ellis, 2003). Therefore, TBLT provides a perfect solution to the cultivation of critical thinking.

Researchers also agree that, language-learning tasks should be interactive, and presentation or reporting back to the class is necessary (Wills, 1996; Skehan, 2003). However, during students' presentation or reporting, those interactive activities such as active questioning and prompt feedbacks from listeners/learners are scarce due to the reasons such as Chinese students' shyness to speak out, boring activities, limitation of time, etc. The reporting and presentation therefore easily become the weakest link in the whole TBLT process. By adopting WeChat Wall, a new form of SCMC, the current research provides a better way to solve the above problem with the hope of developing critical thinking skills among EFL learners.

The Research

The study is implemented in a translation class, which is transformed into a translation "workshop", and elements of modern translation project management are adopted. As functionalist translation theory suggests, translation, or the practice of translation is, like many human behaviors, a purposeful activity. And critically thinking denotes that students should be trained in the hows and whys, in addition to the whats. In the context of a translation class, the probe into the process of translation is just as important as the product. These rationales are crucial in the designing of authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks.

Students in this class are given enough freedom and incentive to work with each other to finish the tasks or "translation projects", and the accomplishment of which is sufficiently and comprehensively reflected in their multiple class presentations aided by WeChat Wall.

Approximately half of the total class hours are devoted to computer-aided translation practice, and the other half of the time is devoted to the task groups' class reports on their progress as well as the each group's final review of the whole translation project. Generally the tasks include:

- Translate the given text materials into the target language.
- Progress reviews and class reports.
- Task review and class presentation.

The elements of translation project management are introduced into the designing of the tasks, which are presented in several stages.

1. Preparation (week 1): group division and role-assigning.
2. Initiation (week 2): distribution of translation task package; group discussion; class report 1 with SCMC-based peer feedback.
3. Execution (week 3-8): computer-aided translation practice; class report 2 with SCMC-based peer feedback.
4. Quality Control (week 9-10): editing; proofreading; collection of feedback; class report 3 with SCMC-based peer feedback.
5. Comprehensive Review (week 11-16): group presentations with SCMC-based peer feedback.

Procedures of Class Reports and Presentations (with SCMC-based peer feedback):

1. Report 1: group WBS (Work Breakdown Structure) (group leader); translation task analysis (group leader); work standard (group leader); group communications (group leader).
2. Report 2: group member's job description (all group members); data and resource collection (data and resource collector); translation progress report (all group members).
3. Report 3: editing and proofreading (editor and proofreader).
4. Final Review and Group Presentation: general review of the translation task (group leader); role-assigning, job division and assessment on individual group member (group leader); glossary and database (data collector); comparative analysis of the source text materials and their translations (all translators); demonstration of translation theories, skills and techniques as applied in the translation practice (all translators); problems and solutions (management problems by group leader, technical problems by technical supporter, resource problems by data-collector, translation problems by all translators).

The detailed description of the tasks and individual student's responsibility is necessary to ensure authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable TBLT. The introduction of Wechat Wall into the class reports and presentations implicitly facilitates the development of students' critical thinking in that it gives students a powerful and popular tool to effectively and creatively record and reflect the whole translation process during real-time feedback. Teachers can expect more enthusiasm in students' participation and more self-reflection and self-improvement, which eventually enhance their ability to think critically.

This study sought the answer to the following research questions:

1. What level of disposition do learners have toward critical thinking after the experiment?
2. Is the teaching based on TBLT and SCMC peer feedback in EFL classes effective in improving learners' critical thinking skills?

Methodology

This study is conducted by the researchers and takes nearly four months. Subjects are college EFL majored juniors. Class 1 is the experimental group with a total number of thirty students while Class 2 is the control group with the same number of students. To answer the research questions, California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory Chinese version (CCTDI-CV) and California Critical Thinking Skills Test Chinese Version (CCTST-CV) are employed as data collection instruments. CCTDI and CCTST scales emerged in 1990 as a result of the Delphi Project organized by American Philosophical Association (APA) and have become a prominent instrument to test critical thinking. The Results of many studies also revealed that the above mentioned instruments are sufficiently reliable as research tools and are able to distinguish persons with different dispositions and levels of critical thinking (Khalli & Hossein, 2003; Bakir, 2015).

Findings and conclusion

One of this study's findings is that, before the teaching, both the experimental and control groups' critical thinking dispositions are low, and it was determined that there is no significant difference in CCTDI-CV scores between the two groups. However, CCTST results show that the experimental group's critical thinking skills have been significantly developed over the control group after the experiment.

A conclusion can be drawn that SCMC-based peer feedback sufficiently improves learners' communication during the TBLT process, and stimulates learners to think more actively, creatively and critically, and thus proves a better way to the development of learners' critical thinking skills.

As a practice of technology-enhanced TBLT, which has been discussed by Lai & Li (2011), this research reveals that technology not only can enhance learners' language proficiency, but also can develop more important competencies, which are critical thinking skills in this research context.

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Tsun-Ju Lin, Sarah Hsueh-Jui Liu & Yao-Ming Yeh

Kainan University, Taoyuan, Taiwan

tsunjulin@gamil.com - sarah.hjliu@gmail.com - yaomingyeh@gmail.com

Implementation of task-based language teaching through near-field communication technology

Bio data

Tsun-Ju Lin, Sarah Hsueh-Jui Liu, and Yao-Ming Yeh are professors at Kainan University, Taoyuan, Taiwan. Their research interest focuses on second language/foreign language learning strategy use, learner engagement, and computer-assisted and technology-mediated language learning.

Current research

The aim of this research is to investigate English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners' engagement by creating optimal, authentic and meaningful EFL learning environments through employing the mobile devices of the near-field communication (NFC) technology. This current research places an emphasis on the underpinning theories of Complex dynamic systems theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) and task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Skehan, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2007). It involved 6 EFL undergraduate students and 3 facilitators who undertook a series of the research activities, namely, students' personal learning objectives, task engagement survey, semi-structured interview, participatory observation, and teacher's log. The preliminary results derived from the data analysis indicate that the participants had positive perception and attitudes toward learning via the NFC technology in mobile devices which facilitated genuine interaction between the participants. Moreover, TBLT benefits EFL learners in terms of enhancing enjoyment and engagement, providing opportunities for interaction and cooperation with peers and native speakers, and inquiring for meaningful learning, the students to experience what Csikszentmihalyi (1990) calls "flow", referring to an individual's mental state feeling involved and engaged in a given task. This research informs the curriculum of the task-based instruction as well as the suggestions of refining the applications of mobile devices.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Complex dynamic systems theory (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011) provides resourceful insight into the designing and implementing TBLT activities in the mobile learning as it suggests that task design should take into consideration the various factors relating to the learner differences, the impact of the teacher, the peer group, the learning task, the need for all these to interlink with each other and also change in time. As to the dynamic conception, the term "enjoyable and engaged task" needs to provide various motivational factors: "a strong goal, incentive, interest...in constant interaction with the environment..." (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p.247).

Therefore, while designing tasks we first considered individual interest involving learner's curiosity in specific topics. Four theme-based problem-solving situations closely related to student college life were developed. The situations included inquiring about Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) exam information, undergraduate student teaching assistant (TA) job interview, school application, and school gym

membership. Second, we emphasized on providing clear instruction and reaching a goal. Due to that TBLT sequences require clear aims and purposes for each step (Willis & Willis, 2007), the theory's basic requirements, planning pre-task, task cycle, and post-task for each activity were achieved. Take "school gym membership" as an example, during the pre-task, the facilitators first explained the topic and the purpose and process of the task. Then, a short video clip (with English subtitles) and key vocabulary related to the topic were introduced through a mobile device using a wireless network. Pair discussion of the topic and extended vocabulary were conducted to activate learner's background knowledge. The task-cycle required the EFL learners to visit the gym on campus and interview the receptionist (an English native speaker). They were instructed to think what questions to ask, such as how to request a personal tour around, the price of entry fee, etc. The example questions were provided on a NFC tag, but the learners were encouraged to ask additional questions. The learners were also asked to report back on the process and share the outcomes of their tasks online (i.e., gym membership information, audio recordings of the conversation, and photos taken during the process). During the post-task, a reflection of their outcomes and process of their task performance took place in the classroom to highlight language and strategies they were likely to apply outside of the classroom. Finally, best performances were voted by the class, and received incentive gifts intended to increase or sustain their motivation.

It is also important to advocate the role of NFC technology in mobile devices in this study. Such technology has provided the opportunity to design tasks that encourage learners to interact with the environment. In other words, without physically attending certain locations on campus the learners would not be able to complete the assigned tasks. However, the portable tools and resources in the mobile device are still available for the learners to carry around and to perform within various social groups in order to promote effective communication. More information on NEF technology will be presented in the introduction section.

Short paper

Introduction

Advancement of mobile device technology has increasingly influenced contemporary language education. The emergence of a wide range of network-based communication tools such as near-field communication (NFC) technology and cloud computing platform, which enable learners to engage in informal learning settings that operate outside the boundaries of traditional language classrooms (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). NFC is a wireless technology based on Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) and mainly targeted at mobile devices. NFC tags are those like stickers that contain small microchips with writable memory. When a user holds their mobile device close to it, the device reads the data stored in the tag and processes it. The function of NFC technology offers great potential for language learners, as it enables more authentic learning by exploring and creating direct links between physical world and target learning concept (Parton & Hancock, 2008).

As most researchers in CALL area will agree, a well-designed educational technology needs to ground in learning theory and pedagogy. Several studies found that conducting TBLT with technology, which involves authenticity and collaborative elements, has a direct impact on learner participation, engagement, and the amount of negotiation (Peterson, 2012; Thomas & Reinders, 2010). TBLT is "characterized by activities that engage language learners in meaningful, goal-oriented communication to solve problems, complete projects, and research decisions" (Pica, 2008, p. 71). Since TBLT approach has been connected with a wide range of theoretical groundings, such as interactionist theory, sociocultural theories, experiential learning theory, noticing hypothesis, to name a few (Huang, 2011). It is expected that the integration of TBLT approach with NFC

technology will reinforce learners' engagement by creating authentic and meaningful language learning environments.

The concept of complex dynamic systems theory (CDST) was used as the framework of the study. The application of CDST in second language acquisition was pioneered by Larsen-Freeman in 1997. From a dynamic systems perspective, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggested that language learning task should carefully take into consideration the various factors relating to the learner differences, the impact of the teacher, the peer group, the learning task, the need for all these to interlink with each other and also change in time. As to the dynamic conception, task engagement often involves the following components: individuals know they have an ability to control the situation and a chance of completing the task. To reach this goal, facilitators have to ensure that the challenges of the task are balanced with learners' capacity. Additionally, individuals will be able to concentrate on what they are doing because the task provides clear goals and authentic purposes (Egbert, 2003; Lin, 2012).

Given that foreign language learners, especially in countryside, often do not have ready access to a suitable and engaged environment in which to practice and use the target language, the implementation of TBLT with NFC technology has potential to overcome this difficulty by providing an immersive and authentic learning experience. Hence, the purpose of this paper is to investigate English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) learners' engagement through employing TBLT approach with the mobile devices of the NFC technology. Two research questions were addressed in this study: 1) what are the attitudes and perceptions of EFL learners toward task engagement in mobile learning? 2) to what extent do these tasks benefit EFL learners through the NFC technology?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were 6 EFL undergraduate students and 3 facilitators. The learners were English majors who spoke Chinese as their mother tongue in countryside of Taiwan. The facilitators included one professor, one senior undergraduate, and one graduate who played the role of coordinating the group activities, and ensuring the proper functioning of the mobile devices, task completion and time management. The facilitators' perspectives were used to reveal the potential improvements for the design tasks with NFC technology.

Materials and Instruments

The materials and instruments of the research were adopted and described as follows:

1. Students' personal learning objectives: The learning materials of this study were audio recording students' oral interaction with the native speakers; student's reflection on the learning concept and the strategy used while interacting with the native speakers and environment.
2. Task engagement survey: The survey used in this study consisted of components of the criteria of engaging tasks in Lin's (2012) model to measure engagement. It comprised 9 open-ended questions. These questions were related to whether the designed tasks have clear goals, promote depth of cognitive processing, provide opportunity of interaction and collaboration with peers, promote student-centered/authentic approaches to learning, and match the challenges to students' skills, etc.
3. Semi-structured interview: Semi-structured interviews were conducted in areas where there was disagreement among or within groups, especially if the perceptions from the surveys were inconsistent with their behaviors observed during the activities. One-on-one interviews between a student participant and a researcher occurred after the student completed the survey.

4. Participatory observation: Issues of technology usage and the affordance of the campus environment during each student's participation in the tasks with the mobile device were noted to verify participants' explanations of their experiences and clarify specific events and comments. Field notes were written every week to provide a narrative description of student participants' activities and interaction with the mobile device and peers during the observation.
5. Teacher's log: Each facilitator was asked to fill out an online teacher's log after completed the assigned tasks every week. They reflected what the issues observed during the activities and further provided suggestions.

Procedure

This research consisted of 4 tasks taking place between May and June, 2014, lasting for four weeks. As mentioned earlier in the paper, four theme-based tasks with NFC technology on campus were created, included inquiring about TOEIC exam information, undergraduate student TA job interview, school application, and school gym membership. In other words, the student participants needed to physically take part in the designed activities in the given locations on campus in order to complete each assigned task.

In the initial stage, a workshop was held prior to the commencement of the four tasks, and the participating students were introduced to familiarize with the mobile application. During the workshop, a trial task in post office was conducted to ensure the subjects acquainted with the TBLT procedure in the experiment. After the treatment, the student participants were asked to answer a task engagement survey and to be on a one-to-one interview. The facilitators were asked to report their perceptions during the activities in an online teacher's log.

Results and Discussion

The results derived from the data analysis indicate that the participants had positive perceptions and attitudes toward TBLT approach via the mobile devices. The preliminary results regarding to the benefits and future improvements of the designed tasks with NFC technology are organized around five core themes that emerged from the analysis of the data:

Opportunities to set clear goals

The participants consistently reported that clear task instructions of each task sequence step and post-task reflections were the keys to engaging the students to sustain and perhaps continue to set goals throughout the whole learning progress. This makes sense since one often needs explicit guidelines and principles to keep one's behavior on track (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). We believe this result is strongly attributed to the framework of designing TBLT activities that involves: pre-task/priming, task-cycle, and post-task phrase (Willis & Willis, 2007). Notwithstanding the positive results mentioned above, two of the facilitators and one of the student participants suggested that quick assessment tools embedded in NEC tag or mobile application should be developed. That is, the opportunities that allow learners to set a new learning goal in the target language where it is needed to have the function of the assessment tools (e.g., grammar or vocabulary quizzes) in order for students to know what they have acquired and what they need to acquire further.

Student-centered and authentic approaches to learning

As the implementation of TBLT approach with NFC technology, five out of six (83%) student participants perceived that the designed tasks reinforced student-centeredness and provided them with authentic approaches to learning. Owing to the key characteristics of TBLT (e.g., providing real world tasks and meaning focused language use) (Ellis, 2003), the result is to be expected. In addition, the feature of NFC technology simplifying human to environment interaction has strengthened the aspect of creating

authentic learning environment where individuals are encouraged to engage in communication (López-de-Ipiña, Vazquez, & Jamarido, 2007). The preliminary results of this study show that one of the student participants suggested that more real life topics, such as food ordering, shopping, traveling, etc., might be useful to thereby increase the level of task authenticity.

Students' depth of cognitive processing

According to the data analysis, the student participants (n=5, 83%) remarked that the pre-tasks prepared themselves to activate their prior knowledge, and to brainstorm and anticipate potential questions and responses to communicate with English native speakers. During the task-cycle, the face-to-face interaction with the native speakers enhanced their immediate problem-solving skills. According to the engagement researchers, these higher-order thinking activities were the key to developing students' depth of cognitive processing (Floyd et al., 2009; Yang, 2011). Due to the preliminary study, however, two participants suggested to use NFC technology to provide more unexpected situations. For example, while using a mobile device to touch a NFC tag, an unanticipated condition (e.g., a TA position no longer exists but a new position has come available) may occur. To do so, a powerful mobile dictionary application will need to be installed to enable students to immediately search relevant vocabulary or phrases to solve the unexpected situations.

Opportunities for interaction and performance

All the student participants indicated the implementation of TBLT approach with mobile devices provided various opportunities for interacting with peers, native speakers, and environment. Consequently, the designed tasks allows multiple opportunities of producing their knowledge and receiving feedback. Regarding to the performance, although student's language proficiency improvement was not included in the current study, the facilitators have observed the improvement of language use among the student participants between the prior and posterior tasks. A more variety of language learning strategies, vocabulary usage, and more language output were detected.

Match the challenges to students' skills

Three out of six student participants expressed that the tasks were 'suitable and stimulating'; whereas the rest of the student participants indicated negative emotions (e.g., 'nervous' and 'fear') due to little or no prior experiences in interacting with native speakers, difficulty in understanding the native speakers, and no options for Chinese subtitles on the video clips. None of the student participants reported negative perceptions toward the tasks, such as boring, or stressful. According to the flow theory, when the balance between the challenge of the task and an individual's skills mismatches, it can induce students' negative emotions and then negatively affect their corresponding behaviors (Lin, 2012). The result implies that the designed tasks need to involve a gradual process of scaffolding for collaborative interaction with native speakers and to integrate different levels of complexity (e.g., providing options of turning on/off Chinese and English captions on the clips) and time requirements and scaffold them to freely use the target language to communicate with various backgrounds of people.

Conclusion and Future Prospects

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) studied the phenomenon of enjoyment and engagement. According to him, engagement "... is a condition that must be prepared for, cultivated, and defended privately by each person" (p. 2). This preliminary study of implementing TBLT instruction with NEC technology has shed lights on creating a potential educational environment which allows EFL learners in countryside to practice, use the target language, and enhance their learning experiences. Analysis of the data reveals that the designed tasks have clear goals, provide opportunity of interaction and collaboration with peers, and promote authentic approaches to learning. Therefore, students were motivated to focus on the target language and engaged in the autonomous learning of vocabulary and phrases in an effort to communicate information they perceived to be

important. Nevertheless, in order for students to be engaged by the approach, educators must carefully consider the factor of matching the challenges to students' skills. As a result, conducting TBLT approach with NFC technology in a mobile device must be designed with a wider range of real-life topics, language proficiency levels, and more powerful self-assessment and mobile dictionary applications.

As the results shown in the current study, future research is suggested to refine the design tasks, NFC tag information, and mobile applications mentioned above. We believe that TBLT approach with NFC technology empowered the student participants by awakening their social interaction with peers, native speakers, and physical environment surrounding them. The continuing exploration in TBLT with NEF technology will lead to the development of invaluable perspectives about and methods of language development.

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Xavier Martin-Rubio

Universitat de Lleida, Lleida, Spain

xabierm@dal.udl.cat

Improving spoken interaction in the foreign language through video-recorded group oral reviews of films

Bio data

Xavier Martin-Rubio holds degrees in English Philology and Audiovisual Communication. After more than a decade teaching at different educational levels, he is currently working as a full-time lecturer at Universitat de Lleida. His interests include the relationship between language ideology and national identity with language use and language learning, and the role of audiovisual material in the process of learning an additional language.

Current research

Since June 2014 I am participating in a research project entitled "Interculturality, European citizenship and English as a lingua franca: between policies and practices in university international mobility programmes." The aim of the project is to analyze the Erasmus experience of students from two Catalan universities, focusing on their intercultural awareness, language skills and repertoires and their sense of belonging. The project has a quantitative and a qualitative section, and my current job, within the qualitative section, is to apply Membership Categorization Analysis (Housley and Fitzgerald, 2002; Roca-Cuberes, 2008) combined with Frame Analysis (Tannen and Wallat, 1987) to the data collected, mostly group discussions and ethnographic interviews.

Parallel to this, I teach (amongst other subjects) a subject in English in the first year of the degree Audiovisual Communication and Journalism. I have taught this subject for a few years now, and I have kept trying out new tasks and approaches in it to maximize the results from the students. The aim of the subject is twofold: helping students consolidate a B1 level of English and providing them with tools to carry out tasks like subtitling or reviewing a film, write summaries of articles, taking notes from a talk and turning these notes into an article, and so on.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This presentation addresses two of the questions of the conference announcement: 1) how do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?, and 2) How does technology impact on non-technological tasks?

The subject (English Applied to Scientific Communication) is a 7,5-ECTS-credit year-1 compulsory subject for students of Audiovisual Communication and Journalism at Universitat de Lleida. There are two types of sessions in the course. Lectures with all the students (between 60 and 75 these last few years) and seminars with half of the class. I have always carried out the seminar sessions in the computer lab. What student do in the seminars accounts for 20% of the final grade, but in this case it is not so much the final product that is evaluated, as it is their progress and their implication. They take three tests and hand in two short essays where only performance is assessed and which

accounts, altogether, for the other 80% of the grade. The seminars are the part of the course where they just have to show they are progressing and doing their best.

One of the tasks we have carried out this year in the seminars had the following structure; STEP 0: Students organized in groups of 4, picked a film that they could see in the cinema, saw the film during the weekend, took notes from the perspective of a film reviewer, and came to the session with the notes; STEP 1: A camcorder would be awaiting them and their group oral review (of between 10 and 12 minutes) was video-recorded. Meanwhile, their classmates would be taking notes and creating a joint review from the main ideas of the different participants; STEP 2: The members of each group capture, edit and render their video in a specific mp4 format and upload it into the degree's website; STEP 3: They transcribe what they have said and create (using www.dotsub.com or Subtitle Worskhop) an .srt file with the subtitles.

This task is authentic because it is a genuine group review of a real film; it is meaningful because there are people whose job it is to produce this kind of review; it is useful because it can help other people decide whether the film is worth seeing; and it is potentially enjoyable because for those in the AVC&J business watching a film and giving their opinion about it in group is always fun. Some students find it burdensome, but it's always because they have to do it in English, and these are students with difficulties with the speaking interaction skill.

The task also combines a non-technological task (talking in group about different aspects of a film) with technological ones (video manipulation, creation of subtitles, uploading the material, and so on). The main advantage of the use technology is that it allows the students to revise and analyze what they have done: How does one subtitle a word what is a mixture of Catalan and English? Do we want to caption or subtitle the video? How are non-standard pronunciations or code-switching reflected in the subtitled? And not just about the form but also the content. Others can watch the video, watch the film being reviewed, and discuss the review with the reviewers! I am sure new ideas will drive from this task.

Short paper

English-medium teaching in European universities has grown exponentially in the last 15 years or so (Coleman, 2006: 6). Ritzen (2004: 33) argues that "increasingly more universities are offering programmes wholly or partly in a foreign language, almost always English." This, however, coexists with programmes in which the presence of English is minimal. This is the case of the Audiovisual Communication and Journalism degree at *Universitat de Lleida*, in which only one subject is delivered entirely in English, and where only three other compulsory subjects (out of 22) employ English to some extent, mostly in the form of reading or audiovisual material in English. It is worth pointing out that year-1 students of the degree in the 2014-2015 academic year are subject to the new regulation by the Catalan government that asks for these students to certify a B2 level of a third language before completion of the degree. Students who started last year or before are asked to certify a B1 level.

The name of this English-medium subject is English Applied to Scientific Communication. This is a subject with a double goal: 1) to certify students have a B1 level of English; 2) to prepare students to use English for scientific research (finding, reading, understanding and integrating knowledge from scientific articles into their essays, for instance). The approach I have followed these last years in the subject has been to devise small tasks that force students to use the language for useful and real-life purposes. There are tasks that have worked effectively and that have thus been maintained and tasks that haven't and that have given space to new tasks.

The purpose of this presentation is twofold. On the one hand, I would like to show the design of the task, the instructions given to the students, the sequentiality of the steps they had to follow, and the results obtained (in terms of number of successful final products). On the other hand, I would like to look into the three totally successful products: the group film reviews of the films "War Horse", "Sex Tape" and "The Judge", that will be coded WH, ST and TJ, including the subtitles of the videos. In Table 1 below the codes for the participants in the videos and the length of each video is specified.

Table 1: Information about videos

Video	Participants	Length
WH	ASI, BLA, IAR and CBO	11m 27s
ST	BCH, NZU, OLA and OMA	9m 31s
TJ	ACA, GDI, JDE, SGU	11m 6s

The purpose of the task was to generate a space where students would be encouraged to talk spontaneously about the film they are reviewing; a space where one participant expresses an opinion of which the other participants have no previous knowledge, so that they have to react to that opinion with their own positions towards it. This is something that cannot be achieved in oral presentations, a task typically asked of students, but that addresses a very different skill. So the first step in the analysis is to see to what extent the language used in the videos is truly spontaneous.

Another goal pursued in the task was to get them to employ technical language and to provide technical analyses of the films. The idea is not to simply state whether they liked the film or not: they are supposed to back their claims with solid arguments in relation to the plot, the acting, the setting, the soundtrack, the length, and so on. Here, though, they have to do it in a language that is not their mother tongue, so my intention is to analyze the range and adequacy of vocabulary they use, and the way in which they construct the arguments to back their claims.

A third item is the editing of the video itself. These are year-1 students, but nowadays that doesn't mean they have never edited a video. There are those who haven't and those who've been doing it for years, and since these are groups of four, there are all sorts of combinations. Some groups add the names of the participants or clips and/or images of the original film, other don't, but my focus will be on the editing of the discussion that constitutes the film review; on how it flows or fails to flow and thus shows gaps or abrupt jumps.

The final aspect concerns the subtitles. Students were asked to transcribe the video and then generate subtitles. This entails taking many decisions that can signal awareness (or lack thereof) of the adequacy of the expressions used. As an example, BCH says in second 15 of ST: "what do you think about the argument of the film?", and the subtitles add inverted commas to the word "argument". This signals the subtitler realized the word 'argument' was not the most adequate in this context ('plot' would be better). The word "paper" (for 'role') suffers the same treatment, if not systematically, but there are other types of mistakes (such as lack of number concordance) that are not signaled in the subtitles.

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Martha Mendez

Universidad EAN, Bogota, Colombia

marthamendezb@gmail.com - mmendez2.d@ean.edu.co

Immersive learning and collaborative work in foreign language learning for developing intercultural competences in virtual worlds**Bio data**

A dedicated teacher of teachers, an English language teacher and a course designer; an expert in planning, designing, implementing, and evaluating English teaching programs, and in ESP and in Virtual course design and management. Associate researcher in New pedagogical trends research group acknowledged by COLCIENCIAS , Colombia. Research Project advisor and evaluator. Master's in TEFL and in Applied Linguistics to English as a foreign language. Universidad de Jaén, Spain

Current research

This project presents a study on collaborative work and immersive learning through a Virtual World for developing language and intercultural competences. This study is being performed in the Faculty of Online Education in a Colombian University and its target population is a group of online undergraduate students of Modern Languages who live in a monolingual environment but need to develop speaking skills and intercultural competences in several foreign languages. According to the social-cultural and constructivist approach, meanings and understandings grow out of social encounters. Therefore, this study examines issues concerning the theory and practice of collaborative and immersive learning as well as the educational use of Virtual worlds to enable the learner to develop language skills and intercultural competences through task-based activities, case study discussions as the main learning strategies.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Theories of social-cultural constructivism, constructivism, immersive learning, and collaborative work give the ground to the design of the tasks and activities set as part of the learning strategies supported by a virtual world. Considering some authors related to language teaching, Skehan (1998) states that tasks have a goal to be achieved, an activity that evaluates the outcome, a meaning and it is related to the real-world context. Candlin and Murphy (1987) assert that tasks can be effectively organized based on systematic components including goals, input, setting, activities, roles, and feedback.

Regarding case study as a learning strategy, the learner faces the description of a specific situation that proposes a problem. This problem must be understood, evaluated and solved by a group of students through a discussion process. Fry et al (1999) describe case studies as complex examples which give an insight into the context of a problem as well as illustrating the main point.

Collaborative learning is one of the approaches taken to determine the kind of tasks and activities proposed in this study, Dooly, M. (2008) arguments that "Collaboration entails the whole process of learning. This may include students teaching one another, students teaching the teacher, and of course the teacher teaching the students, too. students

are responsible for one another's learning as well as their own and that reaching the goal implies that students have helped each other to understand and learn".(Chapter 1). Virtual worlds (VW) offer interaction facilitated by computers and environments that make the multiusers feel the sensation of being in a real world as they have a concrete presence in the virtual reality(VR). Robbins-Bell (2008) defines VW as a synchronous, persistent network of people who interact in artificial environments through agents that take action named avatars.

For the purpose of this study, the previous framework provides the meaningful insights to determine the goals, the input data, the settings, the types of activities, the roles, and the feedback in the activities to be fulfilled by the students inside the virtual world to enhance users' engagement and learning.

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Pilar Munday & Jaya Kannan

Sacred Heart University, Fairfield, United States

mundayp@sacredheart.ed - kannanj@sacredheart.edu

Task design challenges: the meta task of building PLNs for foreign language acquisition

Bio data

Pilar Munday is an Associate Professor of Spanish at Sacred Heart University. She received a BA in English Philology from the Universidad de Granada (Spain) and a Ph.D. in Theoretical Linguistics from New York University. Her teaching covers all aspects and levels of the Spanish Language, including Spanish Phonetics, Linguistics and Culture. Her research includes uses of technology in modern foreign language instruction.

Jaya Kannan is the Director of Digital Learning at Sacred Heart University. She has a PhD in Computer Assisted Language Learning and more than 15 years of international teaching and research experience in the higher education setting. Her recent research interests involve the study of self-directed learning and the role of affect in the digital learning environment.

Current research

Our latest collaborative research has primarily focused on studying challenges for digital pedagogy in promoting active learning and learner autonomy. These action research projects have been anchored in foreign language contexts in higher education settings. Here is a summary of two projects from 2014-2015:

1) With the goal of enhancing teaching practices in foreign language classrooms, the research project analyzed the use of student created videos to promote active learning. Using a case study of concrete tasks integrating student created videos in strengthening Spanish Language Acquisition (SLA), we were able to a) identify key characteristics of active learning, b) present the challenges involved for pedagogical design in integrating student created videos and c) describe the shift in the learner's role from passive receiver to co-creator and contributor.

(2) This project identified key issues in achieving learner autonomy by studying how to integrate cloud technology tools such as Google+ communities and Instagram into an undergraduate online Spanish course. In studying the complexity of a networked learning environment, we researched the following factors: high variability among learners, design of learning spaces, digital discourse for community building, and the role of the teacher in facilitating learning using cloud technology tools.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Taking up the test case of a Spanish undergraduate course that used a Task Based Learning approach within a digital environment, we will explore the following challenges for digital pedagogy: 1) How do we decide on task types? 2) How do we shape the tasks? 3) How do we monitor and evaluate these tasks?

For an online Spanish Course, *Advanced Grammar and Culture through Social Media*, this “meta” task was designed: For their final project, students had to present a Personal Learning Network (PLN) they had developed to augment their knowledge of the culture and language of the Spanish speaking world. Although most students in the course successfully completed the task of arriving at a PLN, students faced challenges in building the steps involved because of the non-linear and unique path in each student's process of creating a PLN. How to give equal importance to the individualized process and the creation of a concrete product? This was our major challenge when applying a task based learning approach.

To explore concrete strategies to address the question about effective design of task types, we applied the model described by Samuda and Bygate (2008) “A task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both” (p. 69). During the course of the semester, students were made aware of different “nodes” that they could add to the PLN, such as different social networks, MOOCs in Spanish, websites with communities of learners, etc. At the same time, they were also reviewing advanced grammar topics in Spanish by doing focus-on-form type exercises.

In shaping the task and guiding the students through the developmental process, the Need Analysis pattern for technology mediated TBLL described in Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega (2014) was highly relevant. According to the Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega model, language tasks and technology tasks are of the same importance. When this learning principle was integrated within our task design, students shaped the creation of the PLN by 1) learning to select the suitable technology features within Google Plus and Instagram to gradually develop their PLN and 2) overcoming the hurdles for access and 3) harnessing them effectively for strengthening Spanish language learning.

An in-depth investigation of the interactional patterns within the meta task showed that the digital discourse of students with their peers, with the instructor, and with external agencies showed very high variability. Poor feedback loops and lack of cooperative learning emerged as key issues.

In our presentation we will examine these three pedagogical questions cited above through the lens of data from student learning. Examples from student PLNs will highlight the finding that merely setting up a task and creating an online shared space may not be enough to ensure real language acquisition. Specific strategies will be presented from this test case to enhance motivation and participation when designing meta tasks.

Short paper

Introduction

Students in a Spanish undergraduate course were assigned the task of developing a Personal Learning Network (PLN), with the goal of strengthening language learning by linking several tasks to build a meta-task. Integrating a PLN can be an effective task-based approach because PLNs provide an optimal learning model for language learning by connecting learners with peers, the instructor, and open education resources. Connected networks are essential for language learning. The manner in which the instructor designs, implements, and allows for self-regulation through the process of developing the PLN affects student learning. When this meta-task positions the student in the dual roles of creator and contributor to a PLN, it is the learner who drives the learning process to meet his/her goal.

In this paper, we will take up the test case of a Spanish undergraduate course that used a Task Based Learning (TBL) approach within a digital environment, and will explore the

following challenges for digital pedagogy: 1) How do we decide on task types? 2) How do we shape the tasks? 3) How do we monitor and evaluate these tasks?

Teaching Scenario for Task Based Learning

In an online Spanish Course, *Advanced Grammar and Culture through Social Media*, the instructor designed the following “meta” task: as their final project, students had to present a Personal Learning Network (PLN) that they had developed to augment their knowledge of the culture and language of the Spanish speaking world. Although most students in the course successfully completed the task of arriving at a PLN, students faced challenges at various points because of the non-linear and unique path in each student's process of creating a PLN. Thus our major challenge when applying a task based learning approach was the question of how to give equal importance to the individualized process and the creation of a concrete product.

Understanding this final project requires a review of the course itself. The syllabus for this advanced Spanish course can be viewed at <https://tackk.com/SP299OLF14>. The course had three main objectives: (1) to achieve a higher level of proficiency in Spanish by reviewing advanced grammar topics, which were practiced via social media; (2) to be able to reflect on both the advanced grammar as well as the social and cultural aspects learned throughout the course in a personal, public blog where students commented on each other's posts; and (3) to identify some key concepts related to digital citizenship, such as digital footprint, content curation, privacy and ethics and develop their own personal learning network to be used to augment their knowledge of the culture and language of the Spanish speaking world.

Figure 1 shows the workflow of the course. The course had three main areas: (1) the advanced grammar review; (2) six modules about the concepts related to digital citizenship and lifelong learning; and (3) a group project for which students had to study different social media tools in relation to learning Spanish. For (1), we used an online advanced Spanish grammar book (<http://www.bowdoin.edu/~eyepes/newgr/ats/>) (Yepes, 2008), and students had to review some items of the grammar every week. Then they had to find appropriate examples of the studied grammar as used by native speakers in social media, and post these in our discussion board (we used Google Plus for this purpose). For (2), students had approximately two weeks to research the topics for each of the six modules, complete the assignments (which could range from investigating different social networks in Spanish speaking countries to Massive Online Learning Courses offered in Spanish, to give two examples), comment their findings on our Google Plus community, and finally write a reflection blog post in which they were supposed to also add some examples of the grammar studied. Students also had to read and comment on two of their peers' blogs. Finally, for the group project (3), students created presentations showing how to learn and practice Spanish using social media.

During the semester, the instructor conducted weekly Hangouts through Google Plus. Each student was required to participate in at least two of these. Because Hangouts are saved to YouTube, they were used mainly as a reference for students on how to perform the assigned projects or tasks.

As shown in Figure 1, all of these activities were supposed to help students embark on their final project, the creation of their own PLN.

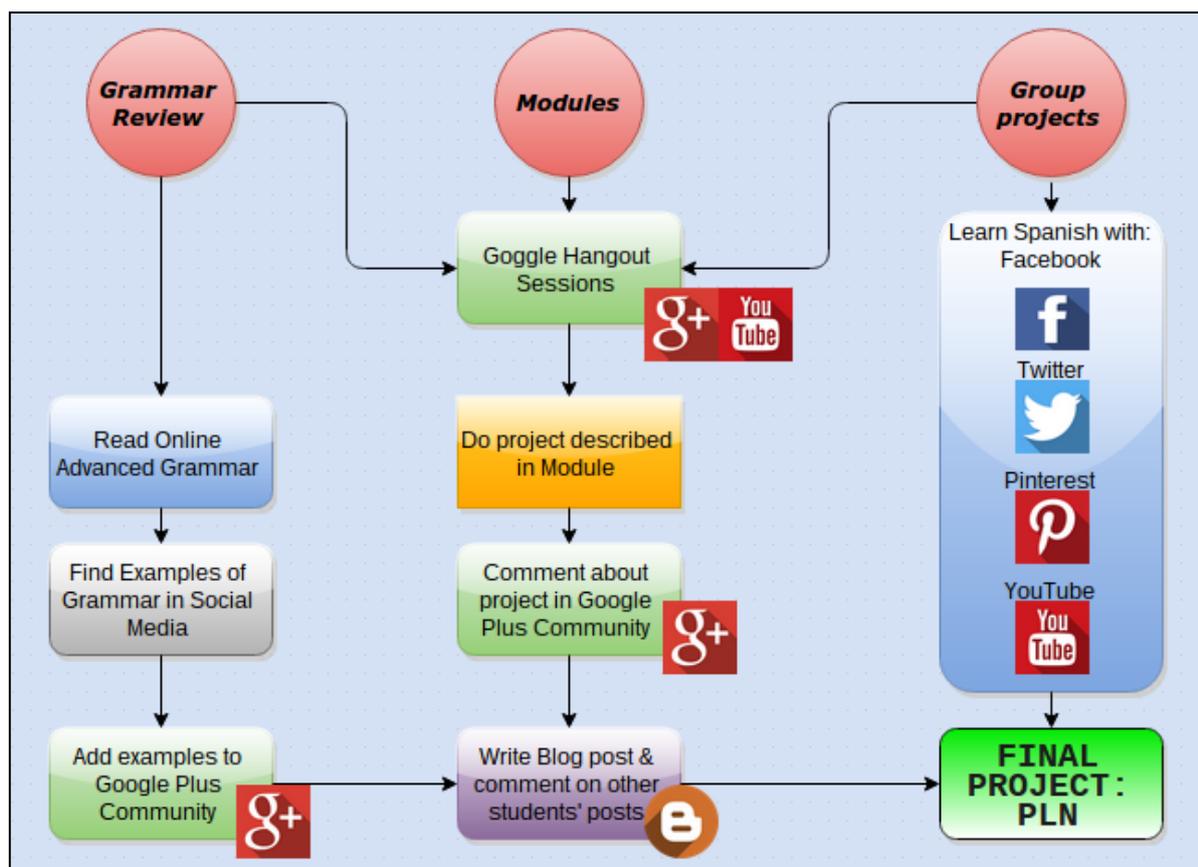


Figure 1: Workflow of class

How do we decide on task types?

The above description of the teaching scenario clearly shows that the use of a PLN served as a meta-task, understood here in the way described by Worchel and Simpson, 1993, as a task that deals with other tasks. In this case, the meta-task included a complex combination of tasks that involved the process of exploring several social media tools through the vehicle of Spanish language learning. This process resulted in a concrete product wherein each student arrived at his or her own customized PLN. To address the high level of variability among the students in the course, the task was set up in such a way that each and every student was viewed as a unique learner driving his or her own individual path of learning. Therefore, this task provided a suitable learning ground for the students in the course to operate as connected learners as they went through the process of building the PLN, and yet enabled them to create a PLN product that was individualized. A balance between the student's role of connected knower and creator of an original PLN to meet one's own learning needs was well achieved.

In exploring concrete strategies to address the question of how to effectively design task types, we applied the model described by Samuda and Bygate (2008): "A task is a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both" (p. 69). With this definition in mind, the instructor created the following task:

- **HOLISTIC ACTIVITY** → Creation of a Personal Learning Network or environment to foster the acquisition of Spanish. It is considered "holistic" because it is composed of parts or nodes which are understood as part of a whole system. For example, Twitter by itself is a social network, but in this case it can be a vehicle for language learning where students connect with native speakers, which can lead to further collaboration through other tools such as Skype or YouTube.

- ENGAGE LANGUAGE USE → Students used only Spanish to navigate the different subtasks involved. They were required to use the target language at all times when asking questions to the instructor, sharing their findings through their blog posts, and commenting on other students' work.
- NON-LINGUISTIC OUTCOME → Each student would be able to “show” a unique PLN, which could be used in the future. Figure 2 shows an example from one of our students. The student used a tool she liked, Symbaloo, to put together the “nodes” of her PLN, creating an online place where she could go directly to language learning websites such as Duolingo, research a question on vocabulary or grammar in WordReference.com, check the news about her favorite Spanish soccer team, etc. The process by which she created this “platform” for her Spanish needs could also be used for other subjects in the future, and not be limited merely to language learning.
- LINGUISTIC CHALLENGE → Students had to practice advanced Spanish grammar points while navigating social networks, websites, MOOCS in Spanish, discussion boards with communities of learners, etc. which could become possible nodes for their own PLN in the final project.

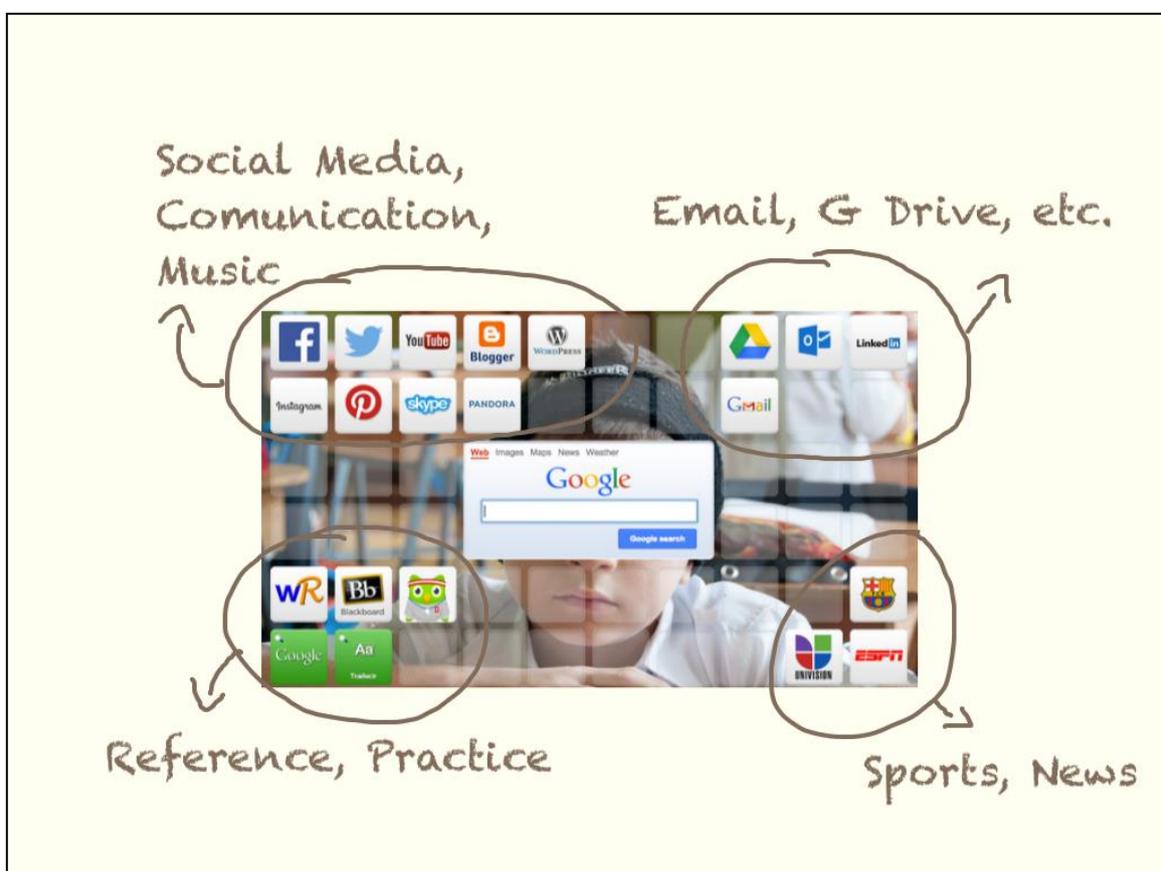


Figure 2: An example of a student PLN

How do we shape the task?

The Need Analysis pattern described in Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega (2014) for technology-mediated, task-based language learning is highly relevant to shaping the task and guiding the students through the developmental process. According to the Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega model, language tasks and technology tasks are of the same importance. With this Need Analysis (NA) system, students can offer insights into what kind of social media they already use and why they use it. They can also share subjects that are of interest to them for their future professions and how some of the websites seen in class can help them advance their Spanish in that field. In Figure 3, we see one student reflecting on a MOOC (Massive Online Open Course) she found that related to vision care. She wants to be an optometrist, and in her reflection she mentions that this course can

teach her specific vocabulary in Spanish that no other course in our university could ever cover (highlighted parts in Figure 3).

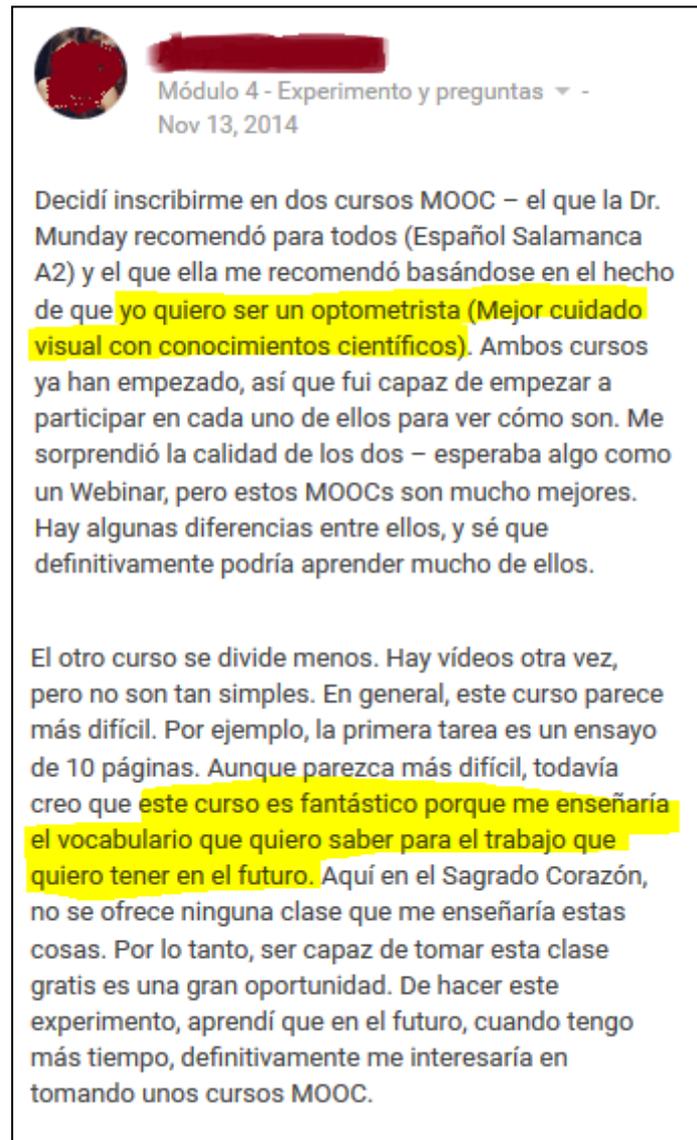


Figure 3: A student's reflection about a MOOC in Spanish and how it can help her in her professional life.

These NA activities should actually be conducted throughout the course in different forms such as surveys, discussion board posts like the one shown in Figure 3, and even conversations, which in the case of this online class took place as video chats conducted using Google Hangouts. Chart 1 presents a summary of possible NA activities (with tools) that can help shape the task. By monitoring student learning needs in this way, we can link the task more closely to learner motivation.

Need Analysis Activities	Tool	Rationale
Survey to establish knowledge and participation about Social Networks	Google Form	Gauge student interest, mastery about these networks in native language
Discussion about different websites	Google Plus Communities	Students can start learning about their own interests
Video interviews with instructor and students to discuss activities to be completed	Google Hangouts	Students can ask questions about elements of activity which are not clear. Video can be posted on class website to clarify activities

Chart 1: Need Analysis Possibilities

When this NA learning principle was integrated within our task design, students shaped the creation of the PLN by 1) learning to select the suitable technology features within the tools seen in class (such as Google Plus or Twitter) in order to gradually develop their PLN, and 2) harnessing them effectively to strengthen Spanish language learning.

How do we monitor and evaluate the tasks?

Assessment of learning involved continuous loops of the following - 1) query from instructor to verify learning, 2) response from student through the task of communication within the Google Plus communities or demonstration of learning through the task submission, and 3) feedback from the instructor to clarify, provide intervention, or guide the student forward in the process of developing the PLN. Several elements of self-regulation were observed in all of these activities. Self-regulated learning is the "process of taking control of and evaluating one's own learning behaviour." (Ormrod, 2009, p. 105). Students had several opportunities to clarify instructions through Google hangout sessions or commenting or checking the instructor's feedback via the Google plus communities. In one instance, a student posted his exercise on the online language learning site called Duolingo in order to obtain feedback on the correctness of his work before submitting his work for the course. This specific example highlights the fact that the student could draw upon a distributed network of expertise for learning rather than relying upon the teacher as the sole authority for Spanish language acquisition. Exposure to Duolingo earlier in the course had enabled the student to apply PLNs as a meaningful model for anchoring the language learning experience within a global sociocultural context. The fact that learners engage with PLNs and go outside the formal Course Management System (CMS), has "caused a new wave of distributed education and yet another paradigm shift in the delivery of learning experiences." (Shepard, 2012. P.128).

Overall Challenges

Although we believe this task has ample pedagogical value, we did find some challenges during the course of its implementation, which are listed here:

- **Prior knowledge:** Students were not familiar with the creation of a PLN for language learning, even though they have been using social networks. They were also not very familiar with, or had difficulty accessing, some of the tools used in the course, such as Google Hangouts, Google Presentations, or Instagram.
- **Timeline:** Although the tasks were designed to be developmental in nature, students were required to create the PLN as a product by the end of the course. This was a flawed approach because students arrived at a PLN, but then didn't have enough opportunity to use the PLN for language learning within the framework and timeline of the course.
- **Putting together all the elements of the tasks:** Students had to review grammar, look up examples of that grammar problem in social media, and then become familiar with the social media itself. Students showed difficulty in making

connections between the different elements and understanding the holistic framework of the PLN.

- Comprehension of task instructions, all of which were in Spanish: This added to the complexity of the task, as there were many levels of navigation - 1-grammar, 2-social networks, and 3-comprehension of instructions in Spanish. The work within the tasks got incrementally more complex.
- Monitoring and evaluating the task: Continuity of feedback loops was not effective because feedback pertained to each sub-task and didn't carry through to the next task. This resulted in some loss of communication. Students failed to see the holistic framework of the PLN when the logical links between the tasks and the overall framework of networked learning were not understood. For example, students had the option to seek feedback before posting on the blog, but only 10% of the students took advantage of this option. Response from the student survey clearly indicated that the limited time and the lack of incentives were two factors that were an obstacle to them seeking feedback for useful intervention.

Evidence of Learning

Despite these challenges, the effectiveness of the TBL approach was clearly evident. 95% of the students in the course had successfully created a PLN by the end of the term. How they strengthened their learning of Spanish by both creating and contributing to a PLN was demonstrated in different ways:

- Students' grammar clearly improved by the end of the semester, as evidenced by the writing in their blog posts. Students were using more complex sentences, including correct use of the subjunctive and other topics discussed in class.
- In their blog post reflections, students described which elements they chose for their final PLNs and why. For example, several students picked Duolingo (and its discussion boards) as a "place" to not only review Spanish, but also to make connections to other language learners.
- The four group presentations created regarding the use of social media for learning Spanish were used by the rest of students to add different blocks to their own PLNs.

This set the stage for students to develop as autonomous learners well beyond the timeline and scope of this course.

Given our study of this course, we have arrived at several strategies for applying the task of creating a PLN in a FL classroom:

- Be flexible: Use the Need Analysis as described above both before and during the course to adapt modules/projects as needed to meet your students' needs.
- Ask students to present their PLN not as final task, but at some point during the course, probably after two-thirds of the course has been completed. This will allow students to actually "use" their PLN and reflect upon this use with their peers. The students could then tweak their own PLNs accordingly.
- Be mindful of continuity: In our course, students had strict weekly deadlines, and thus did not go back to post in a forum if the deadline had passed. This also meant, however, that they could not share new discoveries with peers, either about samples of grammar usage or about possible nodes for their PLN.
- Give more value to "responses" to discussion boards or blog posts. As described above, the instructor often did not receive a response when she made a comment, and therefore did not know if her feedback had been even seen.

Conclusions

As a conceptual framework, PLNs can strengthen language learning because they are built on the foundation of connectedness. This case study presents the importance of pedagogical design when setting up meta-tasks that promote higher-order learning.

Despite the challenges involved in designing and implementing the task, the applicability of this model is worthy of further study.

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Alma Ortiz

Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México, México, México

alma.ortiz@cele.unam.mx

An online course in language testing for in service teachers of English: how important are task instructions?

Bio data

Masters in Applied Linguistics, full time teacher over more than 30 years in the Center of Foreign Language Teaching at UNAM-Mexico. Teaches Evaluation and Research Methodology in the Masters Program in Applied Linguistics. Has designed three online courses for teachers on reading comprehension, blended learning and language learning. She is the author of various articles on her main research areas.

Current research

This paper explores the importance of instructions in a task-based online course for in-service teachers learning how to design tests for their L2 classes. Writing instructions for an online course differs from face-to-face interaction in a content course for in-service teachers. While in face-to-face situations, the instructor can explain the task, or paraphrase the instructions if not understood, in an online course instructions have to describe the task clearly, describe the process the participants have to follow in order for them to achieve the task's goal. This paper is based on the piloting of the course named "Evaluación educativa: diseño de exámenes" (Educational testing: exam construction). The aim of the course is to guide teachers in the construction of a language exam with rigorous criteria from the start. Seven teachers were invited to trial the site, answer the questionnaires and tasks, and participate in the different types of activities. They had to follow, with a critical mind and eye, the various Units in the course in order to validate it before offering it to the target population. The procedure went well, the only concern these teachers had was in terms of the instructions. The teachers interpreted some course tasks instructions in different ways. This paper presents these interpretations and gives suggestions on how to write clear online task instructions more accurately.

Task design & language learning and teaching

In order to answer the questions, first of all one has to define what 'task' means, or how is interpreted by the members of your working team. This has been a problem in itself when consulting the different experts in the field, early controversies were divided by the practicality in the term itself, for Johnson (2003) it was a synonym of "activity" or of "exercise"; the other position was seen by the theoretical scope of the term. Littlewood defines it in terms of the depth in understanding the task involvement and the focus of the task meaning (2004:320), and thus offers a term "enabling tasks" that suits the scope of our research and design. We also found the definition of task offered by Klapper useful: . . . meaning-based activities closely related to learners' actual communicative needs and with some real-world relationship, in which learners have to achieve a genuine outcome . . .and in which effective completion of the task is accorded priority. (In Rossel-Aguilar (2003: 419).

The course we are describing is not a language course but it is meant for foreign language teachers learning how to design exams for their students. From the theme of

the conference we can ascribe to tasks or activities focusing on the outcome to promote communication but having 'testing' as the main topic.

Another concept that we had to define clearly was "design". If the design of the course is not sound, or does not reflect your concept of learning, the tasks lose their effectiveness and impact. Therefore, a successful design will promote creativity, authenticity and reflect validity to users. As Felix mentions, course designers are invited "...to create learning environments in which an imaginative teacher can set up authentic learning tasks and collaborative projects, in which both the processes and the goals are stimulating and engaging." (2003:9).

We conceived the design not separated from the tasks; *"users should be able to perform the tasks conceived by the designer through their interaction with the system image, since it would convey the designer's model"* (Hémard 2003:24). If the bond is broken, then the task and the design will fail to offer an authentic and useful learning situation. When course designers conceive the design as the context where users can interact and learn from, then users will be able to communicate through their new meaning in the specific situation and enjoy the outcome.

Ideally, participants in any course should be asking themselves questions while doing the tasks; questions like: what do I need to know? What did I did wrong? Why did I get it right? How am I doing? What happens next if I make this decision? (Bangs 2003:83), through this process the entire building up of knowledge is best accomplished.

Short paper

This paper presents some of the difficulties found in transforming successful face-to-face activities in a Testing course into an online task-based opportunity for in-service teachers of a foreign language. Based on results found in its piloting stage we will show how important written instructions are in an online course to avoid problems in the understanding and development of the designed tasks. The course can be visited in *Evaluación Educativa: diseño de exámenes*. <http://ced.cele.unam.mx/evaluacion/>

The course design relays in activities that can contribute to the final product: the first draft of a language test. The course balances theoretical as well as practical approaches in constructing an exam. As the end product of the course participants will have to determine the target population for their exam, its function, the language level of the exam, have to choose the skill or skills they want to test; they will have to present a professional blue print of this first draft at the end of the course.

The academic team has had at least 10 years of experience in teaching testing to in-service teachers of a foreign language, full time teachers, members of testing committees; and being teachers of Testing in the Teacher's Training Diploma the Center offers yearly. Due to the impact of new technologies as a way to reach a wider audience without the restrictions of a collegiate syllabus, we decided to offer the information through an online course. The syllabus of this course reflects the syllabus in the teacher's course; in the future participants could opt for the traditional classes or the online course.

The tasks were designed as authentic instances of stages in the construction of exams. The theoretical information and accompanying readings were evaluated through different ludic tasks. The course activities are examples of gradual steps that can contribute to the final product: the first draft of a language test. We subscribe to Klapper's definition of task: "... meaning-based activities closely related to learners' actual communicative needs and with some real-world relationship, in which learners have to achieve a genuine

outcome ...' and in which effective completion of the task produces comprehensible output. (in Rossel-Aguilar (2003: 419).

In the construction of the course, we thought of the tasks as a whole, to reflect the theories of learning that are current and in the context where they will be used. (Rossel-Aguilar 2003). In this context, we were aiming for a constructivist approach with communication as a main goal, not in terms of foreign language teaching but in terms of conveying the information to construct a language exam. When consulting references in the field (Chapelle, Bangs, Nunan) recommendations read usually in terms of writing authentic, imaginative and communicative tasks; authors do not mention how to achieve these, least of all the specific steps on how to do it or how to write a cohesive, understandable rubric for participants to willingly make the tasks their own and therefore follow the process and accomplish the task creatively too. Thus course designers had to rely on their previous experience.

The platform used is Moodle and it suggests by default some activities to communicate between tutor and participants: mail, and forum. The technological team worked along the academic team in order to make the site friendly, their advice in making tasks fun and memorable was highly appreciated. They recommended popular activities in the web: short quizzes, hot potatoes, puzzles, and so on. Nevertheless, the tasks were balanced in terms of writing short descriptions, the use of Excel to concentrate information, sending participants to find adequate references in the web. The academic team was very conscious of organizing the tasks in a coherent but creative path to achieve the main goal of the course, to design the first draft of a language test. The fact that the course will be online was carefully considered in transforming successful face-to-face activities.

Trialling was implemented as one of the stages before offering the course to the target population, we asked seven experienced teachers to analyze the course. The teachers selected had previously shown interest and knowledge in writing tests. Three of them have a Masters in Applied Linguistics, three of them took the Teacher's Course in the institution, all of them are in-service teachers, two have taken on-line courses and three of them are currently teaching through the web, they teach English, French, Italian and Greek as a foreign language.

Every task was conceived as a complete unit; therefore, they were written in terms of explaining the task as clearly as possible, describing the process the participants have to follow in order for them to present the expected product. The academic team could envision problems where participants have to describe their specific working situation; the use of Excel to present this particular situation; and when we ask them to separate from the whole group to work in their individual projects (exams). The tutor has to monitor four separate groups where participants can communicate with him/her and with the other participants, however, as they are working with individual projects they cannot share specific information with each other. For instance when selecting a written text or audio text for their exam, they could share where they found the text, but not the text itself.

One of the surprising results found in the piloting stage was the problem in understanding the instructions of the tasks. Not only in the expected problematic areas. Broadly the comments of the teachers were that certain instructions were:

- very simple and therefore made the participants miss the importance of the task,
- they were linked to other instructions in the same activity, but were not perceived as complete,
- they were linked to 'buttons' where participants had to send their comments or written activities but instructions and 'buttons' did not share the same names,

- simply not clear, particularly in the case where participants had to choose only one of the streams in order to design an exam.

In spite of this, these teachers did not express frustration or disappointment. However, in a real scenario, each participant has to face the site and tasks alone and clear instructions must help him/her to accomplish the tasks without confusion. This could avoid the feeling of isolation of the distance learner. Examples of these misunderstandings will be shown and clarified in the presentation along with the types of tasks in the online course.

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Cristina Palomeque* & Joan-Tomàs Pujolà**

Universitat de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain*

University of Edingburgh, Edingburgh, United Kingdom**

cristina.palomeque@gmail.com - jtpujola@ub.edu

Analyzing MUVE tasks in action

Bio data

Cristina Palomeque is a PhD student currently undergoing research on the study of communication strategies in the 3D virtual world of Second Life. She taught for 5 years at the Faculty of Education in the University of Barcelona. Her areas of interest includes CALL and teacher-learner interaction in a foreign language.

Joan-Tomàs Pujolà holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Edinburgh and is currently teaching at the Faculty of Education in the University of Barcelona. He trains teachers in the area of CALL and his current research aims at the use of web 2.0 technologies for teaching and learning purposes. He is also interested in the learning processes in relation to learner autonomy and in the metacognitive development of language learners and teachers.

Current research

The present study was carried out as part of the first ESP course (English for Communication Level 1) offered in the degree of Tourism at a Spanish University. Fifteen students and their teacher met on a voluntary basis in the multi-user virtual environment (MUVE) Second Life after class for some additional practice sessions. These classes were not part of the course evaluation, as they were optional, however, the students who decided to take part got a grade incentive if they attended every MUVE session. There were nine sessions held in Second Life throughout the academic year. These sessions were devised as situational topics and were organized into three modules: hotels, museums and cities. The first module consisted in exploring a hotel in Second Life, practice checking in tourists and dealing with unexpected problems in a hotel. The second and third modules consisted in preparing a guided tour around a museum and a city respectively. These tasks were based on the pre-established syllabus of the English course they were undertaking. The classes were task-based and focused on promoting their oral fluency to perform tasks they would need when working in the hospitality industry. The main aim in the undergraduate ESP course is for students to have the ability to deliver presentations and guided tours, therefore, the tasks in Second Life were geared towards that objective.

The study is based on the data collected from the recordings of the Second Life sessions taken from the teacher's computer and the analysis of the multimodal communication occurring in the classes.

Task-based language learning and teaching

A growing body of research is developing on the study of communication and task design in Multi-User Virtual Environments (MUVEs) (Deutschmann & Molka-Danielsen, 2009; Sweeney, P. et al., 2010, González, D. et al., 2011). One of the challenges for language practitioners in MUVEs is to design tasks which take into account the multiplicity and

complexity of communication channels available, deal with the steep learning curve students encounter when using a virtual world such as Second Life and design tasks which foster communication in an environment in which non-verbal language is not as readily available as in face-to-face contexts.

This paper outlines the challenges of carrying out EFL classes in the virtual world of Second Life and studies what discursive strategies and modification devices the tutor and students put into use to communicate or avoid communication breakdowns while carrying out communicative tasks in this multimodal environment. Thus, task implementation will be studied focusing on input elicitation strategies used by the teacher as well as other online strategies such as the management of the technical aspect of the task and the environment to understand some of the affordances and limitations of technology which should be considered in task design. Another aspect that will be studied is the correspondence of certain strategies to a specific lesson stage. Alongside the aforementioned transactional strategies, teachers in SL activate interactional strategies (Peterson, 2006) to create an environment which is conducive to learning. This paper will identify the interactional strategies used during the Second Life sessions, which can help overcome the online barrier.

Furthermore, a new method for the transcription of multimodal communication in virtual worlds, the 3M transcription (Pujolà & Palomeque, 2010, 2014), has been created to account for the use of the different communication modes in this 3D environment. Thus, by studying how the different communication modes operate and interrelate when communicating in a multimodal world, we aim to gain insight on what role each mode has when constructing meaning and study how the participants used the different modes to interact, create meaning, avoid communication breakdowns or carry out tasks.

Results will be shown from an on-going investigation on teacher and student communication strategies while doing the tasks in the 3D virtual world of Second Life.

Short paper

A growing body of research is developing on the study of communication and task design in Multi-User Virtual Environments (MUVES) (Deutschmann & Molka-Danielsen, 2009; Sweeney, P. et al., 2010, González, D. et al., 2011). One of the challenges for language practitioners in MUVES is to design tasks which take into account the multiplicity and complexity of communication channels available, deal with the steep learning curve students encounter when using a virtual world such as *Second Life* and design tasks which foster communication in an environment in which non-verbal language is not as readily available as in face-to-face contexts

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Results will be shown from an on-going investigation on teacher and student communication strategies while doing the tasks in the 3D virtual world of Second Life.

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Marielle Patronis

Zayed University, Dubai, United Arab Emirates

marielle.patronis@zu.ac.ae

Using mobile devices for developing reading comprehension students' perspectives

Bio data

Marielle Patronis is an Assistant Professor in the Department of English and Writing Studies at Zayed University in Dubai, United Arab Emirates. She has over 30 years experience as a university professor and language teacher, and over 10 years experience in blended learning design and the development and delivery of courses. Her research interest lies in the field of online learning and language acquisition.

Current research

The utilization of mobile devices has become popular in transferring knowledge. The use of these devices has resulted in pedagogical shifts wherein the traditional teaching approach has changed to a more modern mode of teaching. Advocates of these shifts have documented the benefits for knowledge acquisition. Likewise, the benefits of using mobile devices in an ESL classroom have been reported. Larson (2010) suggested that digital texts can make the reading experience more individualized, interactive, and engaging. Others have argued that mobile technologies can support individual readers' text comprehension and potentially engage struggling readers.

In this study, the usability and applicability of the iPad in the classroom at Zayed University is addressed. The learning objective is to focus on reading comprehension. This case study presents some instructional strategies for helping students develop their reading comprehension while using an iPad. The study is addressed to second-language learners. In accordance with the process of learning a second language, their linguistic competence is considered as intermediate, based on their Test of English as a Second language (IELTs) score of 5.5 and above. The aim of this paper is to present students' perceptions and attitudes toward the use of an iPad for enhanced learning. The guiding questions of the study are:

- Does the use of an iPad increase motivation and engagement in the learning process?
- Does the use of an iPad facilitate better reading comprehension?

Forty students enrolled in a first-semester composition course responded positively about the mode of instruction. The need for correlation between their perceptions and their actual achievement is recommended for future study.

Task-based language learning and teaching

To enhance reading skills, iPad apps were chosen to meet the learning goals of the lesson in this study. These were Educreation and iBook apps. The lesson was divided into two phases: phase I focused on the reading comprehension strategies of sequencing; phase II focused on determining the main ideas and developing ideas in a text.

While designing the learning activity, the teacher chose a pedagogical approach that would best teach the skill using the strategy of visualization (Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993). With this in mind, an iPad app called Educreations was selected. Unlike pen and paper, the app provided students with tools to capture and manipulate their visual images, as it has many different drawing tools, such as colored pencils, shapes, diagrams and paint brushes. Besides saving the drawings and diagrams in a photo album, the app allows the students to export materials through e-mail to other participants. By exporting the visuals into a computer, they can be enlarged and projected so that all students can see the images.

Collaboratively, students created visual images as they read and used Educreations. On one iPad, the students drew an illustration. After saving their images, all groups emailed their illustrations to the teacher. Using a projector, the teacher displayed the different portions of illustrations that the students sent on a screen. In groups, the students discussed the visuals, and without any help were asked to organize them in logical sequencing. Then they re-read the written text as a whole. Using the reading comprehension strategy of sequencing, and to practice reading comprehension, they picked out main ideas and then tried to put them in order (what order?). As the students read the text on iBook, they simultaneously used the annotation feature, leaving personal notes, reactions and questions about the reading. Once the responses were saved, students shared them with their peers, and while reading they stated conclusions, questions that occur, problems with unknown words or made connections between the visuals and the article.

The iPad provided the students with the opportunity to manipulate texts for better understanding, draw illustrations and share their visuals and ideas with their peers and the teacher. After completing the learning activity, participants' perceptions toward the use of an iPad were sought through a questionnaire.

Short paper

Overview

The utilization of mobile devices has become popular in transferring knowledge among students and teachers; their usage has resulted in pedagogical shifts wherein the traditional teaching approach has changed to a more modern mode of teaching. To better understand students' perspective of the use of mobile devices at a UAE university, in this case an iPad, a quantitative method of data gathering was used. In this paper, I am addressing a task design and students' attitudes and perceptions of the use of an iPad in developing reading comprehension. A post-activity questionnaire was distributed to 40 students enrolled in first-semester composition course. The guiding questions for the study were:

- Does the use of an iPad increase motivation and engagement in the learning process?
- Does the use of an iPad facilitate better reading comprehension?

The subsequent sections will review the literature and discuss the design of the learning event, and will be followed by the research method. The paper concludes with discussion and recommendations for future study.

Literature review

The benefits of using mobile devices in a language classroom have been increasingly investigated and reported in recent years. Most of these studies have found that embracing the connectivity of these devices and their mobility may lead to innovation in language learning (Tai, 2012). Stockwell (2010) indicated that mobile phones are used for improving vocabulary, and others, such as Rueckert, Kiser, and Cho (2012) found

that they improve grammar, listening and speaking. To develop reading skills, it is suggested that iPads can "provide an added advantage over printed texts, as they provide further opportunities for students to physically interact with and manipulate texts and to transform texts to meet their needs and interests" (Eagleton & Dobler, 2007). Larson (2010) suggested that digital texts can make the reading experience more individualized, interactive and engaging. Other scholars have argued that an added advantage of digital texts is that "they can support individual readers' text comprehension and potentially engage struggling readers" (Reinking, 2001).

The context of the study

This study presents an instructional strategy for helping students develop their reading comprehension while using an iPad. In accordance with the process of learning a second language, the linguistic competence of the participants' in the study is considered as intermediate, basing it on their Test of English as a Second language (IELTs) score of 5.5 and above. The learning objective of the activity in the study is to focus on reading comprehension. Two iPad apps were chosen to meet the learning goals of the lesson, namely Educreation and iBook. The lesson was divided into two phases: phase I focused on the reading comprehension strategies of sequencing, while phase II focused on determining the main deas and developing ideas in a text.

While designing the learning activity, the teacher chose a pedagogical approach that would best teach the skill using the strategy of visualization (Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993). With this in mind, an iPad app, Educreations, was selected. Unlike pen and paper, Educreation provides students with the tools to capture and manipulate their visual images as they read the text; it has many drawing tools, such as colored pencils, shapes, diagrams and paint brushes. Collaboratively, 10 groups of 4 students created visual images as they read their own part of the same text (jigsaw reading). They drew illustrations, as they visualized their digital section of the text.

After saving the drawings, each group exported its illustrations to the teacher. Using a projector, the teacher then randomly displayed the illustrations, from different portions of the text that the students sent, on a screen. The groups of students then discussed the visuals, which they organized into logical sequencing.

In phase two, the students re-read the digital text as a whole and picked out the main ideas, and the developing ones, which they then placed in order. As the students read the text on iBook, they spontaneously used the annotation features, leaving personal notes, reactions and questions about what they were reading. Once the responses were saved, the students shared them with their peers, and while reading they stated conclusions, asked questions, presented problems with unknown words and made connections between the visuals and the text. The iPad provided the students with the opportuntiy to manuplate the text for better understanding, draw illustrations and share their visuals and ideas with their peers and the teacher.

Method

To understand student's perceptions of the impact the iPad had on their learning, an online survey was sent to all students. Forty first-year baccalaureate female students taking colloquy courses during the fall semester 2014 participated in the study. At the time, the participants were between 17 and 20 years old. The majority were graduates of the foundation programme and very few entered directly from high school. All of the students were native speakers of Arabic, but they had passed the Test of English as a Second Language with a minimum score of 5.5. The participants are familiar with the use of iPads and had used them for a minimum of two semesters. The aim of the survey was to gain a better understanding of the students' perceptions of their learning experience while using an iPad. The findings are presented and discussed in terms of the perceived benefits of the use of an iPad.

Results and discussion

This study focused on how students perceive the use of an iPad to create images from digital texts. Forty first-semester ESL composition students responded to the survey after completing a mobile-learning activity. Generally, the participants had a positive view of the use of an iPad in this activity. Particularly, as shown in Table. 1, Q.2, 91% of the participants felt that the iPad provided them with an opportunity to create images and better remember the content. Another interesting finding, in Q.1, was that although 65% of the participants responded positively and indicated that they wanted to continue reading, The remaining 35% were either unsure or less positive about the experience. In Q.4, the majority of the participants (58%) indicated the benefits of using iPads for better understanding. Eighty-four percent of the participants indicated that the use of an iPad facilitated their learning in this class.

Table 1. Percentages of Students' Responses

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q.1 When using an iPad, I wanted to keep reading.	25%	40%	25%	5%	5%
Q.2 When using an iPad, I was able to create images, which helped me remember the content of the text.	33%	58%	9%	0%	0%
Q.3 When using an iPad, I was able to manipulate the text as I read it.	33%	34%	33%	0%	0%
Q.4 When using an iPad, I was able to look up definitions and meanings of difficult concepts.	16%	42%	27%	15%	0%
Q.5 When using an iPad, I was able to create interesting pictures from a text.	25%	42%	25%	8%	0%
Q.6 The use of an iPad helped my learning in class.	17%	67%	16%	0%	0%

Conclusion

An iPad exposes students to a different learning environment that gives them opportunities for engaged learning. As shown in this study, the majority of the students appreciate the versatility of an iPad. It allows them to read digital texts, visualize, create images and manipulate texts as they read them, a process they would not be afforded without the device. Students' perceptions should be embraced and recognized as essential when designing meaningful mobile-learning activities. Lastly, whether students' perceptions of mobile devices correlates with their actual performance is a subject for further research.

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Martine Pellerin

University of Alberta, Edmonton, Canada

pellerin@ualberta.ca

Blending new mobile technologies (MT) and tasks: promoting meaningful, engaging, and reflective language learning tasks for young language learners

Bio data

Martine Pellerin is an associate professor at University of Alberta (Campus Saint-Jean). Her scholarly background is in the field of second language acquisition and educational technologies. She teaches courses in the second language teacher preparation undergraduate program, and courses at the graduate level in the areas of qualitative and participative research methodologies and ITC in the second language classroom.

Current research

My research in general is concerned with how young language learners use mobile technologies (MT) such as tablets and iPods in the context of language learning through content learning (the immersion approach in the Canadian context). More specifically, I examine how young language learners use MT to build their knowledge in the content areas, as well as their language competencies in the target language. My ongoing inquiries are leading me to further investigate the potential of blending MT with tasks in reconceptualizing the design of language-based tasks in CALL contexts for young language learners. In particular, I examine how the various affordances (e.g., cognitive, physical, sensory, and functional; summarized in Hartson, 2003, p. 323, Table 2) offered by the new MT contribute to creating learning environments that allow for active and meaningful language tasks that promote creativity, problem solving, and critical thinking as well as metacognition and self-regulatory learning.

Task-based language learning and teaching

How can the blending of new mobile technologies (MT) and task promote the design of meaningful, authentic, engaging, and reflective language learning tasks?

The field of CALL research has been concerned with the potential of the use of mobile technologies (MT) such as mobile phones to support second language learning (e.g., Burston, 2013; Stockwell, 2007, 2010). Recent CALL research has begun to explore the rapid evolvment of MT such as smartphones, tablets, and other connected devices, and in particular the affordances they offer, which hold potential for reconceptualizing the learning experience in CALL contexts by creating new language learning possibilities as well as new learning environments. The affordances of these new technologies (see, e.g., Hartson, 2003) can also contribute to transforming language task design by providing more interactive and multimodal tasks that promote meaningful and authentic language learning, as well as greater engagement and autonomy on the part of the learners (e.g., Godwin-Jones, 2011, 2013; Pellerin, 2014; Stockwell, 2013).

The blending of new MT with language tasks requires that we “move beyond what has been achieved with investigations of task-and-technology blends” (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014, p. 5). It requires, first, a shift in the way we conceptualize the task itself so that it coincides more with the new understanding of the concept of tasks as “fluid

constructs that become transformed by the individuals who enact them in their classroom activity" (Kahn, 2012, p. 91). This view of language tasks also reflects second language acquisition (SLA) principles informed by sociocultural perspectives that support a more dynamic view of the concept of task (e.g., Ellis, 2003). Moreover, the features of the tasks in the CALL context should be aligned with those suggested by González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) for technology-and-task integration: primary focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centeredness, holism, and reflective learning (see González-Lloret and Ortega, 2014, pp. 5–6, for a description of each feature). As indicated by Warschauer (1998), "we do not have old language learning plus computer, but we have a different language learning" (p. 760). Hence, the integration of MT and language task contributes to transforming language teaching and learning with the support of new technologies. The blending of MT and task in the design of language learning tasks benefits from the affordances of those new technologies, rather than being dictated by them. Moreover, the task design will be guided not only by a framework informed by emergent educational learning theories from disciplinary fields such as neurocognitive sciences and cognitive sciences, but also by SLA principles informed by sociocultural perspectives that support active and meaningful learning, metacognition, and learner autonomy in the learning process (Pellerin, 2014).

Building on this theoretical framework, my recent research investigated how blending the new MT with task contributes to the reconceptualization of task-based language learning for young language learners.

Short paper

Mobile Technologies and Tasks for Young Learners

The use of mobile technologies (MT) is making its way into all educational contexts, and language educators are also starting to contemplate the potential of these new technological devices for enhancing language teaching and the learning experiences of their students. The field of CALL research has been concerned with the potential of the use of MT such as mobile phones to support second language learning (e.g., Burston, 2013; Stockwell, 2007, 2010). Recent CALL research has begun to explore the rapid evolvment of MT such as smartphones, tablets, and other mobile devices, and in particular the affordances they offer, which hold potential for reconceptualizing the learning experience in CALL contexts by creating new language learning possibilities as well as new learning environments. The affordances of these new technologies can also contribute to transforming language task design by allowing more interactive and multimodal tasks that promote meaningful and authentic learning as well as greater learner engagement and autonomy in the learning process (e.g., Godwin-Jones, 2011, 2013; Pellerin, 2014; Stockwell, 2013).

However, research on the use of mobile technologies in CALL contexts has been concerned mainly with learners in secondary and higher education. Research related to task-based design and task-based language teaching (TBLT) has also focused mainly on young adult and mature language learners (Cameron, 2005). However, there is a growing trend worldwide toward introducing second language teaching in early education. Canada, with its language policies regarding bilingualism in both official languages, has led the way in the development of early immersion programs starting as early as kindergarten. As a result of "the growth of globalization and the predominance of English in the media" (Pim, 2013, p. 22), many countries in Asia and other parts of the world are also introducing the teaching of a second language (particularly English) at the primary level. Alongside these new trends in teaching a second language, the integration of the new mobile technologies and mobile devices such as tablets, smartphones, and iPods are changing the landscape of the technology-mediated learning environment for young language learners. In addition, language educators are facing a young generation of language learners who are growing up within an evolving technological and digital

world. These trends in the fields of CALL and TBLT for young learners require innovative approaches to language development and the reconceptualization of the concept of task.

Blending of New MT With Language Tasks

The blending of new MT with language tasks requires that we “move beyond what has been achieved with investigations of task-and-technology blends” (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014, p. 5). It requires a shift in the way we conceptualize the tasks themselves, to coincide with the new understanding of the concept of tasks as “fluid constructs that become transformed by the individuals who enact them in their classroom activity” (Kahn, 2012, p. 91). This view of language tasks also reflects second language acquisition (SLA) principles, which are informed by sociocultural perspectives that support a more dynamic view of the concept of task (e.g., Ellis, 2003). According to Ellis, “Tasks cannot be externally defined and classified because the ‘activity’ that results from a ‘task’ will vary from learner to learner and also within a single learner on different occasions” (p. 199). Moreover, the features of the tasks in CALL contexts with MT should be aligned with the ones suggested by González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) for technology-and-task integration: primary focus on meaning, goal orientation, learner centeredness, holism, and reflective learning (for a full description of each feature, see González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014, pp. 5–6).

The blending of MT and language tasks requires new understanding about language teaching and learning processes. As Warschauer (1998) pointed out, “we do not have old language learning plus computer, but we have a different language learning” (p. 760). Hence, the integration of MT and language tasks contributes to transforming the teaching and learning of language with the support of the new technologies. In this new learning environment supported by new technologies, the designing of language tasks benefits from the affordances of new MT rather than being dictated by them. In this CALL context with MT, language task design is also guided by emergent educational learning theories from disciplinary fields such as neurocognitive sciences and cognitive sciences—as well as by SLA principles informed by sociocultural perspectives that support active and meaningful learning, metacognition, and learner autonomy in the learning process.

Building on this theoretical framework, the paper argues that the blending of MT and tasks allows innovative language learning approaches for young language learners to emerge in the CALL and TBLT context. Moreover, the paper indicates that the blending of MT and task involves a reconceptualization of the concept of tasks, which takes into account how learners learn (e.g., Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000), the role of the environment in which the tasks are performed (Ellis, 2003), and how the technological tools are used by the learners to enact the tasks (Pellerin, 2014).

The paper is based on ongoing participatory research in classrooms with young language learners (6 to 12 years of age) in the context of French Immersion programs in Canada. The data collection is achieved by the researcher as well as the participants (teachers and learners). The collection of digital data such as digital video and audio recordings is achieved with the same technologies used by the learners, such as tablets and iPods. Sometimes the digital recording is done by the researcher (the author) or the teachers, and in other instances the video recordings produced solely by the learners who enact the tasks. The new MT also allow young learners to dictate their own stories with apps such as Puppet Pals and Toontastic; other apps also allow them to record voice-overs with whiteboard tools such as ShowMe and Educreations. The outcomes of the learning with the use of these apps, as well as the documentation of the thinking process while learners are engaged in the task, become authentic digital artifacts. The analysis of the digital data demonstrates how blending MT and tasks allows innovative language learning approaches that promote not only meaningful and authentic learning but also learners’ engagement and autonomy in the learning process. In particular, the paper shows how the blending of MT and tasks contributes to reconceptualizing the concept of tasks, by allowing learners to have greater control in the enactment of the tasks, which in turn

promotes higher engagement and autonomy in the learning process. Finally, the analysis of the digital documentation reveals the use of metatalk while learners perform the tasks, which in turn contributes to the development of metacognitive awareness and self-regulating metacognitive skills. As a result, learners become empowered and demonstrate greater autonomy in their own language learning process.

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Goretti Prieto Botana & Sofía Ruíz Alfaro

Franklin and Marshall College, Lancaster, United States

gprietob@fandm.edu - sofia.ruiz-alfaro@fandm.edu

Writing instruction in CLIL classrooms

Bio data

Goretti Prieto Botana is the Director of the Spanish Writing Center at Franklin and Marshall College, in Pennsylvania. Her research focuses on computer-assisted language instruction and the role of explicit information and grammar learnability problems.

Sofía Ruíz Alfaro is an Associate Professor of Spanish at Franklin and Marshall College, in Pennsylvania. Her research interests include content-based language instruction, with particular emphasis on the integration of language instructions within literature and gender studies contexts.

Current research

Writing Instruction in CLIL Classrooms

Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) seeks to use the foreign language as a vehicle to lead students into independent inquiry on a given subject matter. At the tertiary level, courses of this nature often turn to writing assignments as a means to help learners achieve greater understanding of content, while staying on task with respect to the foreign language. Given the differing conventions that govern academic writing across languages, upon engaging in such writing tasks, learners often give evidence of necessitating assistance beyond the purely linguistic and content-specific domain: namely, they often require support to scaffold them through their written production such that they can successfully observe and adhere to writing conventions in the target language. However, incorporating instruction for writing in the discipline into the syllabus of a CLIL course can be challenging, as time spent on content is already competing with time spent on language-related issues. In light of this problem, and following data obtained through a Needs Analysis (NA), three computer-delivered, interactive whiteboard modules were created in order to allow writing instruction to take place outside the classroom within the framework of a CLIL Literature class. In the present talk we will feature results from the NA, and sample materials from the resulting interventions. In addition, we will explain the rationale behind our pedagogical orientation, and discuss challenges, as well as student feedback following our first two implementations.

Task design & language learning and teaching

The project proposed here was conceived after it became obvious that Native Speaker of English were underperforming in a task they needed to master in order to complete CLIL courses successfully: communicating in formal written code in Spanish. Once this need became obvious, we took a task-based approach in that we conducted a Needs Analysis (NA) to determine what linguistic and organizational elements were involved in producing the written texts students were having trouble with. This NA triangulated data from content course instructors, current students and alumni in the workforce. Based on the results from the NA, a sequence of pedagogical modules were developed with the goal of

instructing students on the target task. For this reason, we believe the present project aligns with the tenets of Task Based Language Teaching.

Short paper

Writing Instruction in CLIL Classrooms

Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) seeks to use the foreign language as a vehicle to lead students into independent inquiry on a given subject matter. At the tertiary level, courses of this nature often turn to writing assignments as a means to help learners achieve greater understanding of content, while staying on task with respect to the foreign language. Given the differing conventions that govern academic writing across languages, upon engaging in such writing tasks, learners often give evidence of necessitating assistance beyond the purely linguistic and content-specific domain: namely, they often require support to scaffold them through their written production such that they can successfully observe and adhere to writing conventions in the target language. However, incorporating instruction for writing in the discipline into the syllabus of a CLIL course can be challenging, as time spent on content is already competing with time spent on language-related issues. In light of this problem, and following data obtained through a Needs Analysis (NA), three computer-delivered, interactive whiteboard modules were created in order to allow writing instruction to take place outside the classroom within the framework of a CLIL Literature class. In the present paper we will discuss results from the NA, and provide a description of the materials from the resulting interventions. In addition, we will explain the rationale behind our pedagogical orientation.

Content Language Integrated Learning

CLIL designates a means of foreign language (FL) teaching whereby the target language (TL) becomes the vehicle rather than the goal of instruction in a subset of the curriculum. It refers to educational settings in which students receive instruction on non-language-related subjects in a FL. Since the 1990's, several countries in Europe (Finland, Holland, Sweden, Spain and others) have been integrating CLIL models in their secondary education as a means of teaching foreign languages in compulsory education. Thus, an increasing number of schools in these countries have started to offer a portion of their non-linguistic content subjects, such as biology, geography or history, in English (occasionally also in other languages, such as German and French) whether in parallel with or instead of regular classes in the first language (L1). Importantly, although the term CLIL is often used in the Second Language Acquisition literature to refer to its European implementation and situations where a content class is taught in a language that is a second language (L2) for both teacher and students, it also commonly refers to any educational setting where a language that the students do not speak natively is used as the medium (as opposed to the goal) of instruction. This means that immersion, content-based language teaching and bilingual education programs, for example, also fall under this category, as well (see Dalton-Puffer 2007; Naves 2010 for further detail). By the same token, in higher education, literature and culture classes in language majors, where content is conveyed exclusively in the FL, with little-to-no attention being paid to formal aspects of language, would also constitute a form of CLIL. This latter form is precisely the one that occupies us in the present paper.

The Present Project

The present paper reports on a project conducted within the framework of a Hispanic culture class on the topic of immigration, taught at a higher-education institution in the United States. The class in question was a mandatory course in the Spanish major and required students to engage in analysis of different authentic texts (a short novel and several journalistic articles) and movies, with the ultimate goal of producing several expository/argumentative essays about them. Although the course involved a substantial L2 writing component, prior to the implementation of the present project, class time was

exclusively devoted to discussion of content, with a small portion of the course being devoted to linguistic matters but no writing instruction. During departmental discussions, it became clear that the written production students were handing in presented various weaknesses. Some of those weaknesses stemmed from limitations in language proficiency, but others appeared to originate in violations of other formal conventions, such as internal overall organization of the paper and its essential components, as well as argument coordination. Following those discussions, it was agreed upon that a component of writing instruction should be included in future iterations of the course in order to provide learners with explicit information about the organization of expository and argumentative texts in Spanish. It was decided that the materials would be exclusively in the target language and that, in the interest of preserving class-time for discussion of the subject matter, writing instruction would be computer delivered and assigned as homework that students would complete on their own time.

Needs Analysis

Undoubtedly the largest question facing us upon undertaking this project, was what exactly was it that learners should be able to do in terms of writing by the time they completed the culture course. In order to answer this question we conducted a needs analysis (NA) to try and determine the concrete needs students in the course had. Our main informants in the NA were two instructors who had taught the course on a regular basis in previous years and two other faculty members who routinely taught courses that followed ours in the sequence. The rationale to include these last two instructors was that the present project was part of a larger endeavor to create a coherent sequence of writing instruction across all advanced courses in the Spanish major. In addition, we also consulted a group of 8 students who had completed the course the previous year and asked them about their own perceived needs and lacks when writing and rewriting essays.

The NA with the instructors was done by way of 30-minute informal conversations conducted independently with each instructor separately. Follow-up communications were conducted as needed via e-mail or face-to-face. From the beginning, it became clear that while all instructors agreed on the fact that written output by the learners presented problems, articulating what exactly the writing violations consisted in was rather difficult. The one issue that transpired consistently with instructors of all courses was that students tended to have trouble coming up with a thesis statement, often seemingly failing to provide one altogether. In addition, all instructors mentioned that introductory paragraphs included information that, while perhaps accurate, failed to prepare the reader for the specific posture the paper claims to defend and was therefore, in appearance, irrelevant. Finally, all instructors emphasized the importance of evidence, adding that often students summarized the texts they were writing about, instead of offering claims about it that they would later support by way of evidence. In cases when evidence was offered, students frequently failed to integrate it properly, leaving it up to the reader to establish any existing connection to previously offered arguments.

The NA with the students was conducted via informal conversations as well, and it took place after the NA with instructors was complete. Upon being asked to reflect about what they needed to do in their essays and what shortcomings they encountered in writing in the L2, students mostly offered linguistically-oriented issues. Amongst those, the most frequent were as gender agreement or conjugation, as well as tense and aspect related problems. Two students did remark that they preferred writing without any regard to structure first, in order to capture ideas, and then organize them and work on form and language. Upon being asked about organization, students were able to offer little insight, though they did confirm that they were aware of needing an introduction and that the introduction should have a thesis statement. From the NA with the students, we concluded that perhaps the main problem was that they did not appear to be reflecting on structure at a meta level, which may very well be resulting on organization being largely ignored while writing. In addition, from the fact that some students appeared to

favor capturing content first, we concluded that writing (in general, but presumably more so in the L2) imposes a very large cognitive load on learners, which may contribute to higher order aspects of writing to be neglected (Kroll 2012) more severely.

Pedagogical Materials

Following our NA, three computer-delivered pedagogical modules were created in order to provide explicit instruction on the organization of an introduction, a bodily paragraph and the conclusion to an essay combining expository and argumentative styles. The modules consisted of three narrated videos featuring samples of text that all instructors considered representative of the type of text learners should be able to by the end of the course. In addition to the explanations, the modules included practice questions that required learners to apply the writing guidelines they just received.

The first video presented learners with a sample introduction, and analyzed its main components, as well as the classic progression from more general, to more specific, leading up to the thesis statement that introductions tend to feature. Underneath the video, in the same screen, students were presented with a total of seven questions about the content they were viewing. Two of the questions merely quizzed students on factual information and were intended to force students to read the content of the samples for meaning. Three questions asked about the internal organization of an introduction and finally, in the last two questions, students were asked to judge two sample introductions as per the ideal sample and information provided in the video. Students received immediate feedback on questions 1-5. Since the last two questions were open-ended and answers varied, feedback on those was provided by instructors in class, after student responses were retrieved.

The pedagogical module on the bodily paragraph followed a very similar structure, this time capitalizing on the need to make a claim with an obvious connection to the thesis statement, supporting it by citing events or quotes from the text, and finally, by describing how the evidence resulted in the initial claim. As was the case with the introduction, students were required to answer questions (one factual and four writing-oriented) after the video.

Finally, the pedagogical module about the conclusion emphasized that while a conclusion should recapitulate the purpose and claims of the paper, it should also offer a new but familiar angle that the reader should consider the thesis from. In addition, it reminded students that varying language and syntactic structures becoming particularly important when recapitulating information, in order to avoid repetitive language. The video on the conclusion was followed by three questions, only one of which required learners to judge the quality of a sample. All videos were created with Adobe Captivate and were made available to students via Blackboard.

Concluding Remarks about Pedagogical Orientation

The pedagogical materials that this paper focuses on were designed with the goal of helping learners accomplish a real task in the LA, namely, write a academic paper in partial fulfillment of their Spanish degree. Given that students' writing would ultimately be judged by professors, the three pedagogical modules presented here featured texts that were deemed appropriate and ideal by instructors of culture and literature courses in our Spanish department. In the same vein, the organizational issues addressed in the pedagogical modules were chose as per the errors instructors reported to see in their students' writing, as well the input gathered from students themselves.

In order to avoid taking the focus of the class off cultural content, the materials were created in a way that would allow students to consume them in an autonomous manner and outside the classroom. Finally, based on findings from related areas of the SLA literature claiming that awareness can result in learning (Rosa and Leow 2004; Rosa and O'Neill 1999) the present materials adopted a very explicit approach to writing

instruction, walking students through the structure of samples of text and discussing propositional information each portion typically features. In addition, based on findings from cognitive psychology that claim that proceduralization of knowledge may require linking declarative knowledge to examples (Anderson and Fincham 1994), all three pedagogical modules provided actual text samples, (as opposed to guidelines for writing only) that illustrated the explicit information they were receiving and allowed them to apply it afterwards.

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Martí Quixal & Detmar Meurers

Universität Tübingen, Tübingen, Germany

martin.quixal-martinez@uni-tuebingen.de – detmar.meurers@uni-tuebingen.de

The missing link? Task characterization and task product characterization as a means to accommodate TBLT and CALL

Bio data

Martí Quixal: Researcher in Intelligent CALL. I finished my PhD in December 2012 with the thesis "Language Learning Tasks and Automatic Analysis of Learner Language". I am interested in studying how TBLT approaches can be seized to meaningfully and feasibly integrate Natural Language Processing in real life education settings. More generally I am interested in user-driven approaches to develop ICALL materials and tools.

Detmar Meurers: Full Professor of Computational Linguistics at the University of Tübingen since Summer 2008. My research currently focuses on: i) the interface of computational linguistics and empirical educational science, ii) the use and advancement of linguistic modeling and insight in language teaching, learning and SLA, iii) the analysis of language in context and the division of labor of syntax and information structure.

Current research

We are interested in the use of computational linguistic analysis in support of teaching and learning, in particular in investigating the characteristics and the circumstances under which the teaching and learning of foreign languages can be made more effective on the learner and the teacher side. We would argue that there is a need for a methodology to help us determine the characteristics of learning activities and the linguistic products they elicit so that a better fit between FLTL, CALL and NLP can be reached.

Building on the research on task-based curriculum and test design (Ellis, 2003; Willis & Willis, 2007; Bachman & Palmer, 1996), we are developing a methodology that takes into account both pedagogy and technology through the life cycle of a task – design, implementation, evaluation (Schulze, 2010; González Lloret, 2014).

Short paper

This talk presents the analysis of learner language characteristics in responses obtained from a blended-learning instruction setting in which secondary school teachers of EFL used an NLP-based automatic feedback generation system (Quixal et al. 2010). Crucially, this NLP-based automatic feedback generation system included an authoring tool for them to specify target answers that were used to automatically generate activity-specific grammars and lexicons that allowed for activity-specific feedback.

The focus of the research presented here is however related to task design and the type of language elicited from learners. Task-Based Language Teaching is a field whose goal is to emulate real life processes (Ellis 2003, González Lloret and Ortega 2014) in foreign language instruction settings and is, thus, seems adequate to delimit scenarios in which a limited amount of linguistic items and structures will be used. This in turn fits within

general approaches in Natural Language Processing, where domain-ness facilitates the task of automatic analysis of learner language.

The goal of the paper is to analyze what types of learning tasks support which kind of linguistic and communicative structures. To analyze learner responses we characterize the learning activities using an ICALL activity design framework that allows for a fine-grained specification of the pedagogical and linguistic features of learning activities. This characterization allows also for a grounding of annotation decisions in terms of correctness of learner responses (Quixal 2012, Quixal and Meurers, in preparation).

Experiment setup

Two teachers (T1 and T2) from the Barcelona area taught a total of four groups of learners in their first or second year of obligatory secondary education in 2009: 1A, 1B, 2A and 2B. Group sizes ranged between 12 and 22. All courses had a relatively balanced distribution of male and female students. All students were Catalan/Spanish bilinguals except for two who spoke Amazigh or/and Berber at home. Teachers were trained on the use of the authoring tools including sessions on Task-Based Language Teaching design and Natural Language Processing for the generation of automatic (linguistic) feedback. After that they created materials to be included in their teaching contexts and used them with their students. Through the process teachers worked independently but both pedagogical and technical support was offered to them if needed.

The implementation of the materials in class started with an introduction to the tool and the project to the learners, including instructions on how to use the graphical interface and what to expect from the automatic feedback generation system. Students worked on the materials for a period of 2 to 4 days, depending on the class and then they responded a satisfaction questionnaire.

Data

Learner responses to the different items in the ICALL activities were collected and analyzed. For each learner response we got: number of attempt, learner response, general feedback to spelling and grammar errors, and activity specific feedback to content, spelling and grammar errors. A subset of learner responses were annotated in terms of i) feedback accuracy and ii) teacher feedback. Annotating feedback accuracy we evaluated the goodness of the feedback provided by the NLP-based tools, while teacher feedback is used to compare how the system's feedback compares to the feedback teachers would have given. Since we had the sequence of attempts made by learners we also looked at whether learners paid attention and used or not the feedback provided in their following response(s), but this last type of data analysis is not used in this paper. Accuracy of the NLP-based feedback generation module

The goodness of the feedback for both correction steps was evaluated following the criteria shown in **Error! Reference source not found. Error! Reference source not und.** These show Response/Feedback pairs are validated as False, True, or Bad. While False and True indicate whether there actually is that error or not, Bad indicates that there is an error, but that the explanation is not consistent with the activity's correction criteria.

Pair	Response/Feedback	Validation
1	Response: I dress up at twenty past deven . Feedback: This word is unknown. Does it contain a spelling error? even seven Devon	True
2	Response: I sometimes play volleyball at six o'clock. Feedback: This part of the answer does not correspond to any part of the answers stored by the system. Please check!	False
3	Response: I sometimes have breakfast at twenty-five minutes to nine. Feedback: Your answer is correct, but check if this is relevant.	Bad

Table 1. Validation of automatic feedback at the level of spelling and grammar checking or in terms of activity specific feedback.

Response-feedback pair number 1 shows an example of correct feedback (true, good) at the level of spelling and grammar (*deven). Response-feedback pair number 2 shows an example of incorrect feedback (false), where an activity specific content word (volleyball) is marked as incorrect, though the activity instructions (not the NLP specifications) would allow for such a response. The response-feedback pair number 3 is an example of "bad" feedback because it can mislead the learner, leading him/her to think that a correct way to express time in English could be incorrect.

Examples 2 and 3 show responses including content variation in that this variation (words) were not expected/foreseen by teacher specifications. Independent whether teachers were able to predict the use of certain words or structures, we are interested in informing teachers about the type of variation they can expect by using certain types of learner input. We apply Natural Language Processing Techniques to describe variability in learner responses

The talk will include a detailed description of learner response variability in terms of content and form (topical vs. linguistic knowledge, Bachman and Palmer 1996), as means to further characterize the viable processing ground, or those learning activities that are meaningful from a pedagogical and a computational perspective. The findings of this talk should help further characterize the characteristics of the language elicited from learners by means of different types of learning activities, a goal central in teaching approaches such as technology-mediated Task-Based Language Teaching (Schulze, 2010, González Lloret, 2014).

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Ana Sevilla Pavón* & Ana Gimeno Sanz**

Universitat de València, Valencia, Spain*

Universitat Politècnica de València, Valencia, Spain**

ana.m.sevilla@uv.es - agimeno@upvnet.upv.es

Fostering communicative skills while raising awareness about gender-related issues within a Business English class

Bio data

Ana Sevilla-Pavón is Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Philology, Translation and Communication of the Universitat de València, Spain. She holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the Universitat Politècnica de València. She has participated in a number of international conferences and R&D projects, and has published several books, book chapters and articles on computer-assisted language teaching and testing.

Ana Gimeno-Sanz is Professor in English Language at the Department of Applied Linguistics of the Universitat Politècnica de València, Spain. She is Head of the CAMILLE research group, devoted to R&D in CALL, and serves on the Editorial Boards of major CALL journals such as *ReCALL* (CUP) and the *CALL Journal* (Routledge). Ana Gimeno is former President of EUROCALL and editor of its online scientific journal, *The EUROCALL Review*.

Current research

Both authors conduct research in Technology-enhanced Language Learning (TELL) in general and more specifically in the areas of a) exploring the benefits of integrating digital story-telling into ESP courses; b) mobile-assisted language learning: the benefits and drawbacks of using currently available instant messaging systems such as WhatsApp as a language learning tool; c) analyzing and validating the use of online courseware to establish pedagogically sound criteria for the development of such courses for students of English for specific purposes. These research interests have been explored and discussed in various publications such as:

- Sevilla-Pavón, A.; Serra-Cámara, B. y Gimeno-Sanz, A. (2012). The Use of Digital Storytelling for ESP in a Technical English Course for Aerospace Engineers. *The Eurocall Review*, 20(2), 68-79. Coleraine & Valencia: European Association for Computer-Assisted Language Learning & Editorial Universitat Politècnica de València.
- Gutiérrez-Colon Plana, M.; Gimeno Sanz, A.; Appel, C.; Hopkins, J.; Gibert Escofet, M. I. y Triana Figueras, I. (2013). Improving learners' reading skills through instant short messages: a sample study using WhatsApp. *Proceedings of the WorldCALL 2013 Conference*. Coleraine: University of Ulster, pp. 80-84.
- Sevilla-Pavón, A. (2013). *Desarrollo, implementación y validación de recursos multimedia para la enseñanza y la evaluación del nivel B2 de inglés en contextos de educación superior a través del sistema InGenio*. Valencia: Editorial de la Universitat Politècnica de València. ISBN: 978-84-9048-072-4 Ref.: 5637. Doctoral thesis supervised by Dr. Ana Gimeno-Sanz.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This paper explores ways of designing authentic, meaningful and enjoyable –yet challenging– tasks by adopting a learner-centred, socio-constructivist task-based approach to computer-assisted language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003; Leahy, 2008). It is the result of research carried out throughout the past 3 years towards meeting the guidelines established by the Bologna Process with regard to foreign languages and adapting them to different English for Specific Purposes contexts. The tasks designed seek to help students develop communication skills in English, based on the need for European universities to put a clear and coherent language policy in place that takes into account cultural and linguistic diversity, as established by the European Commission. In addition, the tasks aim at helping students develop different competences while learning about different issues relating to Business Management through various activities which revolve around digital storytelling (Lambert, 2002; Bruner, 2003; Robin, 2012). These include: WebQuest completion; digital story-telling scriptwriting; self-correction; audio-visual resource selection and assembling; voice-over narration recordings; drawing on collaboration skills; critical analysis and peer assessment; the rhetoric of oral presentations, etc. (Lowenthal 2002 & 2008). The findings that are reported were drawn from data gathered by means of direct observation, a pre-project and a post-project student opinion questionnaire, field journals and interviews with focus groups. The results obtained were favourable with respect to applying such a methodology and encouraging in terms of the perceived improvement of the students' communicative skills, as well as the development of various competences.

Short paper

Introduction

The tasks under investigation in this study are the result of research carried out throughout the past 3 years geared towards complying with the guidelines established by the Bologna Process with regard to foreign language learning and adapting these to different English for Specific Purposes (ESP) contexts. The methodology that was chosen in order to foster language acquisition was based on a digital storytelling project (Lambert, 2002; Bruner, 2003; Robin, 2012) in an ESP course. The tasks were designed so as to be authentic, meaningful and enjoyable, as well as challenging, following a learner-centred, socio-constructivist task-based approach to computer-assisted language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003; Leahy, 2008) with a view to helping students develop communication skills in English, based on the need for European universities to put a clear and coherent language policy in place that takes into account cultural and linguistic diversity, as established by the European Commission, while helping students develop different competences and learning about different issues relating to Business Management.

The findings were drawn from data gathered by means of direct observation, a pre-project and a post-project student opinion questionnaire, field journals and interviews with focus groups. The results obtained were favourable with respect to applying such a methodology and encouraging in terms of the perceived improvement of the students' communicative skills, as well as ICT literacy and collaboration.

The Business English Course

Business English III is a compulsory subject comprised of 6 ECTS credits and taught during the 1st semester, from September to December, at the Faculty of Economics of the Universitat de València, Spain. The proficiency of the 96 students enrolled in the subject was B2, i.e. upper-intermediate, according to the CEFRL (Council of Europe, 2001). The main competences this subject aims to develop are: to become fluent in a foreign language in the field of business; to develop intercultural awareness and the ability to adapt to different geopolitical contexts; to be able to work in multicultural and

multidisciplinary teams; to develop oral and written communication skills in English in academic contexts relating to companies and economics in an international environment; to master academic English oral communication skills; to become familiar with and know how to use advanced-level academic lexis; to recognise and use an appropriate discourse in a variety of communicative situations within an academic context in an international environment; to become familiar with the different academic cultures of the English-speaking countries and their linguistic varieties; to be able to detect inequalities among people so as to design, implement and assess the policies required to eliminate discrimination in companies and institutions.

The work load was split in two main categories: 60 contact hours and 85 hours of autonomous homework. Class activities included 30 hours of lab sessions; 15 hours of theoretical lectures; and 15 hours of exercises and problem-solving. As for autonomous learning, this included 15 hours of group work; 15 hours for the completion of individual assignments; 20 hours for exam revision; 10 hours for further reading; 5 hours of preparation for other graded assignments; 10 hours of preparation for seminars and problem-solving sessions; and 10 of case studies and virtual collaborative work in a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE).

Concerning assessment, formative techniques were used based on the information gathered by means of the following assessment methods: theoretical and practical tests throughout the semester, including multiple choice questions, definitions and essay writing (60% of the final grade); several individual and group activities, and assignments completed throughout the semester relating to the digital storytelling project, including an oral presentation (30% of the final grade); and class participation and presentations (10% of the final grade). This kind of formative assessment was flexible enough so as to allow the teachers to make decisions concerning the types of tasks the students would have to undertake for each of the assessment methods. It was therefore decided that in the case of the 30% corresponding to the different individual and group activities and assignments the assessment data would be gathered by means of a combination of inter-related activities. These involved a wide range of competences, skills and knowledge, which gave rise to the different stages in which the project was divided. These stages will be dealt with in the following section.

Stages and task design within the digital storytelling project

The tasks in this study corresponded to the different stages of the digital storytelling project (Lambert, 2002; Bruner, 2003; Robin, 2012) in an ESP context. They were designed so as to be authentic, meaningful and enjoyable, as well as challenging. A learner-centred, socio-constructivist task-based approach to computer-assisted language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003; Leahy, 2008) was adopted with a view towards helping students develop communication skills in English, based on the need for European universities to put a clear and coherent language policy in place that takes into account cultural and linguistic diversity, as established by the European Commission.

The high level of complexity of the different tasks of the project derived from the fact that they required a multiple focus on input processing, content selection, organisation and production (Strobl, 2014), as well as mastery in the usage of ICT and competence to convey their messages in a multimodal format. These included: WebQuest completion; digital story-telling scriptwriting; self-correction; audio-visual resource selection and assembling; voice-over narration recordings; drawing on collaboration skills; critical analysis and peer assessment; the rhetoric of oral presentations, etc. (Lowenthal 2002 & 2008).

The project was completed by the students in several stages: completing a pre- and post-project questionnaire; learning about digital storytelling by completing a WebQuest; making decisions about their digital stories (topic, plot, software and media); sharing their stories with their classmates through the University's VLE; critically watching their

classmates' digital stories; using the forum to write their comments about their own digital stories as well as their classmates' and preparing and presenting their description of the topic chosen and of the creative process in front of the class, in addition to completing two assessment forms and interacting in the university's online forum. The students were advised to follow the dates in which they were supposed to complete every stage, trying not to go too fast or too slowly. The different dates and deadlines were shown in the calendar accessible through the VLE.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of the study were 96 (N=96) first-year International Business students who were enrolled in the *Business English* subject. They were between 18 and 25 years of age, their proficiency level was B2 according to the CEFRL and they worked in groups of 4 to complete the different tasks of the project, having produced 31 digital stories in total.

Data collection

The 96 students who took part in the study were asked to fill in a questionnaire upon completion of the project, which inquired about their satisfaction toward the features of the different activities of the project, seeking as much detail and insight as possible. Queries referred to whether they found the project motivating; whether it was effective in terms of improving their oral skills, demonstrating their knowledge, learning about different topics relating to International Business, improving their pronunciation; developing their digital skills, speaking skills, listening skills, reading skills, writing skills, creativity, critical-thinking skills, research skills, team-working skills, organisation skills, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills; whether they had been anxious about the project; whether they had enjoyed creating digital stories and preparing and delivering their oral presentations; whether they found the workload adequate for the preparation time they were given; the estimated time they needed to complete the whole project; whether they had found the resources available to them sufficient; whether all of the team members had worked equally; whether they would recommend the project to other students; whether they thought digital storytelling could be useful in other degree subjects; whether they found the oral presentation useful in helping them reflect upon the creative process involved, in developing their speaking and listening skills; and whether their overall expectations about the project had been fulfilled. Additionally, the students were asked to vote for the best stories in different categories: best digital story, best script, best voice actors and actresses, the best audiovisual resources, best oral presentations, best Original Sound Track or audio effects, most original digital story, and the most inspiring or touching digital story.

In the structured open-ended questions, students were asked to complete statements about what they liked and disliked about the project, how team-work had helped them, their overall opinion about the project; something they had learnt by carrying out the project, a difficulty they had encountered, how they would describe the project in terms of learning English, whether they thought the project had helped them develop their critical thinking and reflective skills; and what they thought about the forum, the process of creating their digital stories and the presentation. Additionally, the last part of the survey was designed to seek the learners' suggestions for improvement in terms of task design and contents and activities within the project. The questions asked were both closed-ended and open-ended.

Measurement of variables

The variables measured were: interest and motivation regarding the project (1); English knowledge demonstration and acquisition (2); learning English (3); ICT literacy (4); anxiety (5); oral skills (6); collaborative learning competence (7); and fulfilment of expectations (8). Each variable was composed of a number of different defining items and analysed using the SPSS software for a descriptive analysis.

Results and discussion

The findings were drawn from data gathered by means of direct observation, a pre-project and a post-project student opinion questionnaire, field journals and interviews with focus groups.

As stated before, 96 students completed the entire project and therefore submitted the questionnaires during the first semester of the academic year 2014-2015, which allowed the researchers to gather information on the variables studied, which had to do with their perceptions of different aspects of the project, such as whether their level of interest increased or decreased as time went by; whether they felt they had developed their English skills in general and their oral skills in particular while increasing their knowledge about topics relating to International Business; whether they had become more competent in the use of ICT; whether they had felt less or more anxious over time; and whether they felt that they had developed collaborative learning competences. The descriptive statistics of the variables studied are displayed in Table 1.

Descriptive statistics of the related samples

Variables (Pre/Post)	Mean	N	Typ. deviation	Mean typ. error
1- Motivation	4,99	96	1,476	,151
	5,67	96	,981	,100
2- Knowledge	4,88	96	1,242	,127
	5,07	96	1,028	,105
3- English learning	5,20	96	1,236	,126
	5,68	96	1,100	,112
4- ICT Literacy	5,96	96	,972	,099
	5,65	96	1,205	,123
5- Anxiety	3,96	96	1,753	,179
	4,91	96	1,529	,156
6- Oral skills	5,53	96	1,399	,143
	5,52	96	1,273	,130
7- Collaborative skills	5,91	96	1,188	,121
	6,40	96	1,000	,102
8- Expectations	5,48	96	1,515	,155
	5,49	96	1,066	,109

Table 1. Results of the pre- and post-questionnaires.

The students' responses to the questionnaire provided valuable information about the various aspects being analysed, which constituted the different variables listed below, each of which included different sub-items:

1. Motivation and level of interest and satisfaction: had they found the different activities of the project motivating? Had they enjoy completing each of the tasks? Would they recommend the project to other students? Would they think a similar project would be useful in other subjects of their degree? Did they find the resources available appropriate for the different tasks? Had all team members worked equally?
2. Knowledge demonstration and acquisition: had the project been effective in demonstrating their knowledge? Had they acquired new knowledge relating to International Business?
3. English learning: had their overall English skills improved? Had the project helped them develop different skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)? And their pronunciation? Had they learnt specific grammar and vocabulary connected with the topics dealt with?
4. ICT literacy: had they acquired more experience using ICT? Had the project helped them develop their ICT literacy?
5. Development of different skills and competences (oral skills, creativity, research skills, critical thinking, collaboration, organisation, problem-solving, decision-making): had the project helped them develop their oral skills? Had the project helped them develop their creativity? Had the project helped them develop their research skills? Had the project enabled them to become more critical thinkers? Had they developed organisation, problem-solving and decision-making skills? Did they find the reflective journal useful? Had they overall expectations about the project been fulfilled?
6. Team working: had their collaborative skills improved?
7. Level of anxiety: how anxious did they feel about the project? Did their level of anxiety increase or decrease over time?
8. Fulfilment of their expectations: had the project fulfilled their expectations? Would they recommend the project to other classmates? Would they find this project useful to learn other subjects of their degree?

All the aspects mentioned above were unanimously awarded a positive value in the post-project questionnaire, obtaining a grade of at least 5 out of 7 (in a seven-point Likert scale) in all cases. Moreover, statistically significant differences were observed in the case of the following variables: interest and motivation regarding the project (1); learning English (3); ICT literacy (4); anxiety (5); and collaborative learning competence (7).

Furthermore, the students' answers to the open-ended questions also revealed positive attitudes towards the different tasks and aspects of the project which were subject to inquiry: the digital stories and oral presentations they had liked the most in different categories; the aspects they liked about the project; their opinion about team work; their overall opinion about the project; what they had learnt; the difficulties they had encountered and how they had dealt with them; how they viewed the different tasks completed and the tools (Forum, calendar, editing software, collaborative writing tools, etc.) used; whether they thought the time allotted to each task had been enough; if they had spent more time working than they were expected to and, if so, why; and how long it took them to complete the whole project. Finally, when asked to define the project in just one word or short sentences, all the students agreed that the project was "relevant, meaningful, motivating, entertaining, hard but worth making the effort"

Concluding remarks

The results obtained were favourable with respect to applying such a methodology and encouraging in terms of the perceived improvement of the students' communicative skills, as well as gender awareness. The results also shed light on user preferences and levels of satisfaction concerning the project's task-based approach.

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Simon Smith

Coventry University, Coventry, United Kingdom

simon.smith@coventry.ac.uk

Construction and use of thematic corpora by academic English learners

Bio data

Simon Smith holds a BA in Linguistics & Chinese from the University of Leeds, an MSc in computational linguistics from UMIST (Manchester), and a PhD in prosodic analysis of speech from the University of Birmingham. After a postdoc year at Academia Sinica (Taiwan), he taught English for Academic Purposes at universities in Taiwan, China and Coventry University, UK. His research is on corpus linguistics and data-driven learning, English for Academic Purposes, and the acquisition of Mandarin Chinese.

Current research

In Smith (2011), the author demonstrated that university students learning English in Taiwan engage more effectively with a specialist corpus consultation task when it is they (the students) who have constructed the corpora; that is, when analysis of the corpus product is preceded by a construction process. A qualitative evaluation found that the construction of corpora in students' own majors was particularly likely to lead to acquisition of forms, especially specialist vocabulary.

This work was followed up with a small-scale study of Chinese accounting and finance majors, in an EAP setting, at Coventry University (Smith 2015). These students used lecture slides and other materials provided by subject tutors on the course VLE (Moodle), to build small, themed corpora on module topics such as International Finance or Management Accounting (in the manner of Aston, 2002). They then used the Sketch Engine to bootstrap larger corpora from the web, via a process of selecting and validating keywords from their VLE corpora.

In the present research, a larger group of accounting and finance students are using similar VLE derived corpora to construct a different kind of object: a technical vocabulary portfolio. Learners consider the vocabulary that matters to them, and gather together information and example usages in their own personal portfolio which they maintain in the cloud, for use in and out of class.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Our vocabulary portfolio task exhibits most of the TBL characteristics noted by Van den Branden (2013:629)—much of the language studied by learners is acquired from authentic sources such as an academic writing corpus, and learning materials supplied by subject tutors. Learners acquire language—both the terminology of accounting and finance, and the contexts in which the terms are used—as their web-based research proceeds; they truly “learn language by using it”, in Van den Branden’s words.

Van den Branden also stipulates that TBL learners should be engaging in “communication in the classroom”. As with many CALL activities, the learners are not communicating in the sense of writing or speaking. They are, however, reading, understanding, and

engaging with material, and making decisions about what should be recorded and learned, and what can be safely ignored.

The task can be characterized as a form of webquest, in that information from a variety of web sources is gathered and reflected upon. It is, however, more open-ended than a classical task in the Prabhu (1987) sense, since learners can work on it for as long as they wish. Furthermore, it is expected to have a linguistic outcome, as it directly addresses specialist vocabulary knowledge. It is supposed to stimulate serendipitous discovery, in the autonomous learning tradition (Bernardini, 2004), rather than attainment of a set of fixed goals.

Theme question: How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?

The portfolio construction activity is predicated on the data-driven learning approach suggested by Johns (1991), in which language learning may take the form of a research project. Learners posit and test hypotheses about aspects of the way language works. Learners are invited to conduct their research into vocabulary on the web, with lists of salient keywords (relating to particular subject lecture topics), and links to suggested searchable vocabulary resources, being conveniently supplied in a single spreadsheet file. Tyne (2009) and Charles (2014) have emphasized the importance of learner ownership of the corpora and similar resources they construct; in this work, the learner not only determines the content of the resource, but also decides how to customize it and make it their own through their choice of colours, formatting and other features of the spreadsheet itself.

Because the supplied words are corpus-derived, and have not been filtered manually, the learner's first task is to reflect on their status as domain keywords. The list is supplied to students as a data column in an Excel file ordered by salience to the domain, as determined by Sketch Engine, but there are some non-domain words (words like "exam" or "coursework" or even the module code) which are salient to the course but not to the domain.

Theme question: What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?

Learners are supplied with a template portfolio spreadsheet, which includes a list of candidate keywords, and web hyperlinks to a number of searchable resources, including both specialist and general dictionaries, and the BAWE corpus of student academic writing. Learners are invited to complete blank columns in the spreadsheet with general and specific definitions, and example sentences, from the provided resources and from the teaching materials on the VLE. Learners do, however, need to be comfortable with the use of the web, and MS Office tools; in our case, they all are, and the experience may well afford transferable (IT) as well as language skills.

In Smith (2011) and (2015) the students benefited from the corpus construction process, but it was not always clear to them how to interrogate and use the resource once finalized. The beauty of the vocabulary portfolio is that it stimulates research and enquiry in the construction phase, but remains a useful revision tool in the consultation phase, in the cloud, or at least the local shared drive. It can conveniently be added to, as long as the learner has an interest in English and their field of study: very likely, throughout their professional lives.

Short paper

The idea of supporting language learning with the use of corpora has been around since 1991, when Tim Johns coined the term data-driven learning (DDL). The corpus approach invites learners to tease out patterns from authentic text, and test their own linguistic hypotheses in the manner of a mini research project; it has an intuitive appeal to teachers who favour student-centred or inductive learning.

In this pilot study, students construct their own web corpora based on presentation slides and materials from their subject lecturers. This is intended to help them build up their subject vocabulary, as well as access authentic texts in their subject area. Informal feedback has been positive, and more formal findings will be reported at the conference which this paper has been prepared for.

Corpus construction by learners: prior work

It has been claimed (Tyne 2009; Charles 2014) that the process of creating a corpus inculcates a sense of ownership in the learner and therefore has a motivational impetus. This is especially true, it is claimed here, when the topic of the corpus is of personal interest to the learner, or coincides with their major field of study. Once the corpus is constructed, some students may be sufficiently motivated to consult it and add to it when needed. Moreover, the process of compiling the corpus may lead to the acquisition of not only language, but also useful transferable skills, including IT and problem-solving competencies.

Tyne (2009) reported on a course in which British students were asked to create French corpora based on spoken data; Seidlhofer (2002) described the use of a collaborative learner corpus in her class of trainee English teachers, making the students' own work the "primary objects of analysis" (p. 217).

Castagnoli (2006) had translation trainees use the BootCaT toolkit (Baroni & Bernardini, 2004) to generate web corpora on specific topics, and extract lists of terms, which could be used to compile glossaries and term databases. The students found that a larger number of relevant terms could be extracted when the domain chosen was highly specialized. By way of assessment, the students were given a technical translation task, and were asked to prepare for it by building a web corpus in the relevant domain, and extracting from it a glossary of terms.

In a paper in CALL, Smith (2011), I extended Castagnoli's approach to non-specialist language learners in a Taiwan university. Corpus construction is seeded or bootstrapped from a set of user-supplied keywords: first a search engine module finds web pages that are "about" the keywords, then other BootCaT software components extract text from the web pages and generate the corpus. Students were asked to construct and consult a corpus relating to their own academic discipline, and provide analysis and commentary, with one student, for example, commenting:

Creating a specialized corpus could be useful when it comes to researching a particular subject or learning a subject in English. It is useful because of the different results which are much more relevant than searching on a much more general English corpus.

Smith (2011) was conducted in a general English context, and did not fully examine whether students acquired language specific to their discipline. A follow-up study, Smith (2015), acted as a pilot to the present study. It differs from the 2011 study in that (1) the corpora created were focused on the students' subject area, which was Accounting and Finance for International Business (AFIB), and not selected by students; and (2) the corpora were seeded from lecture slides (PowerPoint files) in the subject area, and not merely from keywords.

In this study, a small group of six AFIB students, all from China, undertook the corpus construction as part of an in-session English for Academic Purposes (EAP) class on their one-year top-up course at a UK University. The work was conducted over a period of four teaching weeks (2 hours per week). In the first two lessons, an introduction to the use of corpora and the reading of concordance lines was given, with students looking at academic writing samples from the BAWE corpus. In weeks 3 and 4, students constructed and consulted their own corpora. Student feedback was sought, and representative comments included:

The work is useful for my AFIB study. Because the software list the word which I do not understand very clearly. I can learn the speech and the meaning of this word.

The present study: participants

This study constitutes a larger scale, quantitative follow-up to Smith (2015), and is being run in the current academic year. The entire cohort of AFIB top-up students (n=94), consisting of 4 EAP class groups, are participating in the study. With the exception of either one or two members of each class, all are L1 Chinese speakers. Two of the class groups (EFA3 and EFA4) acted as control groups, and two (EFA1 and EFA2) as experimental groups, with the latter being taught by the researcher. The control group classes were conducted in a computer lab, and in addition to the normal EAP work specified by the syllabus, were given the opportunity to do corpus-based vocabulary work for an average of 20 minutes per two-hour, weekly class. The control groups were given a list of financial domain vocabulary to study in their own time.

Two sub-domains of vocabulary were studied, related to two of the financial modules that all participants were studying in their home department. EFA1 (experimental group) and EFA3 (control) focused on Management Accounting, while EFA2 and EFA4 explored the vocabulary of International Finance. The participant configuration is shown in Figure 1.

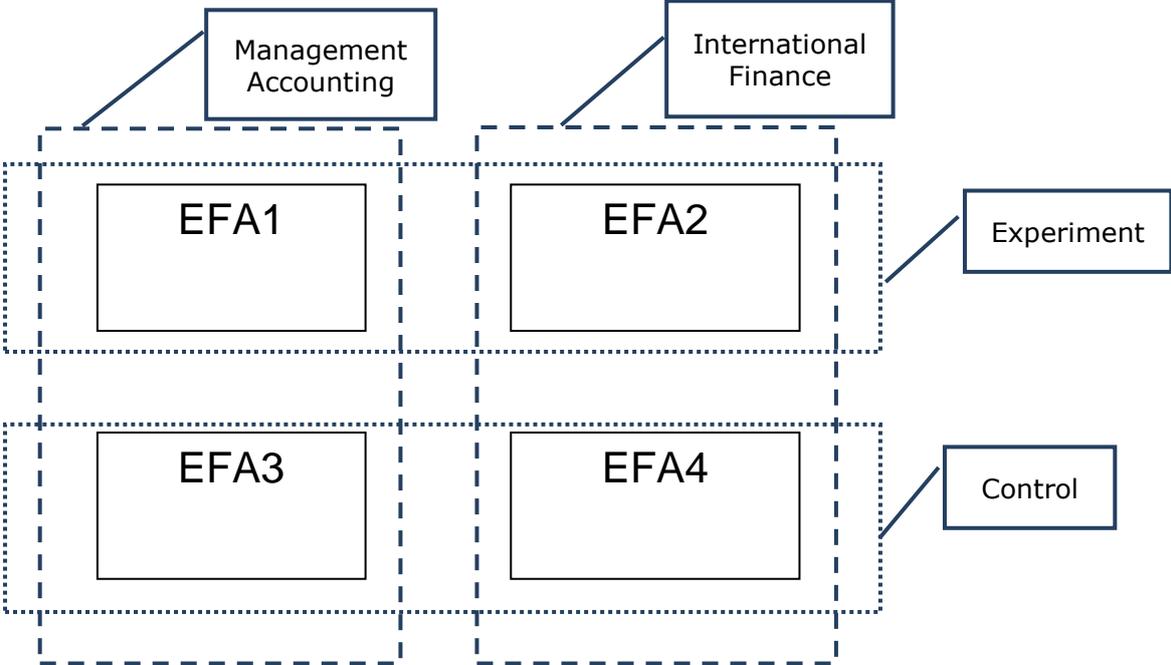


Figure 1 Configuration of participant groups

Pre- and post-tests

A pre-test, designed to test participants' knowledge of vocabulary in both the financial sub-domains, was administered at the start of the semester. The test included 20 abbreviation items such as NPV and IMF, which the participants were asked to expand (in this case, to "net present value" and "International Monetary Fund" respectively). There were also 10 gap-fill questions, for example "The bonds are trading at only 40% of f_____ v_____", to which the correct answer would have been "face value". This was followed by 10 definitions, such as "a legal way of reducing the amount of tax a person or company would normally pay: T_____ a_____". This particular item should be answered "tax avoidance".

In the pre-test, half of the items belonged to the sub-domain of Management Accounting, the other half to International Finance. There are no significant differences between the pre-test performances of the different groups. A very similar post-test, containing the same items as the pre-test, in a different order, will be administered at the end of the semester (before the CALL conference in Tarragona, so that the results will by then be available). It is predicted that

1. All groups will perform significantly better in the post-test than they did in the pre-test
2. EFA1 and EFA2 will perform better overall in the post-test than EFA3 and EFA4.
3. EFA1 will perform better than EFA2, and EFA3 better than EFA4, on Management Accounting items.
4. EFA2 and EFA4 will do better on the International Finance test items.

Corpus construction and consultation

In the first three of the weekly classes, the experimental participants created and consulted their own corpora. The corpora were seeded from lecture PowerPoints, seminar discussion notes and other materials provided by teachers in the AFIB department, not from user-selected keywords. Figure 1 shows a typical lecture PowerPoint.

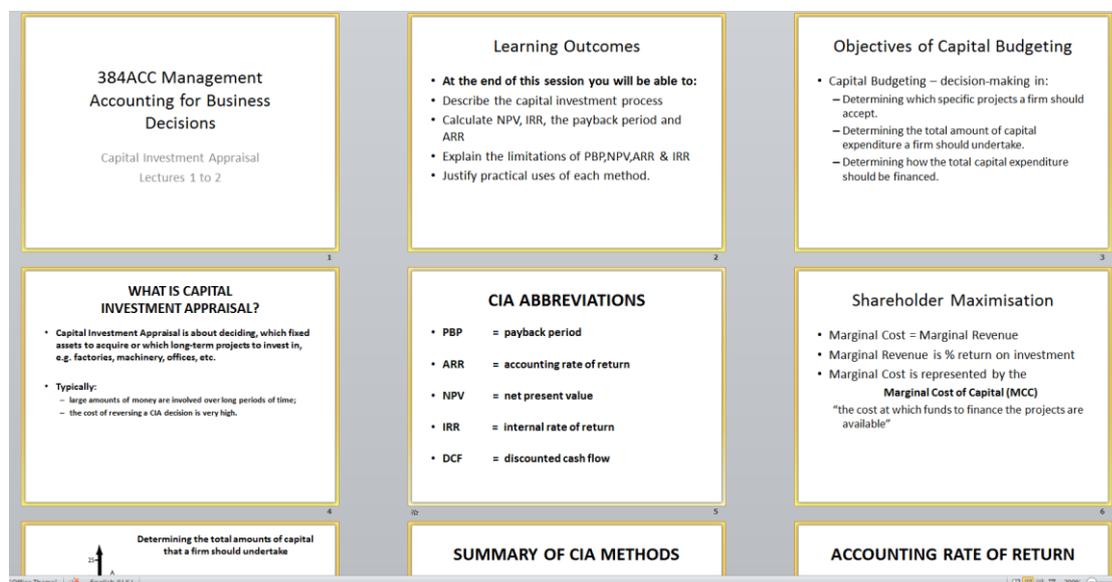


Figure 2 Management Accounting lecture slides

Conveniently, Sketch Engine can be used to upload text from a variety of document types to create and add to a corpus. Standardly, in the HE sector, students are given online access to teaching and learning materials via a Virtual Learning Environment (VLE), and Coventry University, like many institutions, uses Moodle for this purpose. As

each new week's lecture slides and seminar notes were made available, the students would add in the new content and grow their corpus.

The procedure for constructing a corpus (and consulting it) is shown in Figure 3. First, the user uploads the text content of teaching materials to form a mini-corpus, using the Sketch Engine Corpus Architect. Because of the nature of lecture slides, the resulting corpus does not contain many full sentences, but it will include the key vocabulary for the particular topic. Students could opt to create a more specialized corpus, consisting of perhaps just one PowerPoint, for example on "Capital Investment Appraisal", to which two lectures were devoted. Alternatively they might decide to create a whole-module corpus, such as "Management Accounting".

Corpus construction is seeded with a set of user-supplied keywords: first a search engine module finds web pages that are "about" the keywords, then other BootCat software components extract text from the web pages and generate the corpus, which can then be consulted in various ways.

The Sketch Engine software is then used to generate a list of the most salient words in the corpus (words found frequently in the corpus, which are not found in a reference corpus). Thus, the word the is not salient, because it is found with equal frequency in both specialist and reference corpora. The BootCat software (included in Sketch Engine) is then used to bootstrap a much larger corpus, consisting of texts from the web. Figure 3 illustrates this process.

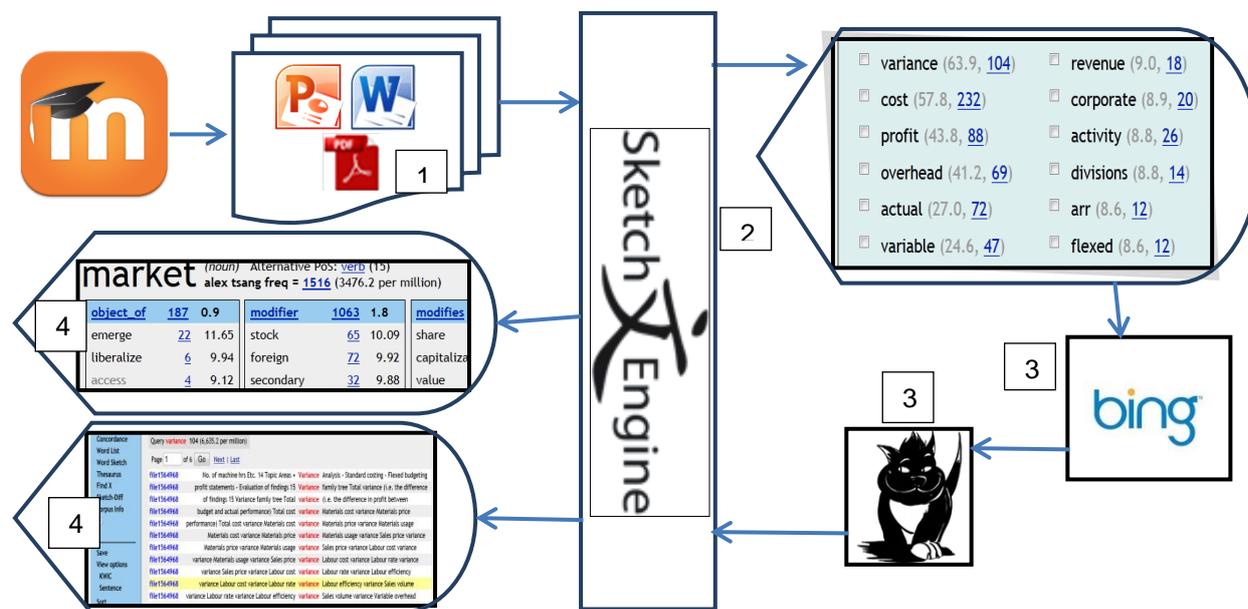


Figure 3 Schematic of corpus construction and consultation. Key: 1. Text input. 2. Wordlist from mini-corpus. 3. Bing API interacts with BootCat. 4. Word sketch and concordance displays from web corpus.

The larger corpus is then available to be used by students in the following ways

1. To produce lists of subject area words and terms for study
2. To view word sketches, which give a one-page view of the collocations and grammatical structures in which a word or term participates.
3. To view the words and terms in context, using concordancing
4. To link back to the original texts on the web.

Vocabulary portfolios

Students were also asked to create and work with personal vocabulary portfolios. For this purpose, lecture topics (such as “Capital Investment Appraisal”) were selected by the instructor/researcher, and corpora were prepared in advance. A list of the most salient words in the domain was generated by the instructor, and students would transfer their choice of domain terms into their portfolio, which took the form of an Excel spreadsheet. Columns in the spreadsheet could be used to insert a financial dictionary definition, a general language definition, examples of term use from the BAWE corpus, and an L1 translation if desired. Links to resources were provided within the template Excel file, for ease of use, and students were encouraged to keep the portfolios up to date on a weekly basis. Figure 4 shows part of one student’s vocabulary profile.

Keywords for students		Finance definition	Sentence from dictionary site	Translation
Word				
http://www.investopedia.com/dictionary/	capital	Money invested in a business to generate income.	The manpower and capital required to successfully market a product can be impossible for a tiny startup.	資本/Tu bān
www.businessdictionary.com	goodwill	the difference between the value of a company's assets and what profit it is expected to make in the future, which is included in the price paid when it is	We expect the business to raise at least \$100,000 in goodwill.	善意，友善，友好，親善...
http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/business-english/	receivables	amounts owed by customers to a company at a particular time and not yet paid	The company improved the management of its receivables by getting customers to pay faster.	应收账款
http://www.ldoceonline.com/	nominal value	Nominal value in economics also refers to a value expressed in monetary terms for a specific year	if a nation registers GDP growth of 5% in a given year and annual inflation is 2%, real GDP growth	票面价值
http://www.macmillandictionary.com/	intangible	used about something that has value for a business, although it does not exist in a physical way	Examples of intangible property include bonds, shares, copyrights, and patents.	(感覺或性質) 難以捉摸的，無法形容的，難以確定的...
http://dictionary.reference.com/	share capital	a type of share in an investment company which offers shareholders profits because of an increase in value of the company's investments, but to spread the value or cost of an asset	Investors seeking capital growth should now be considering capital shares in investment trusts	股份資本
http://www.wiktionary.org/	amortise	in accounts over a number of years	The value of the machinery is amortized over its estimated useful life.	分期償還(債務)...
http://www.mdbg.net	share premium	the extra value of a share in relation to its value when it was issued	The original nominal value plus any share premium returned to the shareholders will be tax-free.	股票溢價
http://www.nciku.com/	bonus issue	an occasion when a company changes its profits into shares and gives these shares to shareholders. Those people then own more shares but each share	Investors approved a four-for-one bonus issue.	紅利股發行
	capitalise	to include part of the money spent on equipment, buildings, etc. as an asset in your accounts each year over a period of years	We can capitalize the cost of new machinery over the next ten years	積累資本，是資本化
	closing inventory	the goods that a business has available for sale at the end of an accounting period, or the value of those goods		期末存貨
https://the.sketchengine.co.uk/bonito/run/	accruals	an increase in an amount of money over a period of time	The accrual of interest begins when the funds are credited to the account.	(錢的) 累積，增加，增多...

Figure 4 Student’s vocabulary portfolio excerpt

Domain vocabulary quizzes

For further variety, three PowerPoint vocabulary quizzes, with gapped KWIC concordances, were developed using the sub-domain corpora. These were presented on Moodle for students to work on in pairs, and in whole-class format for answer checking. These were similar to the test items described under pre- and post-tests, above.

Findings and limitations

The study is not yet complete; the results of the post-test will be announced when available. The results of a post semester feedback questionnaire will also be published. Informal feedback so far has suggested that the tasks are engaging, interesting and instructive, but for this I have only anecdotal evidence, and in particular I have yet to establish whether students will find (a) the corpus construction and consultation or (b) the vocabulary portfolio compilation more beneficial.

One possible downside is that it was quite difficult to schedule the vocabulary tasks when there is a crowded EAP syllabus to cover, and the class only meets for two hours every

week. This meant that I was not able to run the tasks every week, or as often as I would have liked. In the end, too, more emphasis had to be placed on the vocabulary portfolios and less on corpus construction, as the latter required individual Sketch Engine logins which were difficult to set up and administer.

Some tasks were also assigned for self-study, with students being asked to feed back to the class by way of Moodle forums. With this particular cohort of students, however, other coursework commitments (and perhaps motivational factors) meant that students were happier working on tasks in the classroom. The presence of a facilitating teacher probably also provided reassurance for them.

Summary and future plans

This short paper has described two types of computer-mediated tasks, where students work and learn autonomously. They use pedagogically relevant corpus resources to construct and consult a language-learning database (corpus, or vocabulary portfolio) of which they can take ownership, retain and grow.

In future cohorts, the approach will be repeated on a larger scale: EAP students in other disciplines (for example business and engineering) will be encouraged to create these resources. In our university context, this will bring the added benefit of extending the demographics of the study: virtually all AFIB students at our institution are from China, and it would be interesting to see whether the findings can be generalized to other cultural backgrounds.

The project had to be kept reasonably small-scale, as insufficient lab classrooms were available for all students. As online task-based learning solutions gain in popularity, availability may well improve, with more provision of laptops and tablets for students. The classroom lab used in the study boasted individual workstations as well as a central long table where students can reconvene for whole-class discussion; we can expect to see this kind of provision grow as well. This would perhaps allay some of the concerns of those teachers who have until now felt uncomfortable doing classroom management in a lab context—and this can be a barrier to in-class computer use.

Traditionally, quite a lot of CALL provision intended for lab use has consisted of gap-fill or drop-down menu tasks. Students tend to find these quite fun, but they may be of greater utility for mastering (say) the mechanics of paraphrasing, or the niceties of a particular tense, than the discovery of relevant, authentic language patterns. This, I claim, is exactly what a corpus-informed lexical resource creation task does provide.

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Vance Stevens

Khalifa Bin Zayed Air College, Al Ain, United Arab Emirates

vancestev@gmail.com

Minecraft as a model for gamification in teacher training

Bio data

Vance Stevens has been CALL coordinator, CALL software developer, consultant, lecturer in computing, teacher coordinator, and currently teaches EFL in UAE. He is a founder of Webheads in Action CoP and CALL-IS in TESOL. He helps coordinate TESOL Electronic Village Online and moderates sessions there. He coordinates the Learning2gether weekly webinar series and is on the editorial boards of TESL-EJ and CALL Journal.

Current research

The context of the work I am reporting here is online teacher training via Electronic Village Online. EVO is a series of 5-week sessions that have taken place online each Jan / Feb for the past 15 years, and I have moderated sessions in the majority of those years. My approach has evolved from modeling experiential social learning in 2002 through applying MOOC models in my most recent sessions, to introducing gamification techniques into my very latest session, called EVO Minecraft MOOC. The idea behind this session is to apply the principles supporting the MOOC approach (e.g. connectivism, theory of knowledge distribution in networks, and rhizomatic learning as espoused by Siemens, Downes, and Cormier) with what we are learning about gamification to produce a framework for teacher training that models learning in the same way that teachers should apply that learning when conducting their own classes. The vehicle for this approach is the game Minecraft, which has been shown to have remarkable affordances for facilitating learning in a range of subjects, particularly foreign languages.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Minecraft is an engaging game that has proven quite popular with young people, and we are finding that teachers of all ages are drawn to it as well. The demographics are such that Minecraft is capable of reversing the normal student teacher dichotomy whereby teachers traditionally are older than and assumed to know more than their students. When Minecraft is introduced to young learners by experienced teachers, the students tend to take charge of their learning by guiding the teacher into the vagaries of the game. In our EVO session for example, the teacher participants have been joined by teen and pre-teen players who are demonstrating skills in the game that the teachers are keen to learn. In this process the young learners increase their self-esteem with respect to their "teachers" and the teachers gain greater awareness of what it is to be a learner in a game-driven and task-based environment.

Another aspect of our EVO session is to flip the assumptions of who gives such sessions. The presenter knew nothing about actually playing Minecraft but was intrigued enough by the potential of the game that he proposed the session as one that would evolve as a game. That is, the moderators submitted their proposal not knowing how to play the game (or how teach others to play it) or what the outcome would be, apart from their prediction that by setting the process in motion, game-driven task-based learning would

occur. Other teachers were attracted to the concept, including some who had some experience in the game, one of whom became our co-moderator. Participants were attracted to the session for the same reasons -- not that their learning paths had been prescribed for them in a neatly pre-set syllabus (something that moderators are encouraged to develop and which participants typically look for when choosing EVO sessions) but that by entering the "game" or session, learning would happen for them in a way that participants would come to understand by experiencing it.

Thus the presentation addresses many of the questions put by the theme of the conference; for example: how do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks? Minecraft is definitely enjoyable and strong arguments have been made for its adaptability to a range of learning contexts. The game lends itself to language learning using an approach that is task-based, as all players are by definition builders, but also in that all players can be story-tellers who can act out and record narratives set within the game in ways that engage them to develop their language skills.

This presentation will examine what teachers (who are learning about the game through the experience of playing it as learners) are learning about designing worlds within the game that will meet their curriculum objectives and create an engaging and enjoyable experience for learners (Minecraft has been shown by research and by anecdote to be effective in doing that). But above all, the presentation explores how teachers can be made aware of the affordances of Minecraft by creating such spaces for one another and interacting in those spaces with young learners who in effect become their teachers.

Short paper

The context of the work reported here is online teacher training via a session running under the auspices of the TESOL-sponsored Electronic Village Online. EVO is a series of 5-week sessions that have taken place online each Jan / Feb for the past 15 years, and I have moderated sessions in the majority of those years. My approach has evolved from modeling experiential social learning in 2002 (Stevens, 2004) through applying MOOC models in my most recent sessions on multiliteracies; e.g EVO MultiMOOC, <http://goodbyegutenberg.pbworks.com> (Stevens, 2014), to introducing gamification techniques into my very latest session, Jan-Feb 2015, called EVO Minecraft MOOC.

The idea behind this session was to apply the principles supporting the MOOC approach - e.g. connectivism, theory of knowledge distribution in networks, and rhizomatic learning as espoused by Siemens (2004), Downes (2012), and Cormier (2008) -- with what we are learning about gamification to produce a framework for teacher training that models learning in the same way that teachers should apply that learning when conducting their own classes. The vehicle for this approach was the game Minecraft, which has been shown to have remarkable affordances for facilitating learning in a range of subjects, particularly foreign languages.

Minecraft is an engaging game that has proven quite popular with young people, and we are finding that teachers of all ages are drawn to it as well (Smolčec, Smolčec, and Stevens, 2014). The demographics are such that Minecraft is capable of reversing the normal student teacher dichotomy whereby teachers traditionally are older than and assumed to know more than their students. We found through the experience of participants in our EVO session that when Minecraft is introduced to young learners by experienced teachers, the students tend to take charge of their learning by guiding the teacher into the vagaries of the game. In our EVO session for example, the teacher participants were joined by teen and pre-teen players who demonstrated skills in the game that the teachers were keen to learn. In this process the young learners increased their self-esteem with respect to their "teachers" and the teachers gained greater awareness of what it is to be a learner in a game-driven and task-based environment.

Another aspect of our EVO session is to flip the assumptions of who gives such sessions. The presenter knew nothing about actually playing Minecraft but was intrigued enough by the potential of the game that he proposed the session as one that would itself evolve as a game. That is, the moderators submitted their proposal not knowing how to play the game (or how to teach others to play it) or what the outcome would be, apart from their prediction that by setting the process in motion, game-driven task-based learning would occur. Other teachers were attracted to the concept, including some who had some experience in the game, one of whom became our co-moderator (Kuhn, 2015). Participants were attracted to the session for the same reasons -- not that their learning paths had been prescribed for them in a neatly pre-set syllabus (something that moderators are encouraged to develop and which participants typically look for when choosing EVO sessions) but that by entering the "game" or session, learning would happen for them in a way that participants would come to understand by experiencing the process that Ito et al (2010) characterize as "hanging out, messing around, and geeking out."

This paper examines what teachers (who are learning about the game through the experience of playing it as learners) are learning about designing worlds within the game context that will meet their curriculum objectives and create an engaging and enjoyable experience and task-based environment for learners (Minecraft has been shown by research and by anecdote to be effective in doing that). But above all, the paper explores how teachers can be made aware of the affordances of Minecraft by creating such spaces for one another and interacting in those spaces with young learners who in effect become their teachers. It also serves as an example of how we teachers can use what we have learned through our experience with MOOCs to form communities of practice to reboot our own learning, using the community as curriculum (Cormier, 2008).

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Glenn Stockwell

Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

gstock@waseda.jp

Insights from replication on the factors affecting successful task implementation in mobile learning

Bio data

Glenn Stockwell is Professor at Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan. His research interests include mobile learning, motivation and technology, and the role of technology in the language learning process. He has published two books, numerous book chapters, and several articles in international journals in CALL, and he is on the editorial boards of numerous international journals in the field.

Current research

A common problem that has long been seen in the CALL literature is that many tasks and activities that are reported are small scale studies taking place in a single environment with a limited number of subjects, often as a result of teachers investigating the outcomes of their own teaching (see Warschauer, 1997; Hubbard, 2005). Given the nature of the environments in which many teachers find themselves, it is in some way inevitable that studies tend to be of a smaller scale and often undertaken within a single class. It is possible to gain deeper insights into the tasks used through replication studies (Porte, 2013). This presentation discusses the potential insights gained from replicating approximately the same basic language learning tasks in varied contexts. Research on vocabulary and listening tasks was carried out in Japan over a 5-year period from 2010 through 2014 for Japanese learners of English. In addition, the same tasks were adapted for Australian learners of Japanese in 2012 and Taiwanese learners of English in 2013. Data were collected through post-treatment surveys, semi-structured interviews and server logs recording the times spent on the tasks, the scores achieved, and the devices used to engage in the tasks. The same methods of data collection were used in each of the studies, using primarily the same tasks apart from adaptations made for developments in technology and for the different language learning contexts. Carrying out the same tasks in subsequent years with increasingly newer technologies and with teachers and learners from different cultural backgrounds provided insights into the effect of the context, the technology, and role of both teachers and learners in successfully implementing the tasks

Task-based language learning and teaching

When considering replicating studies based on the same basic tasks, there are two main questions that appear to be particularly relevant:

To what extent do tasks depend on context?

The current study discusses how the same basic language learning tasks were implemented in seven different contexts, five in Japan, one in Taiwan and one in Australia. Despite the fact that five of the studies took place in Japan, each was unique in that the technologies changed over time, and the views towards technologies was different. In particular, in the fifth replication of the study in 2014, learner training was carried out that resulted in some changes to the tasks due to the increased

communication between the teachers and the learners. In Taiwan, it was evident that learners had a different perspective towards the tasks, and this ended up being largely due to the way that the teacher conducted them. There were again quite different outcomes using the tasks in Australia, due to the nature of the language being studied (Japanese as opposed to English) and the way in which the teacher framed the tasks. In this way, it was clear that the context had a significant impact on the nature of the tasks, the way they were perceived, and perhaps even their ultimate success.

What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?

This question is in some way related to the earlier one, in that the technology was a part of the larger context, and the affordances and the limitations of technology were clearly evident over time, and in the different countries in which they were used. In Japan, the early tasks were carried out at a time when smart phones were owned by very few of the learners, but as time progressed, this ownership increased dramatically. This meant that the technology possessed shifted to different devices than those earlier on, and it made it possible to carry out the tasks in a different way from the pre-smart phones in terms of the ease of listening and the learner interface. Furthermore, it was evident that the technologies owned by learners were quite different in Australia from Japan, with a markedly higher rate of ownership of tablets and laptop computers. Furthermore, the inputting of Japanese for the Australian learners also meant required learners to know how to install and use a Japanese keyboard, which many learners found difficult. Thus, the results suggested that teachers need to have a clear understanding of what technologies are being used in their individual contexts in order to be able to facilitate optimum engagement in the tasks carried out using these technologies.

Short paper

Introduction

Over the last decades, CALL research has become increasingly sophisticated, in terms of the focus of the research itself and the variety of methods adopted to examine the phenomena under investigation. A persisting problem is, however, that many tasks and activities that are reported in the CALL literature are part small scale studies taking place in a single environment with a limited number of subjects (Hubbard, 2005), often as a result of teachers investigating the outcomes of their own teaching (Warschauer, 1997). When considering the nature of the environments in which many teachers and researchers find themselves, it is in some way inevitable that studies tend to be of a smaller scale and often undertaken within a single class. Carrying out studies with larger numbers of students is not always possible, particularly in language classes where the focus is on maintaining smaller class sizes. Thus, in order to collect larger quantities of data, the need arises to carry out replications of studies, either by the teacher/researcher themselves or by enlisting the help of others who would be will and able to carry out a comparable study.

It is very difficult, however, to conduct studies that are exact replications in the social sciences (Chun, 2012). There will invariably be some differences that will emerge when using different subjects, regardless of the efforts that might be put in to keeping other conditions as similar as possible. Furthermore, when technology is entered into the equation, there are other extraneous variables that come into play. Technologies develop rapidly, and as such, what may have been the mainstream technology at some point ceases to be so only a few years later. This problem is exacerbated when learners possess their own technologies such as may be seen through mobile learning. Mobile language learning contexts will typically consist of a mix of device types, operating systems, screen sizes and even usage plans, all of which may have an impact on how learners use them to undertake language learning tasks and activities.

These changes do not necessarily mean that replications have little value, and as Chun (2012) points out, controlling for different variables can be something that is done intentionally, such as the language that is being studied or some aspects of the tasks and activities that are being carried out. Even when essentially the same basic task is used, replicating it in varied contexts makes it possible to gain deeper insights into how factors that might be taken for granted can impact its design (see Porte, 2012).

This paper discusses the potential insights gained from replicating approximately the same basic language learning tasks in varied contexts, varying in the number of subjects, the country the study took place, the language being studied, the technologies owned by students, and the number of subjects.

Method

Research on vocabulary and listening tasks was carried out in Japan over a 5-year period from 2010 through 2014 for Japanese learners of English. In addition, the same tasks were adapted for Australian learners of Japanese in 2012 and Taiwanese learners of English in 2013. In all cases, data were collected through post-treatment surveys, semi-structured interviews and server logs recording the times spent on the tasks, the scores achieved, and the devices used engage in the tasks. The same methods of data collection were used in each of the studies, using primarily the same tasks apart from adaptations made for developments in technology and for the different language learning contexts.

Table 1. Breakdown of studies investigated

No	Year	Country	Language	Smart phone	Subjects
1	2010	Japan	English	25.6%	39
2	2011	Japan	English	40.0%	45
3	2012	Japan	English	61.4%	57
4	2012	Australia	Japanese	66.7%	21
5	2013	Japan	English	73.4%	49
6	2013	Taiwan	English	87.8%	123
7	2014	Japan	English	100.0%	41
<i>TOTAL</i>					<i>375</i>

In all, a total of 375 participants took part in seven different studies, as can be seen presented chronologically in Table 1. The studies that took place in Australia (Study 4) and in Taiwan (Study 6) were done in conjunction with other researchers who were responsible for the teaching. Study 7 in 2014 differed from the previous four studies that were conducted in Japan due (Studies 1, 2, 3 & 5) to the fact that learner training was implemented as an integrated part of the study. These four studies were essentially the same apart from the number of subjects and the proportion of smart phones possessed by the learners.

Overview of the results

Carrying out very similar tasks in different years with increasingly higher proportions of smart phones and with teachers and learners from different cultural backgrounds provided insights into the effect of the context, the technology, and role of both teachers and learners in successfully implementing the tasks. The results of the analysis indicated that higher access to smart phones did not seem to a significant impact on mobile phone usage in completing the activities, but the role of the teacher, particularly the way in which the teacher encouraged learner engagement, had an enormous effect on how learners used them.

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Yan Tian

Shanghai Tong University, Shanghai, P.R.China

maryyantian@gmail.com - tianyan@sjtu.edu.cn

Authentic translation task in the class of computer assisted translation for MTI postgraduate students

Bio data

Yan Tian is Professor in the School of Foreign Languages at Shanghai Jiao Tong University (SJTU). She received her Ph.D. in Computational Linguistics from the Department of Computer Science & Engineering at SJTU. Her interests include Intelligent Computer-assisted Language Learning and Computational Linguistics. She is the member of both CALICO and IALLT as well as the associate editor of The IALLT Journal.

Current research

MTI is the abbreviation for the master degree program called "Master of Translation and Interpreting". Approved by The Degree Committee of the State Council, MTI program started in 2007 in China. Currently, most colleges and universities enroll MTI postgraduate students in order to meet the big demand for high-level professional translators and interpreters.

Computer-assisted Translation is a two credit course which lasts for 16 weeks. The well-known translation software *Trados* is to be mastered after taking the course. For this reason, our university installed a *Trados* lab that provides each student a computer with *SDL Trados* software, including *SDL Trados Studio 2011*, *SDL Multi Term 2011*.

To help students to be able to use *Trados* quickly and skillfully, the author adopted an authentic task teaching approach, namely asking students to use *Trados* to translate a scientific book, entitled *Grammatical Framework---Programming with Multilingual Grammars*, for publication. Students were divided into small groups and the Chapters of the book were assigned to each group. In class, the author taught how to use *Trados* first, followed by students' translation with their specific Chapters. At the end of the course, the final version of the book that reached the publication criteria was finished by the whole class.

Task-based language learning and teaching

The author found that the authentic task teaching approach fits the course quite well. Immersed in the task, the students were very dedicated to their translation tasks both in class and out of class. Besides, they shared their frustrations and mistakes of using *Trados* with their group members frequently which benefited them a lot. Moreover, by discussion among group members, students could understand the concepts and various functions of *Trados* better. Also, during the review process, the students could learn from each other, not only from others' translation techniques, but also from the comments that others gave for their own translations with *Trados*.

From this research, the author believes that:

- When teachers design authentic tasks, they should make students believe the tasks are authentic. As in this research, the students fully believe that their translated book could be published.
- When teachers design meaningful tasks, they should choose authentic materials for students to work at. As in this research, a scientific book was translated from English to Chinese.
- When teachers design useful tasks, they should consider the goals of a course. For example, in this course, the goals are to help students to master Trados quickly and skillfully, to cooperate with their peer translators with the aid of Trados as in a translation company and to pass the online examination for SDL Trados preliminary certificate.
- When teachers design enjoyable tasks, they should get students fully involved by asking them to play their roles as those in the authentic situations. Just as in this research, students acted as translators as well as reviewers.
- Technology-based TBLT can obtain better results. Due to the multi-functions of the advanced software, students are exposed to advanced technology that enables them to enhance their learning efficiency. Also, advanced technology is able to increase the fun of classroom teaching.

Short paper

The course of *Computer-assisted Translation* is a required 2 credit class for MTI (Master of Translation and Interpreting) postgraduate students at Shanghai Jiao Tong University. The core content of this class is to teach students how to use the well-known translation software *SDL Trados* quickly and skillfully to assist their translation in the near future.

In order to equip students with the ability of using *SDL Trados* skillfully, our university bought the license of *SDL Trados 2011* and transformed a classroom into *Trados Lab* installed with 35 computers. The course is taught there for two periods of class every week for one semester.

18 postgraduate students registered for this course in the 2014 Spring Semester. In the first class, they were divided into 3 member groups. Then, an authentic translation task was assigned to the class, namely translating a book for publication with *Trados*. The book is entitled *Grammatical Framework---Programming with Multilingual Grammars*. It is a book for computer scientists and programmers to write grammars for several natural languages in parallel for computers to process so that applications can be achieved in such systems as tourist phrasebooks, spoken dialogue systems and natural language interfaces. It has 10 Chapters and 6 Appendixes with 331 pages and was published by CSLI Publications in California, USA in the year of 2011.

The author scanned the book in PDF form and delivered the chapters to each group, from the first chapter to the last appendix. Each group got about 3 Chapters or Appendixes to work at. First of all, the students were taught how to convert PDF files to Word files with the software, called ABBYY FineReader. Then, the author taught how to use *Trados*, including creating Termbases from Excel glossaries, creating a Translation Memory, translating single files as well as packages with *Trados*, generating AutoSuggest dictionaries and reviewing in *Trados Studio* and so on. When the translation project was finished, the students had to hand in their Translation Memory files (.sdltm), Termbase files (.sdltb) and bilingual files (.sdlxliff) as well as their project reports created by *Trados*. At the end of the semester, the students also took the online examination for *SDL Trados Preliminary Certificate* and all of them passed it.

In order to learn the effect of this authentic translation task teaching approach, the author asked the students to write summaries of taking this course in the form of a term paper in which such contents should be included as their attitude towards taking part in

this authentic translation project by using *Trados*, their problems encountered during the translation process and the solutions worked out, their gains and pains of participating in this task, etc..

By analyzing the students' summaries, the author learned that nearly 89% students said that they really enjoyed this authentic translation task with *Trados*. 71% students said that without the authentic task of translating a book for publication by *Trados*, they would not have learnt so many functions of *Trados* impressively in such a short time and successfully passed the online examination for *SDL Trados* Preliminary Certificate. 69% students said that they would have given up mastering some of the functions of *Trados* due to the complexity of the software without this authentic translation task to fulfill at the end of the semester.

In a word, most of the students' attitude towards this authentic translation task teaching approach is positive. The students are able to master *Trados* quickly and skillfully because they encountered lots of authentic translation problems with *Trados* in the process of translation. Therefore, we come to the conclusion that authentic translation task teaching approach works well in the class of Computer-assisted Translation for MTI postgraduate students.

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Phuong Tran Thi Ngoc

The University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam

ngocphuong205@gmail.com

Integrating learner training into task design of vocabulary activities on mobile phones

Bio data

Phuong Tran Thi Ngoc is an International Affairs Executive in The University of Danang, University of Foreign Language Studies, where she also works as an English lecturer for continuing education students. She received her MA in English Linguistics in Vietnam, and has taught and trained in Austria and Vietnam. She has jointly hosted the annual Action Research Colloquium for junior lecturers at the University since 2012.

Current research

While access to Internet-enabled computers has increased dramatically over the past several years, mobile phone ownership among university students in Vietnam has reached almost 100%. Mobile technologies have become increasingly popular to enable learners to undertake learning activities outside of the classroom, but there is evidence to suggest that learners are not always willing to engage in the activities (Kim et al., 2013). In many cases, even though learners indicated that they were willing to undertake activities on mobile devices outside of class time, this was not reflected in patterns of actual usage (Peterson, Divitini & Chabert, 2008). Recent research has suggested that providing training can improve learner engagement in vocabulary learning tasks (Stockwell & Hubbard, 2014). In the current study, Vietnamese learners of English engaged in vocabulary and grammar tasks using the Quizlet app on their mobile phones outside of class time. Learners were provided with technical training in class, while ongoing strategic and pedagogical training were provided through a combination of in-class activities and interactions through a dedicated Facebook page over a 5-week period. Usage patterns of the site were recorded through a learning journal and interactions on the Facebook page were analysed to determine the nature of the discussions that took place. Learner attitudes towards the tasks and the training were measured through pre- and post-questionnaires. The results are discussed in terms of how training may be implemented on an ongoing basis to sustain engagement in mobile-based language learning tasks.

Task-based language learning and teaching

There are three questions from the conference announcement which have been dealt with specifically in the current study, as follows:

To what extent do tasks depend on context?

The tasks in the current study involve learners using their mobile phones to complete vocabulary activities outside of class time, supported by training in technical, strategic and pedagogical aspects. There are three main elements involved in the tasks: 1. The vocabulary activities themselves, 2. Training provided in class by the teacher, and 3. Discussions through Facebook on how to use the activities and suggestions for supporting them. The tasks are quite dependent upon the context. Firstly, they depend on learners having access to smart phones, and secondly, they require learners to be

competent users of Facebook, and be willing to use it for learning purposes. In the current study, both of these conditions were met by the learners, who agreed to take part in the study in advance.

What affordances and limitations of technology should be considered in task design?

The affordances and limitations of the technologies (mobile phones and Quizlet) were also considered in the study. The affordances of mobile technologies mean learners can access the materials from anywhere at any time, and this has long been cited as an advantage of mobile technologies. Quizlet is a freely available mobile app that learners can download without cost on both Android and iOS phones, and once learners are registered, they can engage in activities easily. Teachers can keep records of learner progress and this can be useful in determining whether learners are keeping up with activities as required. This is linked directly to the learner training which forms an integral part of the study, in that teachers can see if the training has an impact on how learners engage in the activities. To this end, the technology serves not only as a platform through which learners can undertake language learning activities, but also as a means through which the teacher can monitor access and progress. There are, of course, limitations associated with the technologies used in the current study. Despite being designed to work on Android and iOS devices, the format of the activities themselves in the way that they appear on the screen does vary slightly. When learners are expected to discuss how they use the activities, and variations could cause confusion, or even division between users of the two different operating systems. Furthermore, Facebook is a social networking app, and it is possible that learners may feel resistance to using it for learning purposes over time, which is also one of the targets of the current study.

What is the role of corrective feedback in tasks?

The term corrective feedback is not entirely accurate in terms of correction of learner error. In the current study, learners are guided through training in class and Facebook to not only see how to engage in vocabulary activities, but also why. Thus providing feedback to the learners than goes beyond the mechanics of completing the activities, and more on how they can link to improved language proficiency, remains a large issue for consideration in the current study.

Short paper

Introduction

Vietnam has seen a massive increase in access to technologies over the past several years. While this access has also included widespread use of desktop computers, mobile phone ownership among university students in Vietnam has reached almost 100%. Comparatively inexpensive access to 3G networks has meant that mobile technologies have become increasingly popular to enable learners to undertake learning activities outside of the classroom. There is evidence to suggest, however, that learners are not always willing to engage in activities on mobile devices outside of class (Kim et al., 2013), even though learners indicated that they saw the potential of using mobile devices outside of class time, this was not reflected in patterns of actual usage (Peterson, Divitini & Chabert, 2008; Stockwell, 2010). In other words, although learners can see that mobile devices can lead to learning opportunities outside of the classroom, they have difficulties in using them effectively without guidance and support.

Recent research has suggested that providing training can improve learner engagement in learning tasks that were related to learning English vocabulary (Stockwell & Hubbard, 2014). This study was based on work by Hubbard and Romeo (2012), who identified three main types of training: technical, strategic and pedagogical. Technical training deals with learning how to use a technology, strategic training with learning how to use it for learning purposes, and pedagogical with the reasons why to use it for learning

purposes. Stockwell and Hubbard (2014) found that learners who received technical, strategic and pedagogical training showed improvement in how they engaged in the tasks and on scores achieved in weekly vocabulary quizzes when compared to learners who only received technical training.

Purpose of the study

In the current study, Vietnamese learners of English engaged in vocabulary and grammar tasks using the Quizlet app on their mobile phones outside of class time. The purpose of the study was to investigate the potential of using a combination of in-class technical training with in-class training combined with online discussion using Facebook for strategic and pedagogical training. The reason for opting to use Facebook for the study was twofold. Firstly, due to the strict requirements of the syllabus there was insufficient time to discuss the use of the Quizlet activities in class. Secondly, since learners were engaging in the activities outside of class on their mobile phones and were mostly active users of Facebook on their mobile phones, it was thought that the Facebook discussions might prompt users to engage in the Quizlet activities more actively.

Method

Subjects in the study were 20 Vietnamese learners of English studying to improve their TOEIC test scores. The learners were provided with technical training in class, while ongoing strategic and pedagogical training were provided through a combination of in-class activities and interactions through a dedicated Facebook page over a 5-week period. Usage patterns of the site were recorded through a learning journal and interactions on the Facebook page were analyzed to determine the nature of the discussions that took place. Learner attitudes towards the tasks and the training were measured through pre- and post-questionnaires, and focus-group discussions.

Results

At the time of writing, data were still in the process of being collected, but some trends were already becoming apparent. Learners who were active in the Facebook discussions were also likely to engage actively in the Quizlet activities, but there were also learners who showed high engagement in the activities with little participation in the Facebook discussions. The role of the teacher was also a critical one in terms of encouraging learners to reflect on their own learning processes

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Vincenza Tudini

University of South Australia, Adelaide, Australia

enza.tudini@unisa.edu.au (es)

The role of reciprocal corrective feedback in multilingual online social interaction

Bio data

Vincenza Tudini is based at the Research Centre for Languages and Cultures at the University of South Australia. Her most recent work on online language learning was published in *Journal of Pragmatics*, *Discourse Processes* and *The Journal of Language Learning*, while her book *Online Second Language Acquisition: Conversation Analysis of Online chat* was published by Continuum (London/New York) in 2010.

Currentt research

Vincenza Tudini works at the Research Centre for Language Learning at the University of South Australia. She also teaches Italian and Applied Linguistics courses, including the course *Language, Discourse and the Media*. She introduced online social interaction tasks as an assessed component of her intermediated Italian course. Her research interests include the application of conversation analytic techniques in Computer-Mediated Communication contexts, especially where participants have differential language expertise. She is particularly interested in understanding how foreign languages are used and learned in naturalistic online settings such as text chat. Her research explores affordances and constraints of text chat for social interaction and language learning, given the significant differences between face-to-face and written interaction.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This paper addresses the conference questions *How do we design authentic, meaningful, useful and enjoyable tasks?* And *What is the role of corrective feedback in tasks?*, focusing particularly on open-ended written conversational tasks which are designed to promote intercultural exchange during synchronous online text chat. Online text chat provides a particularly useful vehicle for language learning for the following reasons:

- it is a form of synchronous communication in which participants must communicate in real-time, as occurs in face-to-face talk;
- it is written, which allows greater opportunities for planning the communication than spoken language interactions;
- its readability and “visual saliency” (Pellettieri, 2000) promote noticing (Schmidt 1990;1995) and review of conversation;
- its multimodality supports meaning-making and contextualisation through emoticons, hyperlinks to photos, films and other online realia;
- learner access to age-peer native speakers is motivating and promotes intercultural learning.

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Focusing on language learning partnerships between age-peer speakers of both Italian and English as respectively either an L1 or L2, this study explores how geographically dispersed university language students use conversational repair during online text chat to improve their language while engaged in interpersonal talk. Reciprocal corrective

feedback and code-switching become key resources for partners to pursue both learning and affiliation. The paper argues that such incidental form-focused feedback is not specifically built into the set conversational task, yet is promoted by interactional features of the medium of communication and the linguistic profile of interactants. Data derived from the interactions and feedback from participants suggest that online social interaction with multilingual 'intercultural speakers' (Kramsch, 1998) rather than monolingual native speaker partners has the capacity to promote meaningful use of the target language.

Short paper

This paper focuses on open-ended written conversational tasks which are designed to promote intercultural exchange during synchronous online text chat. Online text chat provides a particularly useful vehicle for language learning for the following reasons:

- it is a form of synchronous communication in which participants must communicate in real-time, as occurs in face-to-face talk;
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Research has shown that "noticing" is fundamental to language learning. For example, while Schmidt (1995) has shown that it promotes the acquisition of linguistic forms, Liddicoat (2006) has shown that it is central to the process of intercultural learning. In chat, noticing and linguistic collaboration between native speakers and learners is aided by visual saliency and the "slowing down" of conversation which is a feature of text chat (Beauvois, 1992). The enactment of a native speaker and learner relationship during chat also contributes to learning when participants make these roles salient during the conversation (Kasper, 2004). How and what characterizes these roles requires further investigation, especially where "focus on form" (Doughty & Long, 2003; Long & Robinson, 1998) is concerned. "Focus on form" is pedagogical and is therefore an enactment of native speaker-learner differences in role, social status, access to information and authority, differential language expertise, social and cultural identities (Liddicoat & Tudini, 2012). This is where chat moves from the purely social to the pedagogical. This is an interactionally accomplished assignment of roles and responsibilities. The following excerpt from a chat session between a native speaker and non-native speaker illustrates the pedagogical orientation of an otherwise social online text chat:

1 L: che ha successo	what happened [with incorrect auxiliary verb 'has']
2 NS: che è successo	what happened [with correct auxiliary]
3 NS: era caduta la linea	the line had gone dead
4 NS: nn lo so perché	I don't know why [with chat abbreviation of <i>non</i>]
5 L: ☺	☺
6 L: sai forse devo venire piu spesso qui sopra a parlare con te cosi mi imparo per bene	you know I have to come here more often to talk to you so I learn properly

In post 2 the learner receives corrective feedback on the grammatical form of her initial turn. The talk here departs from the strictly social to provide a learning opportunity for the learner in which the native speaker's language knowledge becomes a source of new input. In the final turn, the learner explicitly acknowledges that interaction with the native speaker has not only social but learning possibilities. She expresses appreciation for the correction both non verbally, with the use of a smiley face in post 5, and verbally in post 6.

The use of dyadic rather than group chat in particular has been found to be conducive to the learning of foreign languages because it provides non native speakers with private and exclusive access to an expert in the target language. It has thus been described as a bridge to conversation because it provides non native speakers with the opportunity to practice and develop conversational language in a less threatening environment than the classroom. Dyadic chat also minimizes turn-taking problems and multiple conversation threads which typify group chat and are likely to interfere with learners' meaning-making and co-construction of conversation. Furthermore, dyadic chat appears to have some advantages over classroom interaction, given that language learners have more opportunities to take turns and hold the floor. This has contributed to the reputation of online chat as an 'equalizer', as the teacher or more linguistically competent student does not dominate interaction. For example, Schwienhorst (2004) finds that there is almost equal participation by native speakers and non-native speakers in topic initiation (p.48). Tudini (2007) comes to a similar conclusion in her study of dyadic online chat which indicates that 60.6% of negotiations were learner-initiated and 39.4% were native speaker-initiated (p.593). Also, according to Tudini (2004), questions appear to be more frequent in dyadic online chat than in group chat sessions. Statistical analysis of chat sessions between native speakers indicated that in the group sessions there were 174 questions in a total of 1246 turns (14%), whereas in the one-to-one sessions 27 of the 89 turns are questions (34%), distributed fairly equally between the two participants. These studies suggest that the question-answer adjacency pair constitutes the basic building block of dyadic intercultural text chat and contributes to the equality of participation noted in previous computer-mediated communication studies.

Online chat scaffolds non native speakers linguistically due to the readability of their written conversation. This allows them to use native speakers' linguistic expertise to their advantage and launch their own learning-oriented conversational trajectories within online social interaction patterns. This naturalistic online form of pedagogical talk-in-interaction offers language learners an alternative and authentic complement to the initiation-response-feedback (IRF) pattern which characterizes classroom interaction. As summarized by Hall (2007) the task of the IRF is instructional and consists of "a specialized teacher-led sequence of three actions: a teacher-initiated known-answer question, a student response to that question, and teacher feedback on the sufficiency or correctness of the response" (p.516). Language learners require opportunities to develop their ability in real life naturalistic conversational environments, and online dyadic chat is a motivating and promising bridge to conversation and episodes of form-focused interaction.

Both grammar and vocabulary are attended to during written conversation. In fact, the frequency with which learners initiate repair on vocabulary for resolution by native speakers, and the face work involved in the repair process, suggests that more attention needs to be paid to meaningful acquisition of target language lexicon in foreign language programs, as it appears to be more disruptive to naturalistic conversation than grammar. While lexical repair is a productive process in terms of second language acquisition, it may impact on learners' self-confidence and levels of motivation within face-to-face naturalistic settings outside the classroom. Online dyadic text chat is a suitable and motivating environment for language learners' probing and acquisition of target language vocabulary, especially the formulaic vocabulary and structures of conversational routines, as this promotes the development of their pragmatic competence. Such activity should

be a regular component of foreign language programs, in preparation for real life informal face-to-face environments, including residence abroad, as proposed by Kinginger (2008), who suggests that computer-mediated communication is a promising avenue for connecting students to their study-abroad destinations to develop "the specific skills required of intercultural speakers in informal interaction" (p.111) .

Most research to date has focused on what affordances are provided by chat for language acquisition, and there is currently little work which examines the interactional features of online chat between native speakers and non-native speakers (notable exceptions include Negretti, 1999; Schwienhorst, 2004; Liddicoat & Tudini, 2012; Tudini, 2010). It is however, through engagement in interaction that language learners learn to become participants in communities of use and develop their capacity to communicate in and through the target language (Kern & Liddicoat, 2008).

Focusing on language learning partnerships between age-peer speakers of both Italian and English as respectively either an L1 or L2, this study explores how geographically dispersed university language students use conversational repair during online text chat to improve their language while engaged in interpersonal talk. Reciprocal corrective feedback and code-switching become key resources for partners to pursue both learning and affiliation. The paper argues that such incidental form-focused feedback is not specifically built into the set conversational task, yet is promoted by interactional features of the medium of communication and the linguistic profile of interactants. Data derived from the interactions and feedback from participants suggest that online social interaction with multilingual 'intercultural speakers' (Kramsch, 1998) rather than monolingual native speaker partners has the capacity to promote meaningful use of the target language.

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Rong-Jyue Wang* & Wen-Chi Vivian Wu**

National Formosa University, Huwei Township, Taiwan*
Providence University, Taichung, Taiwan**

orffwang@nfu.edu.tw - wcwu@pu.edu.tw

Using a task-based flipped classroom to enhance language proficiency and learnign experiences

Bio data

Rong-Jyue Wang was born in Tai-Chung, Taiwan, in 1967. He received the B.S. and Ph.D. degrees from the Department of Electrical Engineering, National Central University, Chung-Li, Taiwan, in 1990 and 1995, respectively. He has been an Associate Professor with the Department of Electronic Engineering, National Formosa University, Huwei, Taiwan, since 2007. His present research interests include intelligent robots, intelligence control, fuzzy control, image recognition, and robust control.

Wen-Chi Vivian Wu, who received her doctoral degree in 2006, is a professor of the Department of English Language as well as a director of CALL R & D Center at Providence University in Taiwan. Her recent research areas include CALL, cross-cultural communication, robotics learning, English for Specific Purposes, and learner motivation for English as a global language. She has published extensively in CALL related journals. Over the past few years, she has integrated international experiences into her conversation and writing courses linking her students with college students and university professors in America.

Current research

Many researchers have pointed out that mastery of English idioms holds the key to drastically elevating an individual's English ability, and to successfully communicating and interacting with international society, but research about idioms acquisition compared to vocabulary, grammar or sentence structure still remains scanty. In view of this, this current study featuring a detailed task-based instructional design examined the impact of flip teaching on idiomatic acquisition as well as learning experiences of 48 EFL learners in an advanced oral training course.

Willis (1996) stated that in TBLT, teachers employ tasks for learners that are purposeful, problem-oriented, or outcome-driven and thus are the equivalent of real world activities, in order to promote meaningful communication and therefore a positive context for language learning. Wen (2013) presented a theory of output-driven tasks, in which the need for output, such as written or spoken English, is enabled by the student seeking input, such as from study materials and feedback from peers and teachers. Kennedy and Levy (2009) said that task-based learning should be tailored to the context of the course and serve a specific function that addresses the outcome goals of the course

The authors used the framework provided by Willis, Wen, and Kennedy and Levy as core concepts of the "Output-driven, Input-enabled" instructional design of this study. The goal was to provide students with meaningful, authentic, and useful tasks that the students would perceive as positive and motivating.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Basic input was provided by out-of-class reading of the textbook and viewing related videos created by the teachers. A second level of output required each student to write a short story using the idioms of the current lesson, enabled by input from peers and teachers making suggestions to improve first drafts. The capstone task for each lesson was a guided dialog output, based on the textbook. The input for the dialog includes the knowledge acquired from the text reading passage, the instructor's video, the discussion related to the short story, and additional discussion preliminary to the guided dialog. In each case, the discussion, first drafts, feedback, and final text and audio posts were accomplished in private LINE application discussion groups.

As a companion to the flipped learning tasks outside the classroom, in-class task-based activities were chosen to strengthen the idiomatic knowledge of the students, to foster active learning, and to enhance higher-order thinking. In the chapter Friends, the teacher used an in-class game called "Have a guess", where the class was divided into teams and five students in each team defined chosen idioms with their own words for their team to guess. Teams competed not just for accuracy, but against time. In the Dating chapter, the participants engaged in scenario improvisation, where they were divided into groups of four and had to present using the idioms based on a specific scenario given to them.

A mixed-method and multiple sources of data collection were employed for data analysis, including (1) pre- and post-idiomatic proficiency tests to assess student learning outcome, (2) a questionnaire to examine student perceptions with regard to motivation, effectiveness and engagement, (3) focus group interviews to explore student views about their learning experiences, and (4) instructor's in-class observation journals to serve as verification of student level of activities participation in the physical classroom.

The positive results indicated that this flipped teaching approach, along with carefully designed instruction, made the students learn better in a more effective and efficient way while also made them feel more motivated and more actively engaged in learning. This study concludes with pedagogical implications for language instructors who wish to integrate flip teaching to their language classrooms.

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Monica Ward

Dublin City University, Dublin, Ireland

mward@computing.dcu.ie

CALL for Irish for parents for pronunciation and reading

Bio data

Endangered Languages, for young learners and parents. She is also interested in using software engineering techniques, Natural Language Processing (NLP) and Human-Computer Interaction (HCI) principles in CALL. Developing CALL resources for real-learners to use in the real world is a key research focus.

Current research

Regardless of location or culture, parents know that education is very important for their children. Where it is possible and appropriate, parents like to help their children with their homework. However, sometimes parents may not be able to help their children with certain subjects, even if they have already studied the subject before themselves or more especially if they have never studied it before. This is the context for many parents in Ireland. Irish is a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools in Ireland (with some exceptions). However, parents can encounter difficulties when trying to help their children with their Irish homework. Some parents may have studied Irish themselves, but may have forgotten what they learnt in school, they may not have been very competent themselves or they may lack confidence in their mastery of the language. In recent years, there has been a wave of immigration into Ireland from other countries and these parents will not have had any education on the Irish language. There are currently no CALL resources aimed at this non-typical learner community.

Task-based language learning and teaching

This paper looks at the design of form-focused exercises for parents that focus on pronunciation and reading in Irish. It looks at how we can design useful tasks for this learner community i.e. tasks that focus on their need to be able to help their children rather than on their need to learn the language. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an important approach in language teaching. It focuses on using authentic language to do meaningful tasks. However, in the context of Irish, the concept of 'meaningful tasks' is not straightforward, as the need to learn Irish for communicative purposes is superfluous (Watson, 2008), as all Irish speakers speak fluent English. There are complex socio-cultural attitudes toward Irish in the education system. Many parents just want their children to learn enough to pass the state exams in the language and they would like to be able to help them. They do not necessarily want to learn the language in the traditional sense - they have focused learning goals.

In order to design useful tasks, we should try to understand the real learner needs. In the Irish context, parents have a need to be able to help their children with spellings which are rather difficult in Irish (systematic but complex (Hickey and Stenson, 2011), to be able to pronounce words (again rather difficult) and to be able to help their children with reading. While many CALL resources focus on designing authentic and meaningful tasks (so the learner can communicate in the language), in the context of Irish for parents, the design focus is rather on basic practical tasks that can help them with their

off-line language activities (e.g. asking their child to spell a word). It is very important to understand their needs, which are slightly different from 'usual' language learners – most of them do not need (or want) to learn the language. Colpaert's (2004) approach to analysis and design are helpful in this context - his Global Local Differential Targeted (GLDT) grid and his concept development activities and usefulness criteria are good resources for designing useful CALL resources for parents. Their needs are niche and Machiavellian and may not be what language teachers want to hear, but they are real and currently not addressed.

This paper describes the design and development of useful CALL materials for Irish for parents. They focus on the letter-sound correspondences in Irish through drill and practice exercises. Modified Hot Potatoes resources (Hot Potatoes, 2012), and existing Natural Language Processing (NLP) resources for Irish (Abair, 2015) are used to develop the language exercises. It is good practice to re-use existing resources and to make any developed resources as modular and re-usable as possible

In summary, this paper highlights the need to investigate thoroughly the needs of the target learner group and other factors in order to design useful CALL resources. While some of the issues reviewed are specific to Irish, many of them are relevant to other lesser-taught or compulsory languages throughout the world.

Short paper

Regardless of location or culture, parents know that education is very important for their children. Where it is possible and appropriate, parents like to help their children with their homework. However, sometimes parents may not be able to help their children with certain subjects, even if they have already studied the subject before themselves or more especially if they have never studied it before. This is the context for many parents in Ireland. Irish is a compulsory subject in primary and secondary schools in Ireland (with some exceptions). However, parents can encounter difficulties when trying to help their children with their Irish homework. Some parents may have studied Irish themselves, but may have forgotten what they learnt in school, they may not have been very competent themselves or they may lack confidence in their mastery of the language. Dörnyei (2005) notes that linguistic self-confidence is important in language learning and many Irish people lack linguistic self-confidence, mainly based on their (negative) experience of learning Irish themselves in school. In recent years, there has been a wave of immigration into Ireland from other countries and these parents will not have had any education on the Irish language. According to the 2011 Irish Census (CSO, 2014), 17% of the population were born outside of Ireland (and will have no prior knowledge of Irish). There are currently no CALL resources aimed at this non-typical learner community.

This paper looks at the design of form-focused exercises for parents that focus on pronunciation and reading in Irish. It looks at how we can design useful tasks for this learner community i.e. tasks that focus on their need to be able to help their children rather than on their need to learn the language. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an important approach in language teaching. It focuses on using authentic language to do meaningful tasks. However, in the context of Irish, the concept of 'meaningful tasks' is not straightforward, as the need to learn Irish for communicative purposes is superfluous (Watson, 2008), as all Irish speakers speak fluent English. There is no situation in which a person would absolutely have to be able to speak Irish to be able to communicate with someone in Ireland. Thus, one of the primary motivations for learning a language (i.e. the ability/need to be able to communicate with native speakers in the target language) is absent. There are complex socio-cultural attitudes toward Irish in the education system. Many parents just want their children to learn enough to pass the state exams in the language and they would like to be able to help them. Harris et al.

(2006) report that 21% of parents said their children (aged 11-12) had problems with Irish reading, compare with only 8% for English. They do not necessarily want to learn the language in the traditional sense - they have focused learning goals.

In order to design useful tasks, we should try to understand the real learner needs. In the Irish context, parents have a need to be able to help their children with spellings which are rather difficult in Irish (systematic but complex (Hickey and Stenson, 2011)), to be able to pronounce words (again rather difficult) and to be able to help their children with reading. While many CALL resources focus on designing authentic and meaningful tasks (so the learner can communicate in the language), in the context of Irish for parents, the design focus is rather on basic practical tasks that can help them with their off-line language activities (e.g. asking their child to spell a word). It is very important to understand their needs, which are slightly different from 'usual' language learners - most of them do not need (or want) to learn the language. Colpaert's (2004) approach to analysis and design are helpful in this context - his Global Local Differential Targeted (GLDT) grid and his concept development activities and usefulness criteria are good resources for designing useful CALL resources for parents. Their needs are niche and Machiavellian and may not be what language teachers want to hear, but they are real and currently not addressed. Colpaert's personas help the CALL designer to identify different learner characteristics and to consider the needs of learners with different backgrounds.

This paper describes the design and development of useful CALL materials for Irish for parents, particularly parents of primary school children. The CALL resources focus on the letter-sound correspondences in Irish through drill and practice exercises. The current Irish alphabet consists of 5 vowels and 123 consonants and represents about 50 basic Irish sounds. The five spoken vowels can be either short or long and a length mark (*síneadh fada*) is placed above a vowel to indicate that it is long (á, é, í, ó, ú). For example, *ba* (/ba/, cows) has a short 'a' while *bá* (/ba:/, 'understanding') has a long 'a'. Many learners simply ignore the accents on vowels and may not hear the difference between minimal pairs such as *ba* and *bá*. Another problem that can arise is that there may be a degree of skill transference from English (DES, 1999), without regard to the differences between Irish and English sound-symbol correspondences. Hickey and Stenson (2011) state that a degree of re-education is required to help learners map the pronunciations of Irish vocabulary to their spellings. Sight word reading alone is not as effective as the teaching of grapheme-phoneme relationships (Ehri et al., 2001; Pikulski and Chard, 2005). Parsons and Lyddy (2009) note that successful Irish readers use a phonological reading strategy based on grapheme-phoneme correspondences, while less successful readers appear to be unaware of these correspondences. The materials aim to get learners to notice the difference between minimal pairs and to become familiar with some of the basic grapheme-phoneme rules of Irish. The CALL resources must take into account that many parents may not be linguistically aware and it is important to explain the material in a way that is accessible to them.

Modified Hot Potatoes resources (Hot Potatoes, 2012), and existing Natural Language Processing (NLP) resources for Irish (Abair, 2015) are used to develop the language exercises. It is good practice to re-use existing resources and to make any developed resources as modular and re-usable as possible. This is especially important in minority language contexts, where resources for CALL development are usually limited. Furthermore, it is important to use accurate, good quality source materials as the lack of access to competent speakers means that it is difficult for beginners to know if what they are learning is correct. Hickey and Stenson (2011) state that materials to explain the salient features of Irish orthography to learners have not yet been developed. A further complication is that there are three main dialects of Irish as well as a standardised dialect and the spelling reforms over the years do not represent any dialect consistently (Mac Cártaigh, 2006). The work described in this paper is based on the most common, basic rules as outlined by Hickey and Stenson (2011).

In summary, this paper highlights the need to investigate thoroughly the needs of the target learner group and other factors in order to design useful CALL resources. While some of the issues reviewed are specific to Irish, many of them are relevant to other lesser-taught or compulsory languages throughout the world.

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Inigo Yanguas

University of San Diego, San Diego, United States

inigoyanguas@sandiego.edu

Type of task in an oral CMC context

Bio data

I received my Licenciatura in English Philology from the University of Granada (Spain). In the late nineties, I moved to the U.S. and started teaching Spanish and attending graduate school. I received my M.A. in Spanish Linguistics from LSU in 2002 and my PhD in Spanish Applied Linguistics from Georgetown University in 2007. I am currently an Associate Professor of Spanish and the Language Coordinator at the University of San Diego.

Current research

I am currently teaching Spanish and Linguistics classes at the University of San Diego (USD). I am also the language coordinator in the department. Among many other things, I am responsible for the teaching methodology implemented in our language classes and this is where my research and my practice come together. Since I am very interested in using technology in second language teaching and a big believer in interaction as a means to foster language acquisition, I take advantage of my research to inform the way we teach in our department.

I have published several articles investigating oral computer-mediated communication (OCMC) (see below) in which I explore different aspects related to this strand of research. I am also experimenting with several programs and applications in order to foster student involvement and L2 production.

In my latest research, part of which I am submitting for presentation at your conference, I am investigating several variables in the OCMC context: Task type, proficiency level, and OCMC mode (video vs. audio). In particular, I am exploring what type of task (jigsaw task vs. dictogloss task) elicits more language-related episodes (LREs) and the effects that proficiency and OCMC have on the number and types of LREs.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Research (e.g., Blake & Zyzik, 2003; de la Fuente, 2003) has shown that written CMC (WCMC) could provide opportunities for second language (L2) learners to focus on form and has found that those opportunities were mostly created through negotiation for meaning. In addition, a recent study (Yilmaz, 2011) explored task effects on focus on form in WCMC L2-L2 dyads and found that a dictogloss task elicited more language-related episodes than a jigsaw task. These claims, however, have never been explored with L2-L2 dyads in oral CMC (OCMC) contexts. In fact, to date, only a handful of studies have explored OCMC (e.g. Satar & Ozdener, 2008; Sykes, 2005; Yanguas, 2010, 2012).

The present study, therefore, has a twofold goal: on the one hand, it investigates whether task type has an effect on the number and characteristics of language-related episodes (LREs) and, on the other hand, whether that effect is the same for video CMC (VCMC) and audio CMC (ACMC) groups. This study clearly aligns with the topic of the

conference, since type and number of LREs elicited by task could be a determining factor in deciding what type of task is more beneficial for L2 learning. In addition, qualitative analyses of these conversations will add key information in order to decide what tasks are enjoyed the most by students and in which they are more engaged.

Students in six intact classes of high-intermediate Spanish were the participants in this study. Two jigsaw tasks based on two different picture stories were used, each of these was composed of eight pictures. In addition, two dictogloss tasks based on two different texts were utilized; these texts were created based on the picture stories used for the jigsaw tasks. Random L2-L2 dyads in the different groups (VCMC and ACMC) performed a jigsaw task and a dictogloss task consecutively. Statistical analyses are being carried out to ascertain whether there are any significant differences in the number and type of LREs by task and by group. Qualitative analyses of the conversations are used to will be performed to shed light on the nature of the conversations. Results of this study will be discussed in relation to the pertinent literature in order to add to the strand of research that explores the effects of tasks on focus on form in synchronous computer-mediated communication. In addition, strategies for class implementation will be examined.

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Anne Zanatta

Universitat de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain

annezanatta@ub.edu

Wikis for collaborative writing tasks: affordances and limitations of the tool according to student perceptions and use.

Bio data

Anne Zanatta has been an EFL teacher and teacher trainer for more than 25 years. Currently associate professor at the University of Barcelona in the department of Teaching Language and Literature, she is also a member of the REALTIC research group. Her research areas include using wikis for collaborative writing, CMC, and gamification.

Current research

My current context and research focus on the incorporation of technology, specifically, the use of a wiki as a collaborative writing tool, in order to carry out task-based collaborative learning in the specific areas of teacher training and English for Tourism Studies. For the past 7 years I have been carrying out action research to examine and reveal learning processes which include student perceptions, interaction and contribution when involved in a wiki mediated collaborative writing project to investigate and co-construct knowledge in the area of tourism. This collaborative writing project, known as Touripedia, has been reiterated several times with students and teachers of different levels and language proficiency within the degree program of Tourism Studies at the university level in Barcelona, Spain. My research approach includes mixed methods to examine and describe what happens when students are engaged in the collaborative writing in order to examine various aspects such as the effects of task and audience on learners as well as learning outcomes. Via the wiki tracking feature, student participation and contribution have been analyzed through open coding in order to reveal patterns of interaction. In turn, this has led to a better understanding of the affordances and limitations of the wiki tool, how it affects task as well as how the task affects use of the tool.

Task-based language learning and teaching

Social Constructivist learning theories such as Activity Theory to design effective collaborative writing tasks implementing wikis or other Web 2.0 writing tools must also include consideration of the tool's affordances and limitations as well as student appropriation, resistance and mastery of the technology at hand.

Short paper

Wikis for Copllaborative Writing Tasks: Affordances and Limitations of the Tool According to Student Perceptions and Use

Introduction

The recent surge in studies and literature (Li, 2013; Lund,2008; Warschaur, 2010; Kessler, Bikowski and and Boggs: 2012) on the use of wikis and other Web 2.0

collaborative writing tools in language learning emphasize the pedagogical benefits of using these tools participate in collaborative writing tasks. Nonetheless, as Kessler, Bikowski and Boggs (2012, p.91) note, citing Storch (2005), existing research is still lacking as "few collaborative writing projects, particularly involving more than two writers, are actually undertaken." This may be due to the fact that while wiki software was initially developed for collaboration, its inherent "messiness" may be considered an obstacle. Nonetheless, for those teachers brave enough to go beyond this initial challenge, wikis can provide insight and understanding into student interaction and the writing and work processes involved in carrying out and completing collaborative writing tasks. This paper presents findings from a study of a wiki-mediated collaborative writing project and considers the following questions:

1. What are the affordances and limitations of the wiki technology implemented?
2. What patterns of interaction emerge among learners while completing the collaborative writing task?
3. What does the wiki tool reveal about the writing process phases of a collaborative writing task?
4. What considerations should be given when designing tasks for wikis or other collaborative writing tools?

The Study

Answers to the above questions are presented in accordance with results taken from a mixed methods study involving 57 first year university students initiating a 4 year degree program in Tourism Studies at a private institution in Barcelona. The subjects were students of an English for Tourism language course which had been divided into 3 different class groups based on language proficiency and led by 3 different teachers. All of the students in the groups participated in a common collaborative writing task working in groups of 3 or 4 students. A total of 17 working groups participated in the task which was carried out over a 6 month period divided into 3 project phases, each of which was about 2 months in length. These phases combined the 3 traditional process writing stages of planning, writing and revising as identified by Flower and Hayes (1981) with Willis' (1996) framework for task-based learning. The first phase was a pre-task planning and initiation phase where students were introduced to the project, the wiki software and then continued to brainstorm, plan and organise and their tourism topic. The second phase was the task development with students researching and contributing to the writing and revising of their tourism topic. The third phase combined final topic revisions in the wiki, an oral presentation of the topic and report on their individual and group experience in realising the task. Known as the Touripedia Project, this CLIL task was designed to engage students in the creation of a mini "wikipedia" of tourism-related topics and aimed to develop student competences in collaboration, research, writing and speaking skills while co-constructing content knowledge relevant to their degree studies. Student perceptions of the wiki and the collaborative writing task were gathered via a 3-wave questionnaire completed in each of the project phases. As student contributions and changes to the wiki are automatically recorded with the wiki history tracking feature, page versions of the wiki contents were tallied, compared and analysed to determine the number and type of student contributions and wiki edit actions carried out in each phase of the task as well.

Affordances and Limitations of Wikis

Commonly defined as quick, easy and collaborative websites (Leuf and Cunningham, 2001), the affordances and limitations of wiki technology used for language learning have been investigated by a number of researchers (Richardson, 2006; Goodwin-Jones, 2003; Parker & Chao, 2007). Wiki functionality includes a number of characteristics and features which make this Web 2.0 tool particularly useful for collaborative writing tasks. These recognized affordances are, in addition, intensified by the openness of wikis which allow for synchronous activity among collaborators. Learners can collaborate by adding new content, editing and improving existing content, opening new pages, adding files

and other visual and multimedia content in order to co-construct a multimodal document. Moreover, the simplified markup language interface and editing process called What You See Is What You Get (WYSIWYG) “thus inviting user contribution (Leuf and Cunningham, 2001, p.15) The history tracking feature of wikis provides another very useful affordance for both writers and teachers, allowing them to revert back to and compare earlier versions of same pages. All edits are registered to provide timestamp information and visibly compare two versions of a document at any point in time during the writing process. As many studies have noted, this is particularly useful for teachers in order to assess student contributions in terms of both process and product (Barton & Heiman, 2012; Manion & Selfe, 2012; Trentin, 2009). Communication among collaborators is also facilitated as users are able to hold asynchronous discussions via the comment feature incorporated in the wiki to provide feedback and/or leave comments. Both a workspace and a tool, wikis also allow for easy access and organization of documents and files while co-constructing a website to publish work shared with others. The wiki used for the Touripedia Collaborative Writing Project was PBWorks, a well-known wiki environment which includes all of the affordances identified above.

The limitations of wiki software have also been addressed by researchers. Despite the claim to be simple, quick and easy to use for most learners, some may have difficulty learning how to use the tool – as indicated by a number of students in our study who expressed this difficulty using the wiki in phase II of the task and, as a result, were slow to engage in the writing and drafting phase of the task. Appropriation of the tool is indicated to be a contributing factor to how the students interact with each other and the wiki interface to complete the task. This was evidenced by the wiki activity and final numbers of student contributions made during the study as indicated in the table below:

WIKI ACTIVITY	PHASE I	PHASE II	PHASE III	TOTAL
GROUP A2 (5 small groups)	20 (2.5%)	8 (1%)	884 (97%)	912
GROUP B1 (5 small groups)	17 (2%)	156 (16.5%)	768 (81.5%)	942
GROUP B2+ (7 small groups)	32 (4%)	17(2%)	656 (94%)	705
TOTALS	69 (3 %)	181 (7 %)	2308 (90%)	2559

Discussion of the Study

In Phase I of the task, a minimal amount of wiki activity is registered in the wiki as the groups brainstorm and plan their projects. All of the groups completed this stage of work using the simple edit features of the wiki to create a project plan and Table of contents. In addition, several students expressed their enthusiasm in using the comment functionality of the wiki tool to address their peers and engage in asynchronous chat which was for the most part social in nature. Student questionnaires completed at the very beginning of the project in the pre-task phase indicated that almost 50% of the students were enthusiastic about the wiki tool and believed it would help them complete their group work. 35% of the students were neutral in their perceptions of use of the tool while 15% of the students a few students expressed their hesitancy in using it. Reasons for this neutrality and hesitation were attributed to a reluctance to work in groups, a preference for individual writing and a lack of confidence using technology.

The low amount of wiki activity in Phase II corresponding to the writing and drafting phase of the task, indicates a difficulty in student appropriation of the tool leading to a resistance in using the wiki in this stage of the project. In fact several students admitted that they were drafting textual context in word documents which were later cut and

pasted into the wiki in Phase III of the project. A drop in enthusiasm for the tool and the collaborative writing project was also noted in the student questionnaires where only slightly more than 10% indicated that they found using wikis motivating. Nonetheless, more than 40% believed the wiki facilitated their group work and 30% indicated they wanted more practice in class to use the wiki.

The extremely high activity of Phase III of the project corresponding to the publishing and presentation stage of the task, reflects real student mastery of the tools editing affordances in order to embellish the wiki projects. All of the students registered edit actions attributing to formatting changes and visual content including images and videos. These actions were almost equal and sometimes even greater in number to the wiki edits performed to add and revise textual content in the project. In response to the use the final questionnaire, almost 40% of the students acknowledged that use of the wiki was motivating with 50% of the students stating that it made group work easier and writing more interesting.

Patterns of Participation and Interaction

Appropriation and mastery of the wiki tool is highlighted by the dramatic increase in wiki participation and student interaction as reflected in the number of edit mode contributions and actions performed by the students. Those students who found working in the wiki easy were more likely to perform multiple edit actions within one contribution in this phase of the project. Another common pattern of collaboration in our study indicated that most often, 1 student performed as group leader assuming the role of main writer and editor responsible for most of the editing contributions made within the wiki. Work patterns among the groups in all three language proficiency levels were similar in that they tended to be more cooperative in nature with students tending to divide the project work rather than work together simultaneously. This adheres to the findings of Kessler, Bikowski and Boggs (2012) who hold that synchronous contributions among users is limited in a wiki. Writers can collaborate synchronously within the same website, but same page editing can only be carried out in asynchronous editing activity and this may also influence work patterns among students. Writers must make content contributions on different pages if they are working on the website at the same time or edit consecutively if they are working on the same page. As a result, simultaneous work collaboration patterns may even be discouraged and lead to distributed asynchronous writing among writers as seen in the present study. In analyzing the individual contributions of the students within the completion of the task, a clear pattern of distributed asynchronous work pattern emerged with very few actions reflecting collaboration among 2 or more group members at the same time at any given time throughout the 3 phases.

Considerations for Collaborative Writing Task Design Using Wikis

As indicated above, the present study indicates a need to better understand how students interact not only with their peers in collaborative writing tasks, but also with the wiki tool. This supports the findings of Laffee (2004) who highlights the need to understand our students' appropriation, mastery and resistance to technological tools in order to better design learning which incorporates technology. Laffee defines appropriation as "the process of taking something that belongs to others and making it one's own" (Laffee, 2004, p. 362 citing Wertsch, 1998, p. 53). Adding to this, Kusara, Cram & Richards (2008, p.70) hypothesize that social constructivist frameworks including Activity Theory are not enough to design collaborative learning tasks and uphold the need for an affordance perspective of the tools used. Despite the ease of use of technology that most students demonstrate today, collaborative writing tools such as wikis still imply a process of appropriation and mastery which includes resistance and must be accounted for in collaborative writing task designs. If not, students may use only those functions of the tool they are familiar with and avoid those they do not know, leading to the typical work pattern of the few who know interacting more frequently with the tool's interface on behalf of the other group members. In the case of collaborative

writing tasks, this process is made even more complicated as many students may view writing to be an individual task and in their preference to do it alone, opt directly for a cooperative way of work. Task design incorporating the use of wikis, therefore, must include time and space for students to cultivate both collaboration skills and appropriation of the tool in the first phase of work in order to overcome resistance which may emerge in the second phase and ensure a more evenly distributed pattern of work and participation among the the 3 phases of task completion.

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ⁱ "Graduads", different from "graduates" are those who finished their exam and coursework to receive a degree but haven't been conferred a degree yet. For a detailed definition, check Oxford Dictionary <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/us/definition/english/graduand>. For the origin of the word, check <http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/graduand>. For a comparison between "graduands" and "grduates", check <http://jchew01-cestlavie.blogspot.com/2010/09/graduand-and-graduate.html>.

ⁱⁱ UGC press release: <http://www.ugccepa.com/200708/0910result.asp> retrieved on 6th October, 2010

ⁱⁱⁱ In IELTS, Question 1 is about describing some figures and patterns in one of the many different format (e.g., pie charts, bar charts, flow charts, etc.), whereas Question 2 is pertinent to argumentative writing genre.

^{iv} No data were collected for this error type, due to an oversight in devising the error-spiked text

^v The c score for this error was distorted by the fact that only one student committed it in his/her writing—probably because the questions set for the IELTS mock writing test did not demand much use of numbers.

^{vi} Time can be given or not as a control measures to keep task difficulty at a specific parameter level.

^{vii} Focus on Forms is emphasized as Focus on FormS from a similar and easily confused construct of Focus on Form.

^{viii} In this study, I will not make this distinction, and all dysfluencies are called as errors, combining what Corder would call errors and slips.

^{ix} The highest band score of IELTS is Band 9

^x A carry-on effect here refers to the heightening of the awareness of accuracy from retelling one story to another. It implies that some learning effect happens beyond simply repetition via short-term memory.

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