The Journal of

Teaching English with Technology

ISSN 1642-1027

Publishers:

IATEFL Poland Computer Special Interest Group
University of Nicosia
Maria Curie-Skłodowska University

Vol. 15 No. 3

August-2015

The Journal of

Teaching English with Technology

(*TEwT*)

Publishers

IATEFL Poland Computer Special Interest Group

University of Nicosia

Maria Curie-Skłodowska University

ISSN 1642-1027

BOARD OF REVIEWERS

Abstracting and Indexing

Australian Government

Australian Research Council

Reviewing Procedure

- Each publication is reviewed by at least two external reviewers.
- Since the language of publication is English, at least one reviewer is a native speaker of English.
- At least one reviewer has a different affiliation country than the author.
- The submissions are subject to the double blind review process.
- Every care is taken so that there is no conflict of interest between the authors and the reviewers.
- The review is made in a written form with a clear conclusion on acceptance or rejection of the submission.
- The reviewing procedure and the reviewer file are published on the Journal's website at http://www.tewtjournal.org/reviewingprocedure.html
- The names of reviewers for particular issues are not revealed, instead, once a year, the aggregate list of reviewers for the entire volume is published.

ALL THE SUBMISSIONS SHOULD BE SENT TO

Kamila Burzyńska, *kamila.burz@wp.pl*

AND

Jarek Krajka*, jarek.krajka@wp.pl*

Chris Alexander, *alexander.c@unic.ac.cy*

Volume 15, Issue 3

FROM THE EDITOR

by **Jarosław Krajka**
Maria Curie-Skłodowska University
Ul. J. Sowińskiego 17/336, 20-041 Lublin, Poland
jarek.krajka @ wp.pl

After one thematic issue devoted to technology-mediated task-based language learning, a highly successful and important one, we are happy to provide our readership with another regular issue of our Journal. Before I make an overview of the particular articles we have managed to collect, I would like to make a few remarks on the current state of *TEwT*. Most notably, I would like to express my apologies to our authors for sometimes relatively long period to get the reviewing outcome. We do have a number of articles in our publication queue, thematic issues such as the last one slightly disrupt the standard publishing timeline, and it may be the case that prospective authors will hear from us not earlier than after six months from the article's submission. TEwT's editorial assistant, Ms. Kamila Burzyńska, is doing a tremendous job to make sure submissions are properly tracked and dispatched for review. In any case, however, prospective authors are kindly encouraged to send a reminder either to Kamila or to myself, and we will be happy to provide them with the update on the submission.

At the same time, we are doing great efforts to seek new reviewers, encourage submissions and improve the Journal's quality even more. It is my pleasure to welcome Mr Hussein Meihami as a social media assistant and thank Hussein for the work already done on LinkedIn. Constantly increasing number of followers, new applications for reviewers, all indicate great need for promotion of *Teaching English with Technology* using the social media channels.

The current issue of the Journal opens up with a discussion of the effect of corrective feedback modes on developing students' writing proficiency, undertaken by Sabah Ibrahim Al-Olimat and Ali Farhan AbuSeileek from Jordan. The authors reveal that there were significant differences between the mean scores of the control group and the experimental groups due to the method of teaching in favor of the experimental groups which received corrective feedback. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there was a significant effect for the mean scores between teachers' feedback, students' feedback or both, in favor of both where students received corrective feedback from their peers and the teacher.

Seyed Abdollah Shahrokni and Leila Sadeqjoola, in their article entitled "Iranian EFL teachers' perception, familiarity and use of Web 2.0 tools in TEFL", attempt to assess the extent to which Web 2.0 tools have become normalised in the EFL teachers' practice. Quite surprisingly, even though most respondents consider computerized tools to be effective in the teaching-learning process, they exhibited low degrees of familiarity and use towards the technologies under investigation.

"Skype-based English activities: A case for compelling input? Correlational changes before and after Skype exchanges" by David Ockert (Japan) reports upon an attempt to investigate the impact of a series of Skype exchange activities with students in Australia on Japanese elementary school students' affective variables toward EFL. As it turned out, Skype-based language activities did provide input that is not only comprehensible, but, more importantly, compelling as well.

In the next contribution, Krzysztof Michalak (Poland) describes the way in which online translation platforms can facilitate the process of training translators, taking *Zooniverse*, a website hosting a variety of citizen science projects in which everyone can take part, as an example. Apart from the discussion of advantages and drawbacks of *Zoouniverse*, the article contains also ideas for practical implementation of the platform in translator education.

The present issue concludes with two book reviews: Mahmoud Abdi Tabari (USA) reviews *Crafting Digital Writing Composing Texts Across Media and Genres* written by Troy Hicks and published by Heinemann, while Kamila Burzyńska (Poland) makes an overview of *Developing Online Language Teaching. Research-Based Pedagogies and Reflective Practices*, edited by Regine Hampel and Ursula Stickler and published by Palgrave Macmillan.

We wish you good reading!

USING COMPUTER-MEDIATED CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK MODES IN DEVELOPING STUDENTS' WRITING PERFORMANCE

by **Sabah Ibrahim Al-Olimat**
Al al-Bayt University
Mafraq, Jordan
olimatsabah @ yahoo.com
and **Ali Farhan AbuSeileek**
Al al-Bayt University
Mafraq, Jordan
alifarhan66 @ gmail.com

Abstract

This study explored the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on the 10th grade EFL students' performance in the writing skill. Seventy-two 10th grade female students at Al Hammra secondary school for girls situated in Mafraq (Jordan) were selected as the study sample. They were randomly assigned into four groups, three experimental groups (18 in each) and one control group (18 students). The three experimental groups were taught using the computer-mediated corrective feedback modes including teachers' feedback (students who received feedback only from the teacher), students' feedback (students who provided and received feedback from their peers), and both (students who received and provided feedback from students and teacher). The control group was taught using computer-mediated communication. However, it neither provided nor received corrective feedback.

Findings of the study reveal that there were significant differences between the mean scores of the control group and the experimental groups due to the method of teaching in favor of the experimental groups which received corrective feedback. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there was a significant effect for the mean scores between teachers' feedback, students' feedback or both, in favor of both where students received corrective feedback from their peers and the teacher.

1. Introduction

Recently, there has been an orientation toward using computer programs in the teaching and learning process. Therefore, there is an expanding use of CALL programs in educational institutions. In other words, technological education was one of the most developed areas in the world. Computers which have entered the school life in the late 1950s in developed countries are increasingly developing throughout the world. Moreover, as computers become more powerful, faster, easier to use, more convenient, and cheaper, they can also process and

store much more data (Gündüz, 2005). Furthermore, there is an extremely fast development of computer-assisted tools such as proofing modes and tools, which enriches the role of computer in language learning and gives it more importance (Rahimpour, 2011).

The computer may give individual attention to the language learner. It acts as a tutor, assesses the learner's reply, records it, points out mistakes and gives explanations, guides the learner towards the correct answer, offers interactive learning, assess the learner's response, and repeats an activity without any of the errors arising from repetition by humans, handles a very large volume of interaction and deliver to the student feedback and accommodate different speeds of learning, and imposes limits on the time available for answering questions (for testing purposes) (AbuSeileek & AbuSeileek, 2012).

As the issue of computer-mediated corrective feedback is controversial (AbuSeileek and Abu-al-Sha'r, 2014), there is a need for conducting more studies in this area. Therefore, this study is based on introducing different modes of computer-mediated corrective feedback. It may help students benefit from corrective feedback to improve their writing performance through using the computer tool and the Microsoft Word 2010 techniques, draw EFL teachers' attention to provide their students with corrective feedback in the writing skill to improve their performance through the assistance of computer, and present a practical model for curricula designers in designing computer-mediated curricula, specifically the writing tasks. It aimed at finding the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on EFL students' performance in writing. It also explored the effect of the mode of providing feedback (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, or both) on students' performance in the writing skill. Moreover, it investigated the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on different writing aspects (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary).

More specifically, this study solicited to answer the following three research questions:

1) Are there any significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups due to the presence/absence of corrective feedback on EFL students' performance in writing?
2) Are there any significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental groups due to the mode of providing corrective feedback (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, and both) on students' performance in writing?
3) Which writing aspects (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary) are mainly developed by computer-mediated corrective feedback?

Furthermore, the revision of the related literature review revealed that there are very few studies in the Jordanian school context related to computer-mediated corrective feedback.

Consequently, there is a need to investigate the effect of feedback on the students' writing performance through using the computer as a tool to provide corrective feedback for the students, a goal to be achieved in the present study.

2. Background to the study

2.1. Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback is about providing learner with data about his/her responses whether these responses positive or negative. In other words, it is the process of supplying the learner with knowledge about performance progressively to enhance the students' right responses and correct the wrong ones. According to Soori, Kafipour & Soury (2011), corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner sentences containing an error. The responses can consist of (1) an indication that an error has been committed, (2) provision of the correct target language form, (3) metalinguistic information about the nature of the error, or (4) any combination of the above. In fact, CF occurs frequently in instructional settings, but much less frequently in naturalistic settings. Petchprasert (2012) confirmed that feedback should provide information specifically related to the learning process so as to assist learners in understanding what they are learning and what they have just learned. In conclusion, the term ‘corrective feedback’ is generally used for correcting errors of form not of content. However, in this study it refers to both feedback on linguistic forms and content.

Ellis (2009) demonstrated that the role of feedback has a place in most theories of second/foreign language (L2) learning and language pedagogy. In both behaviorist and cognitive theories of L2 learning, feedback is seen as contributing to language learning. In both structural and communicative approaches to language teaching, feedback is viewed as a means of fostering learner motivation and ensuring linguistic accuracy. Ellis points out that feedback can be either positive or negative. Positive feedback affirms that a learner’s response to an activity is correct. It may signal the accuracy of the content of a learner utterance or the linguistic correctness of the utterance. In the pedagogical theory, positive feedback is viewed as important because it provides affective support to the learner and fosters motivation to continue learning (Ellis, 2009).

In conclusion, the concept of corrective feedback is used to refer to supplying the students with information in the computer-based corrective form about their performance and correcting their wrong responses. In this study, it is used to refer to providing corrective feedback about both content and form.

There are different types of corrective feedback. Lyster & Ranta (1997: 46) categorized them into the following seven types:

1. Explicit error correction: Explicit provision of the target like the teacher provides the correct form (e.g. *You should say writes*).
2. Clarification requests: An utterance indicating a problem in comprehension, accuracy, or both.
3. Recast: Implicit reformulation of all or part of the learner's utterance (e.g. *He always writes an essay,* and *He writes an essay every day*).
4. Metalinguistic feedback: Comments, information, or question but without reformulation of the error (e.g. *There is a mistake. It is present tense. Do you use the present tense*?)
5. Repetition: Repetition of the whole or part of the utterance containing the error, often accompanied by a change in intonation (e.g. *He writes an essay every day*).
6. Elicitation: A prompt for the learner to reformulate (e.g. *Try that again. How do we say that? Every day he …*
7. Translation: Target language translation of unsolicited use of the L1

This study focuses on a combination of corrective feedback types. They are presented by the teacher and students. They included explicit, recast, metalinguistic feedback, and repetition.

2.2. Corrective feedback and language learning

There are many studies which confirmed the importance of corrective feedback in language learning and assured its effectiveness in the language learning process. According to Vanderbeek (2007), feedback positively affects students' and teachers' attitude toward independent practice work resulting in improved quality of solutions produced by students. Hyland & Hyland (2006) confirmed that feedback has been seen as a key element of students' growing control over writing skill. They added that feedback is important in providing students with the linguistic choices as a way of assisting students in conveying through new knowledge and practices. Sheen, Wright & Moldawa (2009) assert that focused CF may enhance learning by helping learners to (1) notice their errors in their written work, (2) engage in hypotheses testing in a systematic way, and (3) monitor the accuracy of their writing by tapping into their existing explicit grammatical knowledge. This draws students’ and teachers' attention to the ways of improving the teaching and learning process.

AbuSeileek (2012) confirmed that corrective feedback is one of the major tools used for enhancing English language learning and teaching through helping students to correct their errors. Petchprasert (2012) claimed that corrective feedback is an essential part of language learning and teaching that influences students' learning and achievement. He added that the corrective feedback helps both the teachers and their students meet the instructional goals in learning and teaching. Evans, Hartshorn, &Tuioti (2010) suggested that written corrective feedback is commonly practiced in L2 pedagogy by experience.

In conclusion, corrective feedback is regarded as a very effective tool in language teaching and learning. Teachers should pay more attention to this tool in order to achieve their goals in teaching. It is one of the major goals of this study to investigate the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on EFL students' performance in writing.

2.3. Modes of corrective feedback

Some researchers revealed that teacher and student feedback is helpful to enhance language learning. According to Pan (2010), teacher and student error feedback may facilitate students' language learning. Rabiee (2010) assured that the collaborative feedback model (teacher and students' feedback) had a significant effect on students' writing. According to Marboyeh (2011), teacher written corrective feedback and peer written corrective feedback had a significant effect on the writing performance of the subjects. Jodaie, Farrokhi, & Zoghi (2011) reported that there are some important differences as well as similarities between teachers' and students' perceptions of written corrective feedback on grammatical errors. Other researchers confirmed that peer feedback is more effective. AbuSeileek and Abu-al-sha'r (2013) demonstrated that the students who used corpora and electronic dictionary could improve their writing performance.

On other hand, Adams, Nuevo & Egi (2011) assured that there was limited evidence for the effectiveness of feedback in learner-learner interactions in promoting learning and for a role of modified output in supporting explicit knowledge. However, other researchers confirmed that teacher's feedback is a very effective tool to enhance the self-correction ability, for instance, Alghazo, Abdelrahman & Qbeitah (2009) claimed that the students who received feedback did better than those who did not receive it. Furthermore, Rabiee (2010) confirmed that students benefited from teacher's feedback more than peers' feedback. As Srichanyachon (2012 : 7) points it out,

> no matter what method is used, it is important for teachers in ESL and EFL settings to give students a crystal clear explanation. Also, teachers should include comments of praise and

encouragement in their written feedback because positive feedback can boost student motivation to improve their writing skills.

Moreover, some researchers suggest that corrective feedback or error correction is not helpful in developing learners' linguistic performance. Krashen (1982) points out that error correction is not of use for language acquisition. He adds that teacher corrections will not produce results that will live up to the expectations of many instructors. In conclusion, there is no conformity about the general effectiveness of modes of feedback in language learning process.

2.4. Writing aspects and types of errors

According to Tarawneh (2011), writing in a foreign or second language is a courageous experience especially for students whose native language is not of the same origin as the target language. Arabic-speaking students learning English are a good example here. These students are faced with the school curriculum that includes the four main skills of the English language. Among these skills, they find the writing skill the most difficult one and face many problems while composing simple short paragraphs. Students generally face many problems to be acquainted with the writing skill because it is like the container of the three other skills, namely listening, speaking, and reading. Tarawneh (2011) also argued that the problems students face while writing could be as a result of the lack of knowledge of how to write words, phrases and sentences. They also may face a lot of native language interference or lack motivation. She added that the problem springs from the teachers themselves being second language learners of English, who face similar conditions toward writing as students do. Therefore, some teachers only focus on errors and ignore the strategies of how to compose simple short paragraphs as a result of the lack of knowledge of the second language.

Some researchers (AbuSeileek, 2012; Jdetawy, 2011; Tarawneh, 2011; Verhoef & Tomic, 1996) confirm that the writing skill is a cognitive process, which is the most difficult skill to teach or to learn so that teachers, learners, and curricula designers should give writing more attention. They should focus on the useful methods and strategies to teach and learn writing. The present study focuses on computer-mediated corrective feedback including a word processor, which may be a useful program while teaching writing. On the other hand, there are many problems that both students and teachers face while using computers in teaching and learning English language skills, specifically the writing skill.

As the main aim of teaching writing is to enable students to “write English to communicate information and ideas clearly and correctly for specific purposes and audiences

in various simple authentic contexts" (Ministry of Education, 2006: 54), more focus should be placed on the writing skill. Despite the fact that teachers use corrective feedback in the English language classrooms in Jordanian schools, an observable weakness is still marked in students' English language skills, specifically the writing skill. This may be due to the traditional teaching method of providing corrective feedback (written or oral corrective feedback) that students receive only by the teacher. Difficulties that are faced by EFL Jordanian learners in different writing aspects, including spelling, punctuation, organization, content and grammar, could be as a result of the techniques that are used by the teacher himself when he provides corrective feedback, such as using the red pen which may affect students negatively. Therefore, the computer may be useful in enhancing students' writing through providing corrective feedback.

Writing aspects are the features of the writing skill, including content, structural organization (text level), structural organization (sentence level), grammatical accuracy, punctuation, lexicon, and spelling (AbuSeileek, 2012). There are different types of writing error. Burt (1975) classified them into two types, (1) global errors that significantly hinder communication and that affect sentence organization such as missing words, wrong word order, wrong or misplaced sentence connectors, and (2) local errors which affect single elements in a sentence but do not usually hinder communication significantly (errors in noun and verb inflections, articles, and auxiliaries). Beuningen (2010: 11) claimed that focused corrective feedback "targets a (number of) specific linguistic feature(s) only" while unfocused corrective feedback "involves correction of all errors in a learner's text, irrespective of their error category." Touchie (1986) mentioned two types of errors: performance errors and competence errors. The student makes performance errors when they are tired or hurried. Ordinarily, this type of error can be overcome with little effort by the learner. However, competence errors are more serious than performance errors since competence errors reflect insufficient learning. Cherrington (2000) pointed out that learner errors are not just mistakes due to interference or transfer from the first language but evidence of underlying universal learner strategies. Errors were to be seen as patterned, and the task was to collect error data and identify the main types. The results drawn from the data could provide feedback for language learning theory and teaching.

According to Touchie (1986), the entire language components were involved in the language learning errors (morphological, lexical, and syntactic). An example of a morphological error is the production of errors as *womans*, *sheeps*, and *furnitures*. A lexical error involves inappropriate direct translation from the learner's native language or the use of

wrong lexical items in the second language. Finally, examples of syntactic errors are errors in word order, subject-verb agreement, and the use of the presumptive pronoun in English relative clauses produced by Arab ESL learners as illustrated in: *The boy that I saw him is called Ali*. Al-Khasawneh (2010) claimed that EFL students faced problems in relation to vocabulary register, organization of ideas, grammar, spelling, and referencing. However, the present study focuses on exploring the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback modes on different global and local writing aspects, including spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary.

2.5. Computer-mediated corrective feedback

As Rezaee & Ahmadzadeh (2012:346) demonstrate, "computers have become an inseparable part of everybody's life. By far, their roles in education, especially in language learning and teaching, have expanded so drastically that no language instruction can ignore them in its curriculum." Computer-mediated corrective feedback is a vital tool to improve language learning. There are many researchers who assured the importance of CMC in language learning. Computer-mediated instruction plays a significant role in foreign language education. The incorporation of computer technology into the classroom has also been accompanied by an increasing number of students who experience anxiety when interacting with computers (Matsumura & Hann, 2004). Recently, there is a very common trend toward developing collaborative language learning activities using CMC. Language teachers orient to use CMC to foster communicative competence among their students.

According to Sotilo (2005), error correction episodes are available in an instant messaging context, in which more indirect corrective feedback that focuses primarily on grammatical and lexical errors is provided to L2 learners. Furthermore, simple moves characterize these error correction episodes, and there is evidence about successful learner uptake. Furthermore, Salomon, Kozminsky & Asaf (2003) assured that collaborative-based writing tools, both synchronous and asynchronous, when embedded in meaningful learning environments, provide another dimension of knowledge construction. In these environments, writing becomes an important mediation channel together with additional supporting "mind tools", such as outliners. These mind tools can produce not just sequential essays but hypertexts that provide additional means of constructing and presenting knowledge.

Loewen & Erlam (2006) claimed that while most of the research that has focused on interaction has taken place in the language classroom, there is increasing recognition of the importance of the computer in providing opportunities for learner interaction such as

synchronous communication in online chat rooms. They reported that the effectiveness of CMC on promoting interaction is encouraging, suggesting it may indeed be superior to the face-to-face interaction in a language classroom in terms of the opportunities it affords.

The major goal of CMC is to help learners to be involved in interactive language learning activities. Abrams (2003) assured that the learners who were exposed to CMC produced more language than their counterparts in the classroom. As CMC provides learners with an opportunity to communicate with one another, they provide one another with corrective feedback at the level of lexis, grammar or spelling, and increase their linguistic input and output (AbuSeileek &Rabab'ah, 2013). According to AbuSeileek (2012), computer-mediated corrective feedback methods and techniques may support students when receiving corrective feedback in a manner that may aid them more in the development of their writing performance.

The major goal of the present study is to investigate the effect of providing corrective feedback via using Microsoft Word 2010 word processor. The word processor may be helpful when providing correction by putting the mouse pointer on the problematic words, choosing from New Comment, suggesting corrective feedback about it. Therefore, the word processor may be helpful for learners in giving corrective feedback based on providing the target-like reformulation directly (AbuSeileek, 2012).

2.6. Presence/absence of corrective feedback in CMC environments

Some studies investigated the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback types in English as a foreign language (EFL) intact class over time. For example, AbuSeileek (2014) conducted a study on 64 English majors who were assigned randomly into three treatment conditions that gave and received computer-mediated corrective feedback while writing (track changes, word processor, and track changes and word processor), and one control group that neither gave nor received writing corrective feedback. Students sat a pre-test (week 1), immediate post-test (week 8) and delayed post-test (week 12) in writing. The results show that there was a significant effect of the computer-mediated corrective feedback. Moreover, in another study comparing the effect of using computer-mediated corrective feedback and no feedback on EFL learners' performance in writing, AbuSeileek (2013) reported that students who received computer-mediated corrective feedback while writing achieved better results in their overall test scores than students in the control condition who did not receive feedback.

Other studies focused on the mode of synchronicity. Hosseini (2013) explored the effectiveness of asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback - explicit and implicit,

on increasing the correct use of prepositions. The findings supported the current view on feedback through technology and suggested a need for further investigation into computer-mediated corrective feedback. On the other hand, Hashemnezhad & Mohammadnejad (2012) investigated the effect of the types of feedback (direct vs. indirect) given to EFL students during a 16-week study. The study found that corrective feedback often facilitates the student's ability to identify the existence of an error. Furthermore, the results also revealed that error feedback on form delivered as direct feedback is more beneficial than indirect feedback especially for proficient learners. In other studies focused on implicit and explicit feedback, Razagifard & Razzaghifard (2011) investigated the impact of two types of corrective feedback in computer-mediated communicative context on the development of learners' second language (L2) knowledge: (1) implicit feedback in the form of recast, and (2) explicit feedback in the form of metalinguistic feedback. The results showed that the experimental groups who received computer-mediated corrective feedback outperformed the control group which did not receive any feedback.

Finally, some studies focused on error reformulation. For instance, Sauro (2009) investigated the impact of two types of computer-mediated corrective feedback on the development of adult learners' L2 knowledge: (1) corrective feedback that reformulates the error in the form of recasts, and (2) corrective feedback that supplied the learner with metalinguistic information about the nature of the error. The results revealed that the experimental groups which received computer-mediated corrective feedback outperformed the control group which did not receive any feedback. On the other hand, Matsumura & Hann (2004) examined the effects of computer anxiety on students' choice of feedback methods and academic performance in English as foreign language writing. The results of multiple regression analysis revealed that the students who received online corrective feedback outperformed the students who received face-to-face feedback.

2.7. Modes of corrective feedback in CMC

Some studies compared the effect of providing computer-mediated corrective feedback by peers and the no feedback condition. AbuSeileek (2013) examined the effect of using peer computer-mediated corrective feedback on EFL learners' performance in writing. The results revealed that students who received computer-mediated corrective feedback from their peers outperformed the students who did not received corrective feedback. However, in another study which investigated the effect of online peer feedback through blogs on EFL students' writing performance and their perceptions Ciftci & Kocoglu (2012) reported that the students

who received peer feedback showed higher performance in revised drafts than those who did not receive corrective feedback. Lin and Yang (2011) applied wiki technology and peer review to an English as a foreign language writing class. The results indicated that learning from others' work and receiving feedback may allow students to enhance their spelling, grammar, style and quality of expression remarkably within a relatively short time. Moreover, Motallebzadeh & Amirabadi (2011) investigated the effect of e-collaboration and e-tutoring on students' writing proficiency. The results revealed that there were statistically significant differences between e-partnering and e-tutoring groups ($p < 0.05$). The findings also showed that through both e-partnering and e-tutoring writing proficiency was enhanced and learners in the e-partnering group outperformed these in the e-tutoring group. Finally, studies show that students who received summative feedback showed a larger decrease in their self-efficacy than those who received formative feedback, and self-referenced feedback was more beneficial to students' self-efficacy than norm-referenced feedback.

2.8. Writing aspects in CMC

Some studies focused on examining the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback types in EFL on error type. In AbuSeileek's (2014) study, for example, students received and provided computer-mediated corrective feedback while writing on measures of the 11 major writing aspects including 1) capitalization, 2) fragments and run-ons, 3) misused words, 4) negation, 5) noun phrases, 6) possessives and plurals, 7) punctuation, 8) questions, 9) relative clauses, 10) subject–verb agreement, and 11) verb phrases. The findings of this study affirmed that students who had received computer-mediated corrective feedback while writing on measures of these major writing aspects performed significantly better than those who did not receive corrective feedback. Furthermore, providing corrective feedback while writing enhances students' ability to find out errors, correct them, and develop their writing performance related to 11 major writing error types.

Moreover, another study examined writing aspects of content, structural organization (text level), structural organization (sentence level), grammatical accuracy, lexical appropriateness, punctuation, and spelling. AbuSeileek (2013) found that there was a significant effect for all writing aspects except two (lexical appropriateness and spelling) on the post-test. This finding may be attributed to the nature of errors related to these writing aspects that students had to find and correct. Most probably, these error types are not focused. That is, students learn to use certain lexical items, but this does not ensure that they learn to use other items because they are different and have different lexical usages. Similarly, spelling

errors are generally unfocused (untreatable). Participants might learn the spelling of a number of words. However, this does not necessarily show that they learn the spelling of other new words like learning focused (treatable) grammatical aspects such as the definite or indefinite article. The findings indicated that there was actually improvement in all students' mean scores on the writing post-test in lexical appropriateness and spelling. However, this does not show an established level of significant effect among the three groups for these writing aspects. Other studies (Bitchener, East, & Cartner, 2010) investigated the effectiveness of providing advanced learners with feedback on their frequent error categories. The findings revealed that the CF helped learners reduce their error rate in using singular/plural nouns over time, subject-verb agreements over time, and totally (combination of singular/plural noun and subject-verb usage) over time.

3. The study

Most of the related research focused on investigating the effectiveness of providing corrective feedback about grammatical aspects which is one of the writing aspects. Studies also focused on investigating the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback types. None of these studies focused on investigating the effect of modes of computer-mediated corrective feedback (teacher's feedback, student's feedback, or both) on EFL students' writing performance in the CMC environment. Thus, the present study is an attempt to investigate the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on the learners' writing performance. It also investigates which mode (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, both, and no feedback) is the most effective in providing computer-mediated corrective feedback. Moreover, it explores the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on different writing aspects (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary).

3.1. Participants and design of the study

The participants of this study consisted of 72 10th grade (16 years old) female students in their second semester of the scholastic year 2012/2013 at Al Hammra Secondary School for Girls, Mafraq, Jordan. Al Hammra Secondary School for Girls was intentionally selected for logistic purposes (e.g., it has enough number of sections to conduct this study, there were computer laboratories, and it is near to the researcher's residence). The tenth grade was selected as a sample of the study because they are suitable for the study. On the one hand, participants do not need to be distributed into educational branches. On the other hand, they are familiar with using computers. However, the participants in this study were assigned

randomly into four groups, with three experimental ones which received teachers' feedback. In this case, the teacher provided corrective feedback for the students, drew the students' attention to their errors, and clarified these errors. Students provided and received corrective feedback from their peers' feedback. In this case, the teacher's role was to be a supervisor on the students' work, since students received and provided corrective feedback from both the teacher and students. Students who neither received nor provided corrective feedback formed one control group. Participants of the experimental groups were exposed to the computer-mediated written corrective feedback for ten weeks. The control group was exposed to computer-mediated instruction; however, it neither received nor provided feedback for teaching English writing. All participants studied the same instructional material which is based on the second semester of the tenth grade textbook, and they were taught by the same teacher.

In this study, the quasi-experimental design was used. A pre-test was given before the application of the treatment to the four groups to make sure they were equivalent. The same test was administered as a post-test after applying the treatment to see whether providing corrective feedback through computer had any influence on the experimental groups, and which method of instruction had more influence on the subjects.

The study had one independent and one dependent variable. The independent variable of the study was computer-mediated corrective feedback on four levels: students' corrective feedback, teachers' corrective feedback, both, and no feedback. The dependent variable of the study was students' performance in the total mean scores and every writing aspect on the post-test, including spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary.

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a pre-test was administered to the participants in this study to make sure that there were no significant differences in the writing performance test between the experimental and control groups. After conducting the experiment, a writing performance post-test was conducted. Table 1 shows the results of ANOVA, means, and standard deviation of students' performance on the pre-test in the writing skill.

Table 1. Results of one-way ANOVA of students' pre-test scores by computer-mediated corrective feedback modes.

Group	N	*Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig
Teachers' feedback	18	10.00	4.63	.43	.73**
Students' feedback	18	10.06	4.53		
Both	18	9.17	2.38		
No feedback	18	8.89	3.27		
Total	72	9.53	3.77		

* Out of 36

` ** The results are significant at the p. ≤ .05 level.

The findings revealed that students' mean scores of the writing skill were almost equivalent on the pre-test before applying the experiment. The table above also shows that there were no statistically significant differences between the modes of computer-mediated corrective feedback (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, both, and no feedback) on the pre-test, suggesting that groups in different treatment conditions were equivalent in the writing performance before the experiment. To find out whether the experimental groups were equivalent in the total error feedback they received, Table 2 shows the total errors, mean errors, and standard deviation of computer-mediated corrective feedback modes.

Table 2. Results of one-way ANOVA of total errors and mean errors by computer-mediated corrective feedback modes.

Modes	No	Total Error	Mean Error	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Teachers' Feedback	18	428	23.78	3.06	.25	.78*
Students' Feedback	18	425	23.61	3.4		
Both	18	437	24.28	2.16		
Total	54	1290	23.89	2.88		

* The results are significant at the p. ≤ .05 level.

The findings revealed that mean error scores in the writing skill were almost equivalent after applying the experiment. The table above also shows that there were no statistically significant differences between the total mean error of modes of computer-mediated corrective feedback (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, and both) during the treatment,

suggesting that groups in different treatment conditions were equivalent in the total errors they received feedback about the writing skill after applying the experiment.

To show the number of computer-mediated corrective feedback comments students in the experimental groups received about each writing aspect, total errors and mean errors for the writing aspects were calculated (Table 3).

Table 3. Results of one-way ANOVA of total errors and mean errors by the six writing aspects.

Writing Aspects	No	Total Errors	Mean Errors	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Spelling	54	216	4.09	1.06	.25	.78*
Punctuation	54	220	4.04	0.97		
Organization	54	214	3.96	1.09		
Content	54	212	3.93	1.18		
Grammar	54	215	3.91	1.2		
Vocabulary	54	213	3.96	1.02		
Total	54	1290	23.89	2.88		

* The results are significant at the p. ≤ .05 level.

The findings revealed that the mean error scores of writing aspects were almost equivalent after applying the experiment. To find out whether these differences were significant, the ANOVA analysis was implemented as stated in Table 3. It also shows that there were no statistically significant differences between the total errors of the six writing aspects during the experiment, suggesting that students in different treatment conditions received almost equal number of corrective feedback comments related to their errors about the six writing aspects in after applying the experiment.

3.2. The instrument of the study and materials used

The researcher designed a performance test to measure students' performance in the writing skill before and after participating in the study. It consisted of two questions, with eighteen grades allocated to each of them. The first question consisted of two parts, and students should choose one of them. In the first part, each student was required to write a composition in a 30-minute time limit. It was about how the student spends her day, in the morning, at noon, and in the evening. The second part was about writing a short story about a problem that happened with her and how she solved it. These two parts were designed to measure the

students' ability in writing a composition including the ability to generate, organize, and develop ideas. The second question focused on recognition of writing aspects. They included spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary. The marking scale by AbuSeileek (2012) was used in this study, modified to suit the present purposes (see Table 4).

Table 4. Marking scale for the first question.

Writing Aspects	Grade *
Spelling	1-3
Punctuation	1-3
Organization	1-3
Content	1-3
Grammar	1-3
Vocabulary	1-3
Total	1-18

* Grades: 1= low; 2= medium; 3 = high

The table below contains the operational definitions introduced by AbuSeileek (2013: 6-7) and Vyatkina (2011: 73) related to each of the six writing aspects, with examples, feedback, and reformulation of the error.

Table 5. Writing aspects on which corrective feedback is provided.

No.	Writing Aspect	Definition	Example	Feedback	Reformulation
1	Spelling	It is related to using wrong spelling of words.	*You hav to do your homework.*	Wrong spelling of "have".	*You have to do your homework.*
2	Content	It includes irrelevance content, illogical information, and redundancy.	*She should write a letter to the company and she should give her apology.*	Redundancy	*She should write a letter to the company and give her apology.*
3	Vocabulary	It refers to using inappropriate use of vocabulary.	*Fatty food is important for growing our bodies.*	Use the wrong meaning.	*Healthy food is important for growing our bodies.*

4	Organization	Ideas follow each other in a logical order to make sense to the reader. Errors include the wrong use of transitions, and connection between ideas.	*Although Ahmad studied hard, but he pass the exam.*	Wrong use of connection.	*Ahmad pass the exam, because he studied hard.*
5	Grammar	It includes incorrect form or word order.	*They was at home yesterday.*	Subject-verb agreement.	*They were at home yesterday.*
6	Punctuation	It refers to the wrong use of punctuation marks.	*He had a cup of tea and a piece of meat and rice on the lunch.*	Use a comma after accounting things.	*He had a cup of tea, a piece of meat, and rice on the lunch.*

The test was given to four TEFL professors, an English language supervisor, and two English language teachers who teach the 10th grade class to evaluate it in relation to clarity of instructions, difficulty level and suitability of content. The test was modified according to their comments such as adding a question about correcting writing errors and clarifying the instructions of the test. The test-retest technique was used to determine the reliability of the test. The test was given to 16 students who were not included in the sample of the study within a two-week period between the test and re-test. The reliability coefficient of the test was found to be 0.89, which is statistically acceptable. Students' papers were assessed by two raters. The inter-rater reliability between them was 0.89, which is statistically acceptable for the purpose of this study.

The material that was used in the study was based on the second semester of the 10th grade textbook. The 12 writing lessons were distributed in four modules in the Student's Book and Activity Book of Action Pack IIX. They were about different issues, and each unit of the instructional material included different writing genres: a magazine article, an advertisement, an opinion composition, an informal letter, notes and messages, and a story. The researcher used Microsoft Word 2010 for editing texts based on one technique, comment. From the Review menu, the student / the teacher chose the New Comment option and then she provided corrective feedback about the problematic form (see Figure 1 and 2).

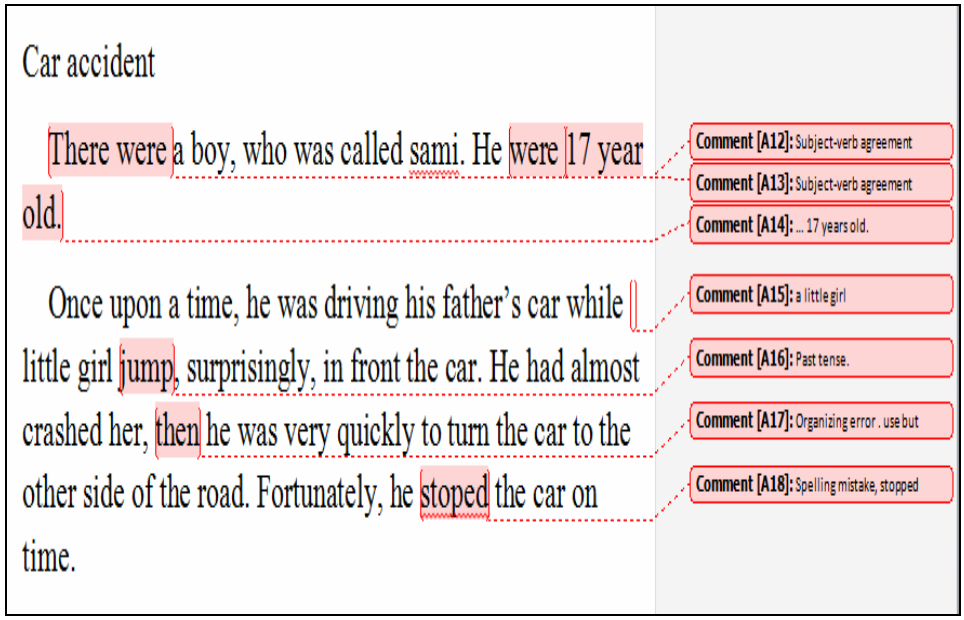


Figure 1. Sample comments (unedited example)

3.3. Procedure

Before the experiment, the teacher took the students to the computer laboratory. Then she explained the nature of the study and its goals to the students in all groups. They were given a chance to ask questions about the course/techniques and methods to be used in learning/teaching the writing skill. The students had to write a composition about specific topics that are related to the writing tasks. The teacher familiarized the participants in all groups with the target writing aspects. One instructional treatment was included in the present study, namely, New Comment. Each student in the experimental groups used a computer. The program was installed on the computers.

Students were first instructed about error categories. The table below contains the types of corrective feedback students received in each group, operational definitions, and examples. The definitions proposed by Lyster & Ranta (1997: 46) and AbuSeileek (2013: 3) were adopted.

Table 6. Types of corrective feedback students received in each group.

No.	Corrective Feedback Types	Definition	Example	Responses for the feedback
1	Explicit	Providing the correct form directly	S: *he write a letter for his friend.*	Error is identified and reformulated.

			T: *you should say: he writes a letter for his friend.*	
2	Recast	Reorganizing of all or part of the students' utterances	S: *until now I haven't finished my work.* T: *I haven't finished my work, yet.*	Repetition of the error with correct form
3	Metalinguistic feedback	Comments, information, or question but without reformulation of the error	S: *you have to apologize to her.* T: *this is an advice, what do you think …*	Identification of the error without reformulation
4	Repetition	Repetition of all or part of the utterance containing the error.	S: *she help her mum always.* T: *she helps her mum every day.*	Repetition of the error with reformulation

In the first treatment the teacher provided the students with corrective feedback. In this case, students received corrective feedback from the teacher. At the end of each unit, the students had to write a composition on the computers, and they saved them in a folder on the desktop of the computers. Then the teacher collected these drafts on a USB device. In the next period, she showed the drafts on the data show with corrective feedback and explained errors to the students. After that, the drafts were brought back to the students with corrective feedback.

In the second treatment, students provided their peers with corrective feedback about the errors. In this case, students provided and received corrective feedback from their peers. From the Review menu, the students used the option New Comment, which allowed the learner to write their comments. The teacher divided students into peer groups. Each student wrote her assignment, then they exchanged their places to provide corrective feedback about peers' errors. After that, drafts were brought back to the students.

In the third treatment, both the teacher and students provided corrective feedback: students first received and provided corrective feedback from their peers. Then the teacher provided them with corrective feedback about their errors. In this group, there was a combination between the first and second groups instructional treatment procedures.

The fourth treatment was the control group which got computer-mediated instruction,

however, no corrective feedback was provided. All the writing tasks which included providing the corrective feedback were conducted in the computer laboratory using Microsoft Word 2010 under the supervision of the researcher.

3.4. Results and findings

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to conduct the required statistical analysis to accomplish the objectives of the study. The means, standard deviations along the one-way ANOVA and the Scheffe test were conducted to find the differences that may arise as a result of the applied treatments in the study which included method (computer-mediated corrective feedback vs. computer-mediated instruction with no feedback) and modes (teacher corrective feedback, student corrective feedback, both, or no feedback) on the writing aspects (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary) post-test.

The first question focused on whether the presence/absence of corrective feedback affects EFL students' performance in writing. To answer the question, descriptive statistics related to the method of teaching on EFL students' writing skill were calculated as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Results of one-way ANOVA on the post–test for method.

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Experimental	54	21.31	4.18	26.12	.00*
Control	18	16.06	2.10		

* The results are significant at p. ≤ .05.

It is obvious that the mean scores of the experimental group on the post-test were higher than those of the control group. The difference in this finding may be attributed to the method of teaching, suggesting that students in the computer-mediated corrective feedback groups significantly outperformed their peers who neither received nor provided computer-mediated corrective feedback. This also suggests that students who received and provided computer-mediated corrective feedback got the highest significant mean scores, and their performance was the best in computer-mediated corrective feedback.

The second question was concerned with whether the mode of providing corrective feedback (teacher feedback, student feedback, and both) affects students' performance in writing. To answer this question, descriptive statistics related to the computer-mediated

corrective feedback modes (teachers' feedback, students' feedback , and both) on writing skill were calculated as shown in Table 8.

Table 8. Means and Standard Deviations of students' performance on post-test for computer-mediated corrective feedback modes.

Mode	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F.	Sig
Teachers' feedback	18	20.16	4.23	6.64	.00*
Students' feedback	18	19.44	4.71		
Both	18	23.89	1.78		
Total	54	21.31	4.18		

* The results are significant at p. ≤ .05.

As evidenced by the findings in Table 8, the group that received corrective feedback delivered by both teacher and students received significantly higher mean scores on the post-test than other groups that were provided with corrective feedback either by the teacher or students alone. Whenever ANOVA is used to examine the differences among more than 2 groups, the post-hoc procedure is used to compare differences between all pairs of means. The Scheffe test was used to conduct this comparison, thus, the Scheffe post-hoc comparison showed that means were significantly different (with p. ≤ .05), as shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Results of Scheffe Test for the computer-mediated corrective feedback modes.

Modes	Modes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig
Teachers' feedback	Students' feedback	1.17	1.27	.66
	Both	-3.28*	1.27	.04
Students' feedback	Both	-4.44*	1.27	.00

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level

As shown in Table 9, there were significant differences between teacher feedback and both teacher and student feedback in favor of the latter, with the value of significances for equality of means for the two modes being .04, which is less than 0.05. Moreover, the Scheffe

test revealed significant differences between the mean scores of students' feedback and teacher+student feedback in favor of the latter mode of feedback. This suggests that the combination of teachers' feedback and students' feedback improved the students' writing skill more than one of those modes alone.

The third question focused on which writing aspect (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary) is mainly developed by computer-mediated corrective feedback. In order to examine the effect of computer-mediated corrective feedback on students' performance in the six writing aspects, descriptive statistics related to the six writing aspects were calculated as shown in Table 10.

Table 10. One-way ANOVA of students' post-test scores by writing aspects.

Writing Aspects	**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**F**	**Sig.**
Spelling	18	4.33	1.09	13.15	.00*
Punctuation	18	4.83	.92		
Organization	18	3.44	1.04		
Content	18	2.67	.59		
Grammar	18	4.22	.94		
Vocabulary	18	4.39	.85		
Total	108	3.98	1.15		

* The results are significant at p. ≤ .05 level.

Table 10 reveals that there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the writing aspects of the experimental groups. This indicates that computer-mediated corrective feedback developed the six writing aspects differently. The Scheffe test was used in post-hoc procedure to compare differences between all pairs of means (Table 11).

Table 11. Results of the Scheffe Test for the writing aspects.

Writing Aspects	**Writing Aspects**	**Mean Difference (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Sig.**
Spelling	Content	1.67(*)	.307	.00
	Vocabulary	-.06	.307	1.00
	Organization	.89	.307	.15
	Grammar	.11	.307	1.00
	Punctuation	-.50	.307	.75
Punctuation	Content	2.17(*)	.307	.00

	Vocabulary	.44	.307	.83
	Organization	1.39(*)	.307	.00
	Grammar	.61	.307	.57
Organization	Content	.78	.307	.28
	Vocabulary	-.94	.307	.10
	Grammar	-.78	.307	.28
Content	Vocabulary	-1.72(*)	.307	.00
	Grammar	-1.56(*)	.307	.00
Grammar	Vocabulary	-.17	.307	1.00

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Table 11, there were significant differences between *spelling* and *punctuation* in favor of the latter. Moreover, the Scheffe test revealed significant differences between the mean scores of *punctuation* and *content* in favor of *punctuation*. Furthermore, there were significant differences between the mean scores of *content* and *organization*, in favor of *content.* Additionally, the Scheffe test revealed significant differences between the mean scores of *vocabulary* and *punctuation*, in favor of *punctuation*. Moreover, there were significant differences between the mean scores of *organization* and *grammar,* in favor of *grammar*. In addition, there were significant differences between the mean scores of *grammar* and *punctuation*, in favor of *punctuation*. Furthermore, there were significant differences between the mean scores of *grammar* and *vocabulary,* in favor of *grammar.* This suggests that students developed the aspect of *punctuation* to a greater extent than the remaining five writing aspects. However, *content* was the least improved aspect by computer-mediated corrective feedback.

3.5. Discussion

The first question investigated if there are any significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups due to the presence/absence of computer-mediated corrective feedback on EFL students' performance in writing. According to the findings of this study, computer-mediated corrective feedback is found to offer a great opportunity while teaching the writing skill. Students achieved better results on the writing performance test in a CMC environment in comparison to the group which received no feedback.

The ANOVA results revealed that there were significant differences between the mean score for both the experimental groups and control group in favor of the experimental groups. The differences between the experimental and control groups may be attributed to the fact that

each group was subjected to a different method of teaching; the experimental group was subjected to the computer-mediated corrective feedback while the control group to computer-mediated communication with no feedback. Students in the experimental group seemed to have improved their writing through computer-mediated corrective feedback more than the control group. Therefore, computer-mediated corrective feedback may be regarded as an effective tool in facilitating the learning process and increasing students' performance in writing. This finding is in line with that of Hashemnezhad and Mohammadnejad (2012), who reported that corrective feedback often facilitates the student's ability to identify the existence of an error.

The findings of this study affirm that students who received corrective feedback significantly outperformed those who did not receive corrective feedback. Providing corrective feedback may enhance students' writing performance. These findings are in line with the suggestion that written corrective feedback does lead to improved accuracy in subsequent pieces of writing (Ellis, Sheen, Takashima & Murakami, 2008). These findings are also in agreement with what is reported by AbuSeileek (2012) and Hossaini (2012), namely that learners who received computer-mediated corrective feedback performed significantly better than those who did not receive corrective feedback in terms of writing performance. Hyland & Hyland (2006) confirmed that feedback has been seen as a key element of students' growing control over writing skill. The result of this study also corroborates the claim of Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) that corrective feedback may enhance learning by helping learners to notice their errors in their written work. The results show that learners who received corrective feedback can develop their performance in writing skill.

The second question posited whether there were any significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental groups due to the mode of providing corrective feedback (teachers' feedback, students' feedback, and both) on students' performance in writing. The findings of the study revealed that the most effective mode in developing students' writing skill was teacher+student feedback with a mean score of 23.89 (Table 5). The ANOVA post-test revealed that there are significant differences between the mean scores of the students in the experimental groups according to the mode of providing corrective feedback via computer in favor of the 'both' mode (teachers' feedback and students' feedback). This may be attributed to the fact that students in the 'both' group received corrective feedback from two sources, their peers and the teacher.

These findings agree with Rabiee (2010) that the collaborative feedback model (teacher and students' feedback) had a significant effect on students' writing. Also the claim of

Marboyeh (2011) that teacher written corrective feedback and peer written corrective feedback had a significant effect on the writing performance was confirmed in the current study.

The third question sought to determine which writing aspect (spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary) is mainly developed by computer-mediated corrective feedback. Students in the teacher+student feedback group significantly outperformed participants in other conditions in most writing aspects related to punctuation, grammar, and vocabulary on the writing post-test. This may be due to the fact that punctuation is easier to master than the remaining six writing aspects. Some studies lend support to this finding. For example, Vyatkina (2011) and AbuSeileek (2012) found that most respondents provide feedback to intermediate-level learners on certain writing aspects, including spelling, punctuation, organization, content, grammar, and vocabulary. Teacher+student feedback might give students an opportunity for finding their errors and correcting them while writing. In such conditions, students are provided with information about their errors from more than one resource which are peers and teacher. This finding is in line with the study of AbuSeileek (2013), who reported that the students who had received computer-mediated corrective feedback while writing on measures of 11 major writing aspects (capitalization, noun phrases, misused words, punctuation, questions, relative clauses, subject–verb agreement, fragments and run-ons, verb phrases, negation, and possessives and plurals) performed significantly better than those who did not receive corrective feedback while writing on measures of the 11 major writing errors.

4. Conclusions and recommendations

Computer-mediated corrective feedback activities could be highly supportive to the learning of the writing skill. The educational environments in which computer-mediated corrective feedback are implemented are highly motivating for learning to write in English. Computer-mediated corrective feedback modes, and, specifically teacher+student feedback, helps develop students' writing by combining the characteristics of the two modes of providing corrective feedback. Providing computer-mediated corrective feedback modes via a word processor could help to improve writing aspects, including spelling, content, grammar, punctuation, organization, and vocabulary.

It is advisable to use computer-mediated corrective feedback in the English language curricula. A computer-mediated corrective feedback program that is related to the writing skill of Action Pack XI. Computer-mediated corrective feedback can be utilized for different

scholastic levels and stages to improve writing proficiency. However, attention should be paid to the integration of computer-mediated corrective feedback modes into learning and teaching environments. Computer-mediated corrective feedback should be used as active tools in the educational process of language learning and teaching.

At the same time, more research is needed in the area of teaching writing via computer-mediated corrective feedback, including using different techniques, methods, and software packages. Researchers may conduct similar studies for other classes, bigger samples, different computer-mediated corrective feedback modes and techniques, and about different writing aspects.

References

Abrams, Z. I. (2003). The effects of synchronous and asynchronous CMC on oral performance in German. *The Modern Language Journal*, *87*(2), 157-167.

Abualsha'r, A., & Abuseileek, A . (2013). Using concordancing and word processing to improve EFL graduate students' written English. *The JALT CALL Journal*, *9*(1), 59–77.

AbuSeileek, A. (2013). Using peer computer-mediated corrective feedback to support EFL learners' writing. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *29*(4), 319–333.

AbuSeileek, A. (2006) The use of word processor for teaching writing to EFL learners in King Saud University. *Journal of King Saud University*, *19*(2) 1-15.

AbuSeileek, A. & Abu Sa'aleek, A. (2012). Computer assisted language learning: merits and demerits. *Language in India Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow*, *12*(4), 23-36.

AbuSeileek, A, & Abualsha'r, A. (2014). Using peer computer-mediated corrective feedback to support EFL learners' writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, *18*(1), 76-95.

AbuSeileek, A., & Rabab'ah, G. (2013). Discourse functions and vocabulary use in English language learners' synchronous computer-mediated communication. *Teaching English with Technology*, *13*(1), 42-61.

Adams, R., Nuevo, A., &Egi, T. (2011). Explicit and implicit feedback, modified output, and SAL: Does explicit and implicit feedback promote learning and learner- learner interactions? *The Modern Language Learnin*g, 95 (supplementary issue), 42-63.

Alghazo, K., BaniAbdelrahman, M., &Abu Qbeitah, A. (2009). The effect of teachers' error feedback on AlHussein Bin Talal university students' self-correction ability. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 12*(1), 142-156.

Al-Khasawneh, F. (2010).Writing for academic purposes: problems faced by Arab postgraduate students of the College of Business. *ESP World*, *9*(2), 1-23.

Beuningen, C. (2010). Corrective feedback in l2 writing: Theoretical perspectives, empirical insight, and future directions. *International Journal of English Studies, 10(2)*, 1-27.

Bitchener, J., East., M. & Cartner, H. (2010). *The Effectiveness of Providing Second Language (L2) Writers with On-Line Written Corrective Feedback.* Wellington, NZ: AkoAotearoa.

Burt, M. (1975).Error analysis in the adult EFL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, *9*(1), 53-63.

Chan, J., & Lam, S. (2010). Effects of different evaluative feedback on students' self-efficacy in learning. *Annual Conference of the Australian Psychological Society, 38*, 37–58.

Cherrington, R. (2000). Error analysis. In Byram, M. (ed.). *Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 198-199). London; New York: Routledge.

Ciftci, H., & Kocoglu, Z. (2012). Effects of peer e-feedback on Turkish EFL students' writing performance. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 46*(1), 61-84.

Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1, 3-18.

Ellis, R. Sheen, Y. Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System*, 36, 353-371.

Evans, N., Hartshorn, K., & Tuioti, E, (2010). Written corrective feedback: practitioners' perspectives. *International Journal of English Studies, 10*(2), 47-77.

Gündüz, N. (2005).Computer assisted language learning. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies***,** *1*(2), 191-214.

Hashemnezhad, H., & Mohammadnejad, S. (2012). A case for direct and indirect feedback: The other side of coin. *English Language Teaching, 5*(3), 230-239.

Hosseini, S. (2013). The impact of asynchronous computer-mediated corrective feedback on increasing Iranian EFL learners' correct use of present tenses. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications, 4(*1), 138-153.

Hyland, K. & Hyland, F. (2006). *Feedback in Second Language Writing: Context and Issues*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jdetawy L. (2011). Problems encountered by Arab EFL learners. *Language in India*, 11, 19-27.

Jodaie, M.,Farrokhi, F., & Zoghi, M. (2011). A comparative study of EFL teachers' and intermediate high school students' perceptions of written corrective feedback on grammatical errors. *English Language Teaching, 4*(4), 36-48.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. London: Pergamon Press Inc.

Lin, W., & Yang, Sh. (2011). Exploring students' perceptions of integrating wiki technology and peer feedback into English writing courses. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *10*(2), 88-103.

Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Corrective feedback in the chatroom: an experimental study. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *19*(1), 1-14.

Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66.

Marboyeh, A. (2011). The impact of teacher feedback and peer feedback on the writing performance of EFL students with different learning styles. *International Online Language Conference (IOLC), 2*, 445-452.

Matsumura, S., & Hann, G. (2004). Computer anxiety and students' preferred feedback methods in EFL writing. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*, 403-415.

Ministry of Education, (2006)*.General Guidelines and General and Specific Outcomes for the English Language*. Amman: Ministry of Education.

Motallebzadeh, K., & Amirabadi, S. (2011). Online international feedback in second language writing: Through peer and tutor? *MJAL*, 3(2), 156-174.

Pan, Y. (2010). The effect of teacher error feedback on the accuracy of EFL student writing. *TEFLIN Journal*, *21*(1), 57-77.

Petchprasert, A. (2012). Feedback in second language teaching and learning. *US-China Foreign Language*, *10*(4), 1112-1120.

Rabiee, M. (2010). Facilitating learning to gather in Iranian context: Three collaborative oral feedback models in EFL writing classes. *Sino-US English Teaching, 7*(3), 10-22

Rahimpour, M. (2011). Computer assisted language learning (CALL). *International Journal of Instructional Technology & Distance Learning***,** *8*(1), 3-9.

Razagifard, P., & Razzaghifard, V. (2011).Corrective feedback in a computer-mediated communicative context and the development of second language grammar. *Teaching English with Technology, 11*(2), 1-17.

Rezaee, A., & Ahmadzadeh, S. (2012). Integrating computer mediated with face-to-face communication and EFL learners' vocabulary improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3*(3), 346-352.

Salomon, G., Kosminsky, E., & Asaf, M. (2003). Computers and writing. In Nunes, T., & Bryant, P. (Eds.) *Handbook of Children's Literacy* (pp. 409-442). London: Kluwer.

Sauro, S. (2009).Computer-mediated corrective feedback and the development of L2 grammar. *Language Learning & Technology, 13*(1), 96-120.

Sheen, Y., Wright, D., & Moldawa, A. (2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners. *System 37*(4), 556-569.

Soori, A., Kafipour, R., & Soury, M. (2011). Effectiveness of different types of direct corrective feedback on correct use of English articles among the Iranian EFL students. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 26*(4), 494-501.

Sotilo, S. (2005). Corrective feedback via instant messenger learning activities in NS-NNS and NNS-NNS dyads. *CALICO Journal, 22*(3), 467-496.

Srichanyachon, N. (2012). Teacher written feedback for L2 learners' writing development. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities and Arts, 12(1),* 7-17.

Tarawneh, R. (2011). The reasons behind writing problems for Jordanian secondary students 2010-2011. *Language in India, 11*, 92-112.

Touchie, H. (1986). Second language learning errors their types, causes, and treatment. *JALT Journal, 8*(1), 75-80.

Vanderbeek, G. (2007). Improving the effectiveness of independent practice with corrective feedback. Retrieved from http://scimath.unl.edu/MIM/files/research/VanderbeekG.pdf

Verhoef, R., & Tomic, W. (1996). Computer-aided acquisition of writing skill. *Curriculum and Teaching, 11* (1), 3-21.

Vyatkina, N. (2011). Writing instruction and policies for written corrective feedback in the basic language sequence. *L2 Journal*, 3, 63-92.

IRANIAN EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTION, FAMILIARITY AND USE OF WEB 2.0 TOOLS IN TEFL

by **Seyed Abdollah Shahrokni**
Washington State University,
Pullman, WA 99164-2132, USA
s.shahrokni @ wsu.edu
and **Leila Sadeqjoola**
Fahim Language School,
Dezful, Khuzestan 64618-56431, Iran
lilysadeqjoola @ yahoo.com

"The literate of the twenty-first century must be able to download, upload, rip, burn, chat, save, blog, Skype, IM, and share."

- Mullen and Wedwick (2008)

Abstract

Following social-constructivist approaches in education, there has been a growing interest in employing Web 2.0 technologies in language classes. While the effectiveness of these digital teaching crafts has been corroborated in many studies (see Crook et al., 2008, for a survey), there is always doubt if they have reached a normalized state in L2 classes (Bax, 2003). This study, therefore, attempts to investigate the attitude of a group of language teachers towards the effectiveness of these emerging technologies in L2 classes. There were 53 participants in the study affiliated with universities, Ministry of Education, and language schools in Dezful. A questionnaire based on Son (2011) was designed in which Likert-scaled items were used to assess the factors of familiarity, perception, and use of online technologies in the classroom.

The results suggested that most of the respondents exhibited low degrees of familiarity and use towards the technologies under investigation despite considering computerized tools as effective in the teaching-learning process. Besides, further explanations in semi-structured interview sessions indicated that most of the participants expected policy makers to incorporate supplementary Information Technology (IT) courses and facilities into teacher education and in-service programs as well as educational settings.

Keywords*:* Web 2.0 tools; Normalization; Teachers' Familiarity; teacher education

1. Introduction

Using information technology tools in foreign language education is making a new trend worldwide (Liu, 2009; Mouza, 2002). Related to this trend is the creation and use of many online tools and websites in an attempt to enhance the process of second language learning

and teaching (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008; Chun, 2007; Godwin-Jones, 2009; Hubbard, 2008; Shin & Son 2007; Son, 2011; Wellington, 2005). However, the excitement for blending new technologies into the teaching-learning process has been compromised by a lack of suitable conceptual frameworks on the one hand (Warschauer & Kern, 2000; Neumeier, 2005), and, more importantly, the poor adoption of such tools by language teachers (Bush, 2008; Daly, 2003; Garrett, 2009) on the other.

Recent developments at the conceptual level have fairly solved the first shortcoming. First, social approaches to learning, especially social-constructivist, ecological, and socio-cultural frameworks, which generally place collective knowledge through interaction with the environment (Atkinson, 2002; Duffy & Cunningham, 1996; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007) at the forefront of education, have offered a more dynamic context for the cultivation of both cognitive and social demands of language learning in a community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Second, with the emergence of the current version of the Internet (Web 2.0), which provides users with the ability to upload and share information via networked computers (Crook et al., 2008), an array of social applications have materialized under the notion of, according to Son (2004), Internet-based language instruction (IBLI). The combination of these developments has been so versatile that Mullen and Wedwick (2008), for instance, argue that "being literate no longer only involves being able to read and write. The literate of the twenty-first century must be able to download, upload, rip, burn, chat, save, blog, Skype, IM, and share" (p. 66).

As regards the second issue, namely teachers' perception and implementation of online tools in the teaching-learning process, the results have been mixed, though. Part of this complexity has arisen from human-related issues such as beliefs, attitudes and confidence level. Research suggests that teachers with positive attitudes and higher confidence levels are more inclined to take advantage of computer technologies in their classrooms (e.g. Atkins & Vasu, 2000; Can, 2009; Kessler & Plakans, 2008; Kim, 2002; Lam, 2000; Park & Son, 2009; Rakes & Casey, 2000; Son, Robb, & Charismiadji, 2011). However, there have been cases where highly motivated teachers have expressed inability in using online tools in the classroom due to logistical factors which have in/directly influenced their performance. For instance, in a study into Indonesian EFL teachers' perception towards use of online technologies in the classroom, Son et al. (2011) found that, despite having positive attitudes towards the aids coming from computer-assisted language learning (CALL), the participants were not competent enough to employ computer technologies in the classroom. Furthermore, Park and Son (2009) identified such external factors as time constraints, scarcity of computer-

based facilities, and dominant traditional textbooks and curricula as important obstacles in using computer technologies.

In the Iranian context, some studies have investigated the EFL teachers' perceptions and use of online technologies in the classroom as well (e.g. Atai & Dashtestani, 2013; Dashtestani, 2012; Dashtestani & Sharifi, 2012; Golchinpour, 2013; Mazdayasna & Tahririan, 2008; Mohagheghzadeh & Abdolahi, 2002; Taghva, 2001). The results of these studies converge on the positive attitudes of language teachers towards the implementation of computer-based technologies in foreign language education while considering similar external factors as obstacles in the empowerment of language teachers and normalization of computer and information technology tools in EFL classrooms. The present study adopted a similar approach in assessing the current state of affairs in one of the southern cities of Iran—Dezful, Khuzestan. However, since the positive attitudes of language teachers towards the use of technologies in the classroom had been corroborated in previous studies, this study attempted to investigate the state of familiarity, perception and use of Web 2.0 technologies in the classroom. Accordingly, the study addressed the following research questions:

1. How familiar are the EFL teachers with emerging Web 2.0 technologies?
2. What are their perceptions towards effectiveness of such technologies in foreign language education?
3. What is the frequency by which they adopt these tools in foreign language education?

2. Methodology

2.1. Design

The study relied upon a survey design, comprising both close- and open-ended items and follow-up semi-structured interview sessions. Through surveys, researchers can obtain a large amount of data on attitudes and perceptions of a large number of participants while interviews can further uncover qualitative aspects of the attitudes (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

2.2. Participants

There were 53 EFL teachers (49 female and 6 male) who voluntarily agreed to participate in the study. They ranged in age from 20 to 40 and were affiliated to Ministry of Education (N=7), university (N=5), or worked independently at language schools (N=41). The participants held M.A. (N=5) and B.A. (N=48) degrees, and had an average teaching experience of 7.6 years.

2.3. Instrumentation

A questionnaire was designed based on the categorization of Online Tools for Language Teaching (OTLT) proposed by Son (2011). This comprehensive list includes twelve categories, namely *learning/content management system (LMS/CMS)*, *communication*, *live and virtual worlds*, *social networking and bookmarking*, *blogs and wikis*, *presentation*, *resource sharing*, *website creation*, *website exercise creation*, *web search engines*, *dictionaries and concordances*, *and utilities*, under which individual tools for personal, group and organizational learning have been collected. The OTLT constituted the building block of our questionnaire, which was then aggregated with appropriate Likert-scaled questions for the assessment of the participants' familiarity, perception and use of Web 2.0 technologies in the classroom. Along with each superordinate category, three instances of the most frequently used tools under the respective category were used as prompts. The decision on the three most frequently used applications in each category was made based on Internet searches and application reviews. Each section was concluded with a blank space left intentionally for the respondents' viewpoints.

A semi-structured interview protocol was another instrument used to further probe into the attitudes of participants. With a fixed order and number of items (Appendix 1), the protocol was used to elicit more details on the participants' familiarity, perception, and use of web 2.0 technologies in the classroom.

2.4. Procedure

Since the study was concerned with uncovering EFL teachers' attitudes regarding the OTLT, we were required to recruit participants by entering research sites—language schools. Overall, we referred to 12 language schools, asking teachers to participate in the study. Having been briefed on the content of the questionnaire, the participants attempted the items with the accompaniment of one of the authors. When faced with ambiguities, the participants asked for clarifications. These points were then considered in revising the instrument for its consecutive administrations.

Having administrated the questionnaire and analyzed the data, we asked the participants to further attend interview sessions and comment on their choices. The interviews were recorded and further transcribed word for word to arrive at constituent themes (Kvale, 2007). The interviews were conducted over the phone and in Persian, the mother tongue, to let the participants express themselves freely.

Overall, the data-collection phase of research lasted for almost three months.

3. Results

Descriptive statistics were used to quantify the obtained data using the software SPSS for Windows ver. 19. The current subchapter presents the results of the three foci of instrument, namely *familiarity*, *perception*, and *use* of web 2.0 technologies in the classroom.

3.1. Familiarity with OTLT

The results (see Appendix 2) suggested that most of the respondents had relatively low levels of familiarity with the technologies under investigation. The overall mean for the percentages recorded under every scale showed that the respondents possessed 14.15% complete, 14.49% good, 10.88% fair, 18.95% poor, and 33.66% no familiarity with the technologies under investigation, that is almost 39.52% possessed some degree of familiarity and 52.64%, less or no expertise. Moreover, performing the same analogy, that is combining the percentages recorded under the three columns *completely familiar*, *good* and *fair*, the results suggested that emails (92.4%), chats (90.6%), web search engines (77.4%), dictionaries (75.5%), and social (73.6%) and information networking (47.3%) tools were considered as familiar technologies. The following chart presents a visual description of the familiarity level of participants with the technologies under investigation.

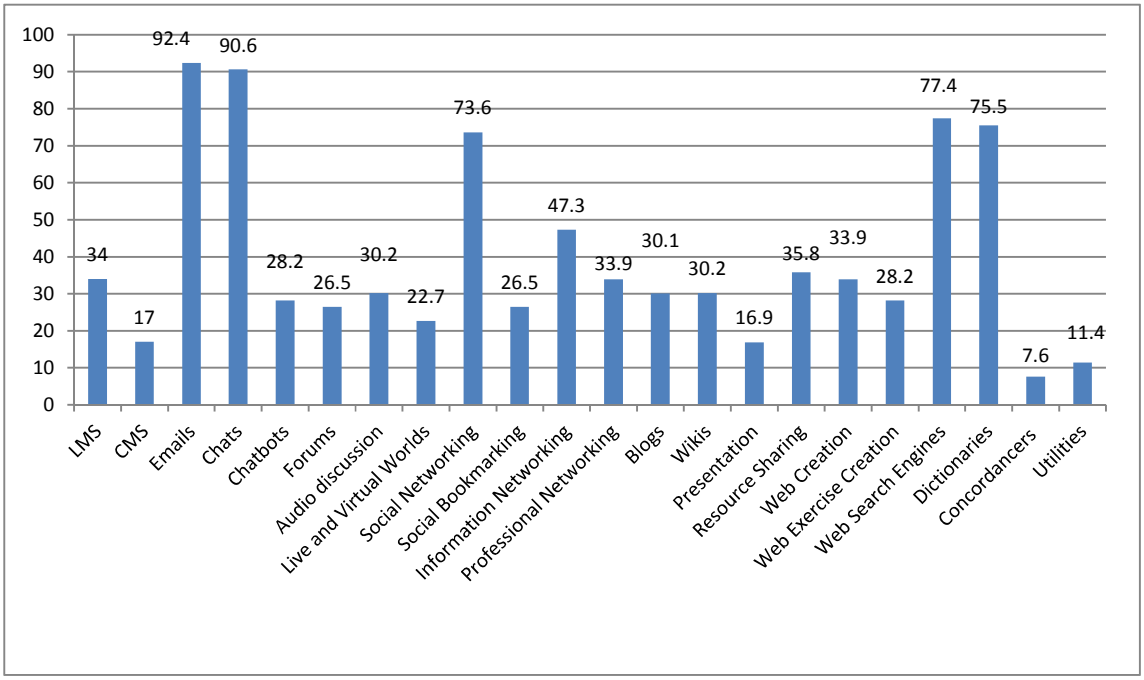


Figure 1. Teachers' familiarity with the OTLT

3.2 Frequency of using OTLT in the classroom

The results (see Appendix C) suggested that almost half of the respondents had never (54.36%) or seldom (5.83%) used the tools in the classroom, with 24.35% being undecided. The overall mean on the respondent choices expressing some degree of use was 15.86%. The value of standard deviation of collective scores was also relatively smaller for this section of questionnaire, indicating that respondents formed almost a homogeneous sample. The most frequently used tools in the classroom were dictionaries (41.5%), web search engines (37.8%), and emails (33.9%). The following graph represents the findings visually:

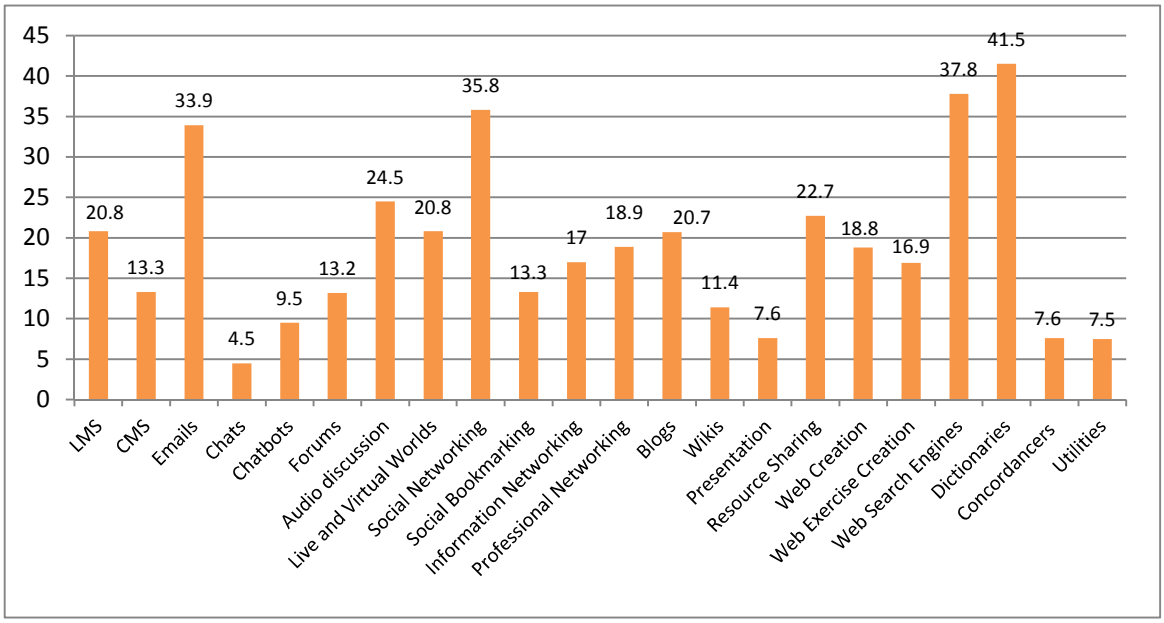


Figure 2. Frequency of using OTLT in the Classroom

3.3 Perceptions of using OTLT in the classroom

The results (see Appendix D) showed that almost half of the participants were undecided (54.11%) about the effectiveness of OTLT, although only marginally (3.36%) regarding them as ineffective. The combination of other remaining scales and choices suggested that the other half of participants regarded the OTLT tools as possessing some degrees of effectiveness, with such technologies as web search engines (69.9%), dictionaries (69.7%), chats (64.1%), and emails (62.3%) as being considered the most effective. The following chart illustrates the results:

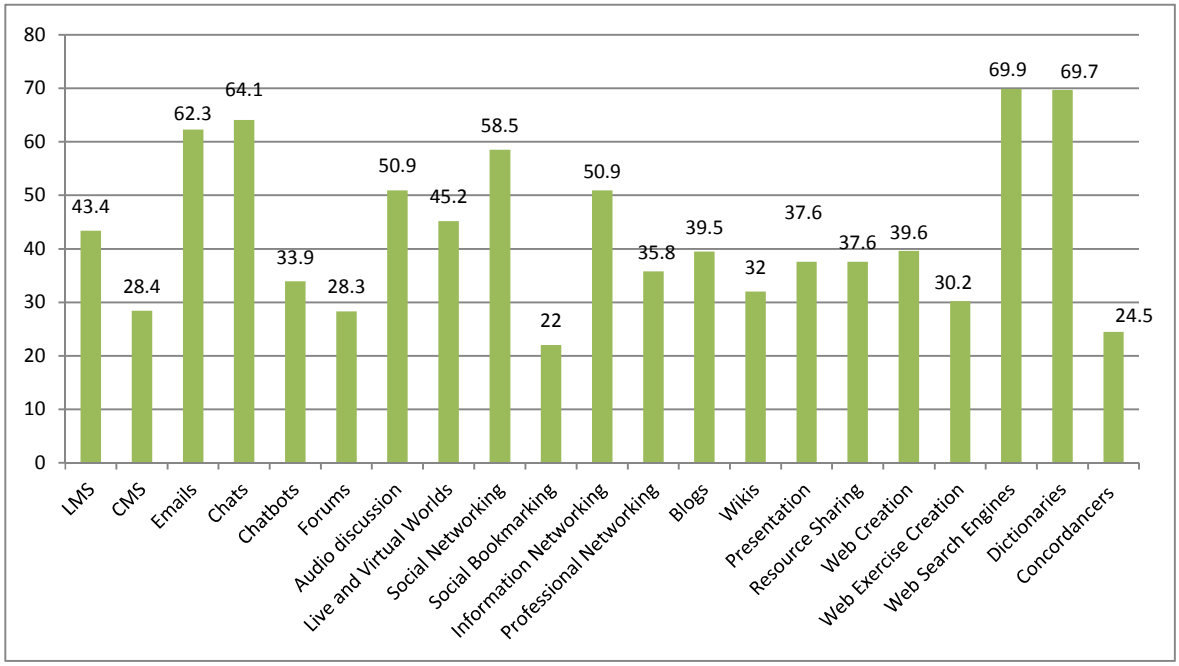


Figure 3. Perceptions of participants regarding effectiveness of OTLT

3.4 Interview

When asked to comment on the statistics and graphs, the participants confirmed the overall trends, providing some justifications for the emergent patterns. They further suggested some strategies to bypass the situation. The results confirmed that, despite EFL teachers' positive attitudes towards CALL, certain external factors prevented the normalization of computerized tools in foreign language education. The recurrent themes emerged from both the open-ended sections of the questionnaire and further interview sessions seemed to converge on lack of appropriate equipment and training in the teacher education programs, Internet connectivity problems in Iran, students' lack of computer literacy, and dean/managers' reluctance to invest in new technologies—issues already referred to in the literature (e.g. Atai & Dashtestani, 2013; Dashtestani, 2012; Dashtestani & Sharifi, 2012; Golchinpour, 2013; Mazdayasna & Tahririan, 2008; Mohagheghzadeh & Abdolahi, 2002; Taghva, 2001).

The participants expected the policy makers to facilitate the normalization process of CALL through providing language teachers with necessary soft/hardware equipment and training in the teacher development and in-service programs. Likewise, they called for the incorporation of IT courses in the school curricula to enhance the students' computer literacy. Regarding the technical difficulties, such as low Internet connectivity issues, they expected the policy makers, governmental and private bodies to alleviate the problems. That, they believed, would encourage the normalization of online technologies whose adoption is solely

possible in the presence of faster Internet services. As a final point, it was deemed necessary that language school managers make provisions for the inclusion IT technologies in foreign language education.

4. Discussion

Information technology (IT) advances have led to the emergence of many pedagogical tools. In foreign language education, the abundance of computerized tools has revolutionized the field although incorporating available technologies in the classroom is neither structurally nor practically possible. According to Son (2011), the answer to the 5W1H (who, when, where, what, why and how) questions regarding the blend determines if we have made proper use of this potential. Indeed, the results of the present study indicated that not all of the technologies listed under OTLT were incorporated in the foreign language education with the same frequency. The results showed that emails, chats, web search engines, dictionaries, and social and information networking tools were among the most familiar, frequently used, and effective technologies in foreign language education. As this is a relatively recurrent trend (e.g. Crook, et al., 2008; Shahrokni & Talaeizadeh, 2013), we may conclude that the potential Web 2.0 technologies have not reached a normalized state in Iranian language classes. Although the OTLT has been devised for language education, this trend suggests that only a limited number of online tools are used in the process of second language teaching, with most of the respondents being undecided about the effectiveness of such tools.

Blended learning, which constitutes an important building block in today's education (Rovai & Jordan, 2004), offers the promise of a more effective learning experience (Dziuban & Moskal, 2001; Lapadat, 2002; Voos, 2003). Blending Web 2.0 technologies into face-to-face language classes, hence, seems to be doubly important as the social nature of such technologies is compatible with that of second language acquisition, as the Internet has the potential of supporting virtual spaces where communities can form, maintain, and revitalize (Kendall, 2002).

The present study, which was an attempt to understand the normalization process in Iran, proved that despite the availability of many technological tools language teachers seemed to be less familiar with Web 2.0 technologies, and even if they were, they used them rarely in the classroom, largely due to logistical reasons. Studies on the normalization of Internet tools in the Iranian EFL context are not scarce, with most of the studies highlighting the effectiveness of computerized technologies in foreign language education while attributing the shortcomings to certain frequently cited factors. As online technologies have

entered our lives in many forms nowadays, we will be depriving our students of the more dynamic learning experience they deserve if we fail to exploit such technologies for educational purposes. As such, it is imperative that proper actions be taken in alleviating the problems hindering the normalization process. Of course, care should be exercised in creating the blend, as sound theoretical and practical considerations need to inform the decisions made.

5. Suggestions for further research

Obviously, this study is far from complete. As uncovering the factors influencing the pace of normalization requires both quantitative and qualitative inquiries, it is suggested that a study aiming at unifying the scattered findings emerging from the Iranian context investigations be carried out so that a roadmap can be set for identifying and handling the challenges in the normalization process systematically. Likewise, the field can benefit from qualitative investigations to shed more light on socio-cultural aspects of the trends.

6. Conclusion

The present study aimed at uncovering the current trends in familiarity, perception and use of online technologies in the foreign language classroom. The results suggested that CALL has not reached a normalized state in the foreign language classrooms, as the participants expressed low degrees of familiarity and use towards Web 2.0 technologies under investigation. This trend was further shown to be attributed to such external factors as unavailability of CALL training and equipment in the teacher education programs, problems in the Iranian Internet services, and students' lack of suitable computer and Internet skills. This study, hence, calls for the inclusion of CALL courses in the teaching education programs as well as spread of CALL soft/hardware technologies in foreign language education.

Acknowledgement

We would like to thank the participants who willingly contributed their time to this study.

References

Atai, M. R., & Dashtestani, R. (2013). Iranian English for academic purposes (EAP) stakeholders' attitudes toward using the Internet in EAP courses for civil engineering students: promises and challenges. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 26(1), 21-38.* DOI:10.1080/09588221.2011.627872.

Atkins, N. E., & Vasu, E. S. (2000). Measuring knowledge of technology usage and stages of concern about computing: A study of middle school teachers. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, *8*(4), 279-302.

Atkinson, D. (2002). Toward a sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition. *Modern Language Journal*, *86*, 525–545.

Bax, S. (2003). CALL: Past, present and future. System, *31*, 13-48.

Bush, M. D. (2008). Computer-assisted language learning: From vision to reality? *CALICO Journal*, *25*(3), 443-470.

Can, T. (2009). Learning and teaching languages online: A constructivist approach. *Novitas-ROYAL*, *3*(1), 60-74.

Chapelle, C., & Jamieson, J. (2008). *Tips for Teaching with CALL: Practical Approaches to Computer-Assisted Language Learning*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.

Chun, D. M. (2007). Come ride the wave: But where is it taking us? *CALICO Journal*, *24*(2), 239-252.

Crook, C., Cummings, J., Fisher, T., Graber, R., Harrison, C., Lewin, C., et al. (2008). *Web 2.0 Technologies for Learning: The Current Landscape – Opportunities, Challenges and Tensions* (research reports). Coventry: British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (BECTA). Retrieved January 29, 2013, from http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/1474/1/becta_2008_web2_currentlandscape_litrev.pdf/.

Daly, P. (2003). The case study method and business English language teaching in impact of culture and education on learning practices. Paper presented at the 10th Annual EDiNEB Conference. Renaissance Hotel, Salzburg, Austria.

Dashtestani, R. (2012). Barriers to the implementation of CALL in EFL courses: Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes and perspectives. *The JALT CALL Journal*, *8*(2), 55-70.

Dashtestani, R., & Sharifi, A. (2012). Web-based assessment of academic vocabulary: Iranian EAP students' attitudes, confidence and self-efficacy. Paper presented at the 6th conference on issues in English language teaching in Iran, University of Tehran.

Duffy, T. M., & Cunningham, D. J. (1996). Constructivism: Implications for the design and delivery of instruction. In D. H. Jonassen (Ed.), *Handbook of Research for Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 170-198). New York: Macmillan Library Reference USA.

Dziuban, C., & Moskal, P. (2001). Evaluating distributed learning in metropolitan universities. *Metropolitan Universities*, *12*(1), 41-49.

Garrett, N. (2009). Computer-assisted language learning trends and issues revisited: Integrating innovation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93* (Focus Issue), 719-740.

Godwin-Jones, R. (2009). Personal learning environments. *Language Learning & Technology*, *13*(2), 3-9. Retrieved October 19, 2013, from http://llt.msu.edu/vol13num2/emerging.pdf.

Golchinpour, R. (2013). ICT use in high school EFL instruction: Teachers' perceptions and practices. MA thesis, English Department, Islamic Azad University, Khuzestan Science and Research Branch, Ahwaz, Iran,

Hubbard, P. (2008). CALL and the future of language teacher education. *CALICO Journal*, *25*(2), 175-188.

Kendall, L. (2002). *Hanging out in the Virtual Pub: Masculinities and Relationships Online*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Kessler, G., & Plakans, L. (2008). Does teachers' confidence with CALL equal innovative and integrated use? *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *21*(3), 269-282.

Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing Interviews*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kim, H. (2002). Teachers as a barrier to technology-integrated language teaching. *English Teaching*, *57*(2), 35-64.

Lam, Y. (2000). Technophilia vs. technophobia: A preliminary look at why second language teachers do or do not use technology in their classrooms. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 56*(3), 389-420.

Lantolf, J. & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural Theory and Genesis of Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lapadat, J. C. (2002, July). Written interaction: A key component in online learning. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *7*(4), Retrieved January 13, 2013, from http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol7/issue4/lapadat.html.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Liu, J. (2009). A survey of EFL learners' attitudes toward Information and Communication Technologies. *English Language Teaching*, *2*(4). Retrieved October 23, 2013, from http://ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/download/4455/3797/

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Mazdayasna, G., & Tahririan, M. H. (2008). Developing a profile of the ESP needs of Iranian students: The case of students of nursing and midwifery. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 7*(4), 277-289.

McKay, S. L. (2006). *Researching Second Language Classrooms*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Mohagheghzadeh, G., & Abdolahi, M. (2002). Analysis of the attitudes of the Internet users of the university of medical sciences towards the Internet. *Faslnameh Etela Rasani*, *18*(2), 1–10.

Mouza, C. (2002). Learning to teach with new technology: implications for professional development. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, *35*(2), 272-289.

Mullen, R., & Wedwick, L. (2008). Avoiding the digital abyss: Getting started in the classroom with youtube, digital stories, and blogs. *Clearing House*, *82*(2), 66-69.

Neumeier, P. (2005). A closer look at blended learning--parameters for designing a blended learning environment for language teaching and learning. *ReCALL*, *17*(2), 163-178.

Park, C. N., & Son, J.-B. (2009). Implementing computer-assisted language learning in the EFL classroom: Teachers' perceptions and perspectives. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning, 5*(2), 80-101.

Rakes, G. C., & Casey, H. B. (2000). An analysis of teacher concerns toward instructional technology. Retrieved October 23, 2013, from http://www.ed.uiuc.edu/IJET/v3n1/rakes/index.html.

Rovai, A. P., & Barnum, K. T. (2003). Online course effectiveness: An analysis of student interactions and perceptions of learning. *Journal of Distance Education*, *18*(1), 57-73.

Shahrokni, S. A., & Talaeizadeh, A. (2013). Learning processes in blended language learning: A mixed-methods approach. *TESL-EJ, 17*(3). Retrieved December 25, 2013, from http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume17/ej67/ej67a2/.

Son, J. (2011, June). Online tools for language teaching. *TESL-EJ, 15*(1). Retrieved July 6, 2012, from http://www.tesl-ej.org/wordpress/issues/volume15/ej57/ej57int/

Son, J. (2004). *Internet-based Language Instruction: Study Book*. Toowoomba, Australia: Distance Education Centre, University of Southern Queensland.

Son, J., Robb, T., & Charismiadji, I. (2011). Computer literacy and competency: A survey of Indonesian teachers of English as a foreign language. *CALL-EJ, 12*(1), 26-42.

Taghva, M. (2001). The analysis of the rate of using the Internet by academic staff. *Faslnameh Motaleaate Modiriat*, *29*(30), 71–88.

Voos, R. (2003). Blended Learning: What is it and where might it take us? *Sloan-C View*, *2*(1), 2-5.

Wellington, J. (2005). Has ICT come of age? Recurring debates on the role of ICT in Education, 1982–2004. *Research in Science & Technological Education*, *23*(1), 15. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02635140500068419.

Warschauer, M., & Kern, R. (2000). *Network-Based Language Teaching: Concepts and Practice*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix 1. Semi-structured interview protocol

1. How familiar are you with the technologies listed in the questionnaire? Which do you consider more popular? Which do consider more popular among language learners/teachers? Which do you use more frequently?
2. In your opinion, how effective is using online technologies in the foreign language education? How prevalent is using online technologies in the classrooms? How often do you use them in your classes?
3. Is there any problem in the implementation of online technologies in the classroom? In your opinion, what strategies could be adopted to bypass the shortcomings, if any?

Appendix 2. Familiarity with the OTLT

A. How familiar are you with the following technologies?	**Completely familiar (%)**	**Good (%)**	**Fair (%)**	**Poor (%)**	**Not familiar at all (%)**	**Undecided (%)**
Learning Management Systems (e.g. MOODLE, Blackboard, Desire2learn, etc.)	1.9	18.9	13.2	24.5	30.2	11.3
Content Management Systems (e.g. Drupal, Joomla, Xoops, etc.)	1.9	13.2	1.9	30.2	43.4	9.4
Emails (e.g. Yahoo! Mail, Gmail, Hotmail, etc.)	45.3	37.7	9.4	0	3.8	3.8
Chats (e.g. Yahoo! Messenger, Windows Live Messenger, Skype, etc.)	45.3	34.0	11.3	3.8	1.9	3.8
Chatbots (e.g. Verbot, Cleverbot, Jabberwacky, etc.)	7.5	7.5	13.2	22.6	45.3	3.8
Forums (e.g. MyBB, phpBB, Tangler, etc.)	5.7	3.8	17.0	18.9	50.9	3.8
Audio discussions (e.g. Voxopop, VoiceThread, KVR audio, etc.)	5.7	11.3	13.2	22.6	41.5	5.7
Virtual Worlds (e.g. Active Worlds, Second Life, Twinity, etc.)	3.8	3.8	15.1	18.9	54.7	3.8
Social Networking (e.g. Facebook, Google +, MySpace, etc.)	30.2	24.5	18.9	11.3	9.4	5.7
Information Networking (e.g. Twitter, Evernote, Friendfeed, etc.)	17.0	11.3	18.9	24.5	22.6	5.7
Professional Networking (e.g. Linkedin, Viadeo, XING, etc.)	11.3	11.3	11.3	28.3	32.1	5.7
Social Bookmarking (e.g. Delicious, Diigo, Google bookmarks, etc.)	5.7	5.7	15.1	18.9	43.4	11.3
Blogs (e.g. Blogger, Wordpress, Edublogs, etc.)	9.4	11.3	9.4	22.6	39.6	7.5
Wikis (e.g. PBWorks, Wikispaces, Edmodo, etc.)	3.8	13.2	13.2	17.0	37.7	15.1
Presentation (e.g. 280 Slides,	1.9	7.5	7.5	24.5	50.9	7.5

Animoto, SlideRocket, etc.)						
Resource Sharing (e.g. Google Docs, Youtube, MyPodcast , etc.)	11.3	17.0	7.5	24.5	28.3	11.3
Website Creation (e.g. Google sites, Movable type, KompoZer, etc.)	11.3	15.1	7.5	18.9	37.7	9.4
Web Exercise Creation (e.g. ContentGenerator, Hot Potatoes, SMILE, etc.)	9.4	7.5	11.3	20.8	43.4	7.5
Web Search Engines (e.g. Google, Yahoo!, Ask.com, etc.)	43.4	28.3	5.7	7.5	9.4	5.7
Dictionaries (e.g. Dictionary.com, OneLook.com , Forvo, etc.)	34.0	30.2	11.3	5.7	11.3	7.5
Concordancers (e.g. VLC Web Concordancer, Wordsmith, AntConc, etc.)	1.9	1.9	3.8	24.5	52.8	15.1
Utilities (e.g. Voki, Storybird, Wallwisher, etc.)	3.8	3.8	3.8	26.4	50.9	11.3
Mean	**14.15**	**14.49**	**10.88**	**18.95**	**33.69**	**7.80**
SD	**14.96**	**10.35**	**4.73**	**8.23**	**16.89**	**3.53**

Appendix 3. Frequency of Using OTLT in the Classroom

A. How often have you used the following technologies <u>in your teaching practice</u>? You may skip this (or any) part if you indicated unfamiliarity in part D.	**Always (%)**	**Often (%)**	**Sometimes (%)**	**Seldom (%)**	**Never (%)**	**Undecided (%)**
Learning Management Systems (e.g. MOODLE, Blackboard, Desire2learn, etc.)	5.7	7.5	3.8	3.8	54.7	24.5
Content Management Systems (e.g. Drupal, Joomla, Xoops, etc.)	0	3.8	5.7	3.8	64.2	22.6
Emails (e.g. Yahoo! Mail, Gmail, Hotmail, etc.)48	11.3	15.1	7.5	11.3	37.7	17
Chats (e.g. Yahoo! Messenger, Windows Live Messenger, Skype, etc.)	9.4	9.4	5.7	13.2	43.4	18.9
Chatbots (e.g. Verbot, Cleverbot, Jabberwacky, etc.)	0	1.9	3.8	3.8	64.2	26.4
Forums (e.g. MyBB, phpBB, Tangler, etc.)	0	1.9	3.8	7.5	58.2	28.3
Audio discussions (e.g. Voxopop, VoiceThread, KVR audio, etc.)	1.9	9.4	5.7	7.5	52.8	22.6
Virtual Worlds (e.g. Active Worlds, Second Life, Twinity, etc.)	1.9	5.7	9.4	3.8	54.7	24.5
Social Networking (e.g. Facebook, Google +, MySpace, etc.)	9.4	11.3	9.4	5.7	43.4	20.8
Information Networking (e.g. Twitter, Evernote, Friendfeed, etc.)	7.5	1.9	3.8	3.8	56.6	26.4

Professional Networking (e.g. Linkedin, Viadeo, XING, etc.)	3.8	1.9	5.7	7.5	54.7	26.4
Social Bookmarking (e.g. Delicious, Diigo, Google bookmarks, etc.)	1.9	1.9	5.7	3.8	60.4	26.4
Blogs (e.g. Blogger, Wordpress, Edublogs, etc.)	7.5	3.8	1.9	7.5	52.8	26.4
Wikis (e.g. PBWorks, Wikispaces, Edmodo, etc.)	3.8	1.9	1.9	3.8	62.3	26.4
Presentation (e.g. 280 Slides, Animoto, SlideRocket, etc.)	0	1.9	1.9	3.8	64.2	28.3
Resource Sharing (e.g. Google Docs, Youtube, MyPodcast , etc.)	1.9	5.7	9.4	5.7	52.8	24.5
Website Creation (e.g. Google sites, Movable type, KompoZer, etc.)	0	3.8	7.5	5.7	58.5	24.5
Web Exercise Creation (e.g. ContentGenerator, Hot Potatoes, SMILE, etc.)	1.9	0	7.5	7.5	56.6	26.4
Web Search Engines (e.g. Google, Yahoo!, Ask.com, etc.**)**	15.1	5.7	17.0	1.9	41.5	18.9
Dictionaries (e.g. Dictionary.com, OneLook.com , Forvo, etc.)	22.6	15.1	3.8	5.7	34.0	18.9
Concordancers (e.g. VLC Web Concordancer, Wordsmith, AntConc, etc.)	1.9	1.9	0	3.8	62.3	30.2
Utilities (e.g. Voki, Storybird, Wallwisher, etc.)	0	0	0	7.5	66.0	26.4
Mean	**4.88**	**5.49**	**5.49**	**5.83**	**54.36**	**24.35**
SD	**5.82**	**3.8**	**2.70**	**2.70**	**9.09**	**3.52**

Appendix 4. Perceptions of Participants regarding the OTLT Effectiveness

A. In your opinion, how <u>effective</u> are the following technologies in <u>language teaching</u>? You may skip this (or any) part if you indicated unfamiliarity in part D.	**Very effective (%)**	**Quite effective (%)**	**Fairly effective (%)**	**Slightly effective (%)**	**Not at all effective (%)**	**Undecided (%)**
Learning Management Systems (e.g. MOODLE, Blackboard, Desire2learn, etc.)	17.0	13.2	7.5	5.7	3.8	52.8
Content Management Systems (e.g. Drupal, Joomla, Xoops, etc.)	5.7	5.7	13.2	3.8	5.7	66.0
Emails (e.g. Yahoo! Mail, Gmail, Hotmail, etc.)	17.0	18.9	15.1	11.3	1.9	35.8
Chats (e.g. Yahoo! Messenger, Windows Live Messenger, Skype, etc.)	28.3	17.0	11.3	7.5	1.9	34.0
Chatbots (e.g. Verbot, Cleverbot,	7.5	15.1	1.9	9.4	3.8	62.3

Jabberwacky, etc.)						
Forums (e.g. MyBB, phpBB, Tangler, etc.)	9.4	5.7	3.8	9.4	3.8	67.9
Audio discussions (e.g. Voxopop, VoiceThread, KVR audio, etc.)	26.4	7.5	13.2	3.8	1.9	47.2
Virtual Worlds (e.g. Active Worlds, Second Life, Twinity, etc.)	13.2	9.4	13.2	9.4	1.9	52.8
Social Networking (e.g. Facebook, Google +, MySpace, etc.)	15.1	18.9	13.2	7.5	3.8	41.5
Information Networking (e.g. Twitter, Evernote, Friendfeed, etc.)	17.0	9.4	13.2	11.3	1.9	47.2
Professional Networking (e.g. Linkedin, Viadeo, XING, etc.)	7.5	11.3	11.3	5.7	1.9	62.3
Social Bookmarking (e.g. Delicious, Diigo, Google bookmarks, etc.)	7.5	3.8	1.3	9.4	3.8	64.2
Blogs (e.g. Blogger, Wordpress, Edublogs, etc.)	7.5	11.3	11.3	9.4	1.9	58.5
Wikis (e.g. PBWorks, Wikispaces, Edmodo, etc.)	3.8	9.4	9.4	9.4	1.9	66.0
Presentation (e.g. 280 Slides, Animoto, SlideRocket, etc.)	15.1	7.5	7.5	7.5	3.8	58.5
Resource Sharing (e.g. Google Docs, Youtube, MyPodcast , etc.)	9.4	13.2	7.5	7.5	5.7	56.6
Website Creation (e.g. Google sites, Movable type, KompoZer, etc.)	13.2	9.4	5.7	11.3	5.7	54.7
Web Exercise Creation (e.g. ContentGenerator, Hot Potatoes, SMILE, etc.)	5.7	5.7	11.3	7.5	5.7	64.2
Web Search Engines (e.g. Google, Yahoo!, Ask.com, etc.)	28.3	20.8	17.0	3.8	1.9	28.3
Dictionaries (e.g. Dictionary.com, OneLook.com , Forvo, etc.)	39.6	11.3	11.3	7.5	3.8	26.4
Concordancers (e.g. VLC Web Concordancer, Wordsmith, AntCon , etc.)	7.5	1.9	9.4	5.7	3.8	71.7
Utilities (e.g. Voki, Storybird, Wallwisher, etc.)	7.5	1.9	9.4	5.7	3.8	71.7
Mean	**14.05**	**10.37**	**9.90**	**7.70**	**3.36**	**54.11**
SD	**9.22**	**5.39**	**4.09**	**2.37**	**1.42**	**13.63**

SKYPE-BASED ENGLISH ACTIVITIES: A CASE FOR COMPELLING INPUT? CORRELATIONAL CHANGES BEFORE AND AFTER SKYPE EXCHANGES

by **David Ockert**
Toyo University,
5-28-20 Hakusan, Bunkyo, Tokyo 112-8606, Japan
ockert @ toyo.jp

Abstract

This paper reports the results of a small, longitudinal study involving a group of Japanese elementary school students (N = 29) involved in exploratory research using foreign language activities, including two Skype exchanges between these students and students in Australia. The purpose of the research was to test for the impact of a series of Skype exchange activities with students in Australia on Japanese elementary school students' affective variables toward EFL.

The results show that the students had statistically significant increases in foreign language activities, international posture, and motivation. This tech-based language activity arguably supplied compelling comprehensible input. The student participation in the preparations leading up to the exchanges would have encouraged them to work diligently to be able to speak so as to be understood. The results are discussed regarding future directions in this line of research.

Keywords: EFL, Skype, Japan, affect, motivation, international posture

1. Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to report the changes in the correlations amongst six affective variables of Japanese English as foreign language (JEFL) elementary school students (ESSs; N = 29) after a voice-over-internet-protocol (VOiP) Skype language exchange compared with the correlations before the exchanges. The students engaged in two Skype in-class foreign language activities (FLAs) designed to increase their affect toward EFL (Richards, 2012). The affective variables include motivation, international posture (IP; Yashima, 2002), willingness to communicate (WTC; McCroskey & Baer, 1985), and communicative confidence toward using English. Two other items on the survey instrument were FLAs and desire to travel overseas. The activities used Skype to communicate with a class of elementary school students in Australia. It is believed by the author and his colleagues that these technologies bring the real world into the classroom, and thereby influence students' affect as a result of

exposing them to native speakers of English (NSEs). Furthermore, this method authentically involves the students themselves in the learning process, increasing autonomy and intrinsic motivation (Reeve & Halusic, 2009). It is speculated that technology-based FL exchanges create real-world encounters, provide compelling input (Krashen, 2011) leading to increased motivation, confidence, and FL WTC.

The paper begins with a review of the shift in EFL education motivation research from an integrative motivational orientation for EFL learners to an IP regarding English cultures and toward EFL learning; students' WTC; their self-perceived communicative competence / self-confidence; students desire to travel to foreign countries; and technology based FLAs with NSE which provide compelling input (Krashen, 2011). The results reported in this paper build on previous research results provided elsewhere (see Ockert, in press; Ockert & Tagami, 2014) and add to the literature by including the changes corroborated by Pearson's correlation coefficients as a result of the Skype intervention.

2. Literature review

2.1. EFL motivation and international posture

Gardner and Lambert (1972) define the integrative motive as "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group" (p. 132). They have explained that the integrative concept derives from a parallel they drew with processes of social identification underpinning first language acquisition (in Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

Recently, the debate surrounding the integrative concept has grown. As a result, the concept has been re-thought, mainly prompted by the growing discussions of its applicability in applied linguistics due to the spread of English as a global language (aka 'World Englishes'). Given the recent curricular inclusion of English as a basic skill to be taught from the primary school level in Japan (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; MEXT, 2003), the questions arise whether the concept of integrative orientation can be applied in situations where there is no specific target reference group of speakers and whether the idea of an integrative motivational orientation for learning English has real meaning anymore.

For many learners, English symbolizes the world around Japan, something that connects them to foreign countries and foreigners with whom they can communicate by using English (Gudykunst & Kim, 1984). In the JEFL context, in which daily contact with native speakers of English remains infrequent if at all, learners are not likely to have a clear affective reaction to the specific L2 language group (Ushioda, 2006). However, student attitudes

toward American and other English-speaking cultures are surely created through education and exposure to foreign culture via various media.

To sum up, this identity with 'foreignness' possesses an international outlook and the attendant attitudes to different cultures and foreigners that are non-Japanese (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). Furthermore, Carreira (2006) identified five factors influencing elementary age students' affect regarding English, which included interest in foreign countries, intrinsic and extrinsic (instrumental) motivation, and anxiety. The results revealed "a rather steady developmental decline in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation" (p. 135). Carreira's study suggests that the area of motivation can shed light on how the teaching methods for elementary school students in the higher grades can be improved.

2.2. Communicative confidence

MacIntyre and his associates (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre & MacDonald, 1998; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) have identified a concept which they have labeled 'perceived communicative competence'. They emphasize that it is the learner's perception of their own communicative competence that influences their WTC (see Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003).

In her study on Japanese in an ESL learning situation, Hashimoto (2002) argued that self-perceived competence and self-confidence in an L2 are, in fact, the same construct ("perceived competence or self-confidence in an L2", p. 57). In her research involving Japanese university students studying in Hawaii, she used the same item statements as those used by MacIntyre and Charos (1996). Therefore, how the reader chooses to interpret these terms remains relative as the latent construct revealed as a result of the investigation is the same in both studies.

In the Japanese JEFL context, Yashima (2002) found a positive, causal relationship between motivation and communication confidence (comprised of communication anxiety (aka nervousness) and perceived communication competence) in the L2, which led to WTC. In addition, Yashima (2004) found that "self-confidence in communication in an L2 is crucial for a person to be willing to communicate in that L2" (p. 141). Therefore, activities that promote self-confidence are essential to L2 development. Yashima and her colleagues have more recently conducted research on the relationships among motivation, psychological needs, FL WTC, and Can-Do statements of English language learning of non-English-major junior college students in Japan (Nakahira, Yashima & Maekawa, 2010). The results show "that L2 learning motivation leads to confidence in L2 communication which is a

combination of anxiety and competence" (p. 46). Therefore, as stated above, (self-perceived) competence plus (low) anxiety equals confidence.

2.3. Willingness to communicate

McCroskey and Baer (1985) were the first to research and report on a construct that they have identified and named 'willingness to communicate' (WTC). WTC captures the major implications that affective variables such as anomie, communication apprehension, introversion, reticence, self-esteem and shyness have in regards to their influence on communicative behavior (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991).

In his research, MacIntyre (1994) speculated that L2 WTC is based on a combination of perceived communicative competence and a low level of communication anxiety. Other studies have shown that WTC was a predictor of frequency of communication in the L2. Motivation was a predictor of WTC and frequency of communication (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

Yashima and her associates have conducted research on affect in the JEFL context on WTC (Yashima, 2002); the influence of attitudes and affect on WTC and L2 communication (Yashima et al., 2004); and the interplay of classroom anxiety and intrinsic motivation (Yashima et al., 2009). Yashima et al. (2004) have called for "Studies...to be carried out with programs that offer students increased opportunities in L2 communication" (p. 126). The research project results reported in this paper are an example of the type of intervention that offers an authentic opportunity to communicate in these students' L2.

In her 2002 study, Yashima found a positive, causal relationship between a latent variable, motivation (which was comprised of two indicator variables, desire and intensity), and the latent variable communication confidence (comprised of two indicator variables - communication anxiety, aka nervousness, and perceived communication competence) in the L2, which led to WTC. In addition, Yashima (2004) found that "self-confidence in communication in an L2 is crucial for a person to be willing to communicate in that L2" (p. 141). The role of confidence as a predictor variable for WTC has also been found by Hashimoto (2002) as well as by Yashima et al. (2004).

2.4. CMC and the desire to travel overseas

Research on L2 language learners' desire to travel abroad was first reported by Clément and his associates (see Clément & Krudenier, 1983; Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000). In their research, they have reported on the desire to

travel overseas and the desire to make friends with members of an L2 target community as motives to study EFL. For example, Clément and Kruidenier (1983) investigated the reasons for learning second and foreign languages by various groups of learners based on the degree of multiculturalism of their environments. Based on Clément and Kruidenier's work, Dörnyei (1990) contended that L2 learning in a classroom situation could not actually involve attitudes toward an L2 community, as the learners have little or no contact with members of an L2 community. In addition, students' desire to spend time abroad has been shown to be related to instrumental motives (e.g. future employment) and socio-cultural motives (such as a desire to make friends – Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994).

In CMC studies, Kramsch and Andersen (1999) have commented that computers and the Internet seem to realize the dream of every language teacher – to bring the language and culture as close and as authentically as possible to students in the classroom. Guarda (2012) has written that "what distinguishes telecollaboration from other NBLT activities is the specificity of its purposes: although language development remains at the core, telecollaboration is oriented towards intercultural learning, with the specific goal of helping participants develop and manifest intercultural communicative competence" (p. 20). She reports that "scholars and practitioners have highlighted how CMC can foster authenticity by bringing learners into contact with an authentic audience and by empowering them to interact on topics that are relevant to their own lives (e.g. Kramsch et al., 2000; Hanna & De Nooy, 2003)" (in Guarda, 2012, p. 21).

2.5. Technology-based FLAs

Motivation research demonstrates that young people – and especially children - are inherently motivated to be active in almost any situation and enjoy hands-on activities (see Amibile, 1989). In addition, "research results demonstrate that students are more interested in living the language than merely using it in a classroom setting" (Ockert, 2006, p. 336) such as traditional, teacher-fronted lessons in which the language is merely translated, listened to or repeated. These results are in line with Willis, who describes task-based activities as "activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome" (Willis, 1996, p. 23). Recognizing the significance of tasks in shaping learners' interest and enthusiasm coincides with teachers' perceptions: the quality of the activities used and the way they are presented makes a difference in students' attitudes toward learning. As Noels et al. (1999) have noted, "[w]ith its potential to be developed and maintained by the social environment, motivation is one element that educators can develop

to improve their students' L2 outcomes" (p. 31). The social environment of the foreign language classroom can be developed to enhance motivation and, therefore, improve self-confidence (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994), which should lead to an increase in WTC.

Research conducted in EFL environments has shown that a combination of a learner's personality (trait motivation) and situation-specific factors (state motivation) contribute to FL motivation (Julkenen, 2001). These, in turn, influence the learner's perception of a specific task. In other words, task motivation depends on the general motivation of the learner combined with how they perceive the task. Julkunen (2001) has written that four factors influence task motivation: interest, relevance, expectancy, and outcome. Furthermore, Robinson and Gilabert (2007) have reported on the cognitive underpinnings of task-based learning. Their survey of the research shows that the psychology of the learner and the perceived complexity of the task influence the cognitive demands placed on the learner.

In the Japanese EFL context, Takiguchi (2002) conducted a research project which tested for changes in affective variables of Japanese elementary students. The results show that real-time, in-class communication with students in foreign countries using VoIP software (Skype or Gizmo) improved student interest, concern, and desire (motivation) to study English. Tagami (2011) used Skype for real-time communication exchanges with elementary students in Australia. His research results led him to believe that the exchanges helped his students realize that English is a necessary means to communicate with members of a different culture. In addition, the activities were designed to allow the students a structured, yet autonomous, experience (Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010), which helped improve their WTC and motivation (Tagami, 2011).

2.6. Compelling input

Krashen (2011) has stated that "[i]t is by now well-established that input must be comprehensible to have an effect on language acquisition and literacy development. To make sure that language acquirers pay attention to the input, it should be interesting" (p. 1). However, he also argues that interest alone is not sufficient for optimal language acquisition. Perhaps this is because the input "needs to be not just interesting but compelling. Compelling means that the input is so interesting you forget that it is in another language" (p. 1). This would require that the learner be in what Csikszentmihalyi (1990) has called a state of *flow*. In *flow*, the concerns of everyday life and even the sense of self disappear - our sense of time is altered and nothing but the activity itself seems to matter. Can the same be said for being "lost in the moment" for verbal communication?

Compelling input appears to eliminate the need for motivation, a conscious desire to improve. When you get compelling input, you acquire language whether you are interested in improving or not. The evidence for the Compelling Input Hypothesis includes improvement as an unexpected result, the many cases of those who had no conscious intention of improving in another language or increasing their literacy, but simply got very interested in reading. In fact, they were sometimes surprised that they had improved (Krashen, 2011).

It may be argued that this technology-based communication exchange provided compelling comprehensible input (Krashen, 2011), since the participants are, in a way, "watching compelling movies and having conversations with truly fascinating people" (p. 1). Research results (Tagami, 2011; Takiguchi, 2002) have shown statistically significant increases in affect amongst experimental group members who engaged in Skype exchange FLAs. Furthermore, Tagami (2010) and Takiguchi (2002) have conducted research on ESSs affect toward EFL. Their results show that they, too, have a strong desire to travel overseas. Furthermore, after these students were exposed to EFL via a video exchange (Tagami, 2011b), the students expressed a strong desire to go abroad in order to make friends as a result of the intervention.

However, none of the previously mentioned studies has examined changes in the correlation matrix amongst affective variables. Therefore, by comparing the affective variable correlation matrices before and after the Skype exchanges, we can examine circumstances where the correlations were either strengthened or weakened. As a result of any positive changes, it may be argued that the Skype exchanges may be a source 'compelling input' for the students.

3. The study

The affective variables examined in this study are: desire to engage in foreign language activities, IP, motivation, communicative confidence, WTC, and desire to visit foreign countries. The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To determine the level of the six affective variables (*M* and *SD*) among Japanese elementary EFL students and the correlations between the variables.
2. To examine the changes among the six variables (*M* and *SD*) and the changes among the correlations after the Skype exchange activities.

3.1. Research questions and hypotheses

The study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the level of the six affective variables among Japanese elementary students toward EFL?
2. What are the changes, if any, on the level of the six affective variables (*M* and *SD*) among these Japanese elementary students toward EFL?
3. What are the changes, if any, among the correlations among the six affective variables of these Japanese elementary students toward EFL after the Skype exchanges?
4. What can be hypothesized regarding any changes on the *M* and *SD*, and the correlations after the Skype exchanges?

The two hypotheses tested specifically in the current study were as follows:

1. The students will show a desire to learn English (motivation) and interest in foreign language activities. The mean scores can answer this hypothesis.
2. There will be strong correlations between WTC, IP, FLAs, and motivation.

3.2. Participants

Twenty-nine 5th grade elementary school students participated in the study (*N* = 29). The students were all either ten or eleven years of age. They were all native Japanese in the same school in Nagano prefecture, Japan.

3.3. Instrumentation and procedure

The research project used a self-report measure administered in Japanese. The instrument used a six-point Likert-type scale from 1 (*Completely Disagree*) to 6 (*Completely Agree*). There were six questions, one each on foreign language activities; foreign countries / different cultures; desire to communicate in English; confidence to communicate in English; desire to communicate with foreigners in English; and, traveling abroad (see Appendix). The Cronbach's *alpha* reliability estimate is .88.

The survey was administered in class to the students before the Skype exchanges in April and again in December after the Skype exchanges. During the intervening months, the students participated in three technology-based FLAs with students living abroad. The first took place on July 21. At this time the students were able to introduce themselves. The second and third MCMC exchanges took place for approximately thirty minutes each on November 1st and 2nd respectively. The November 1st, 2010 exchange was for approximately 30 minutes. Activities included the "Hokey-Pokey", "Duck, Duck, Goose" and "Indian and Tipi". The students used photos and video to explain that Cricket became the basis of baseball. Also, the

Australian students explained Australian football, food such as meat pies, and the different character names from the Pokemon series. The November 2 exchange also lasted for about 30 minutes. After an initially greeting of the students, there was a greeting by the entire class. Then the students sang songs together. A final thirty-minute exchange took place on December 2nd for about 30 minutes. From the Australian side this time, there was a presentation of a Japanese greeting song to the tune of "Are you sleeping?" This time, there was also a simple Yes / No Q&A session. Example questions such as *Do you like school*? were answered immediately, *Yes, I do*. *Do you have pets*? And answered, *No, I do not*. Also, *Do you have pets*? received the answer *Yes, I have a dog*.

The survey was in paper form and in Japanese. The data was put to a correlation analysis using the SPSS (v20) statistical software. The significance level was set to .05 for all of the items. Significance levels of $p < .05$ and $p < .01$ are indicated in the tables.

3.4. Results and discussion

The descriptive statistics of the students before and after the Skype exchange are shown in Table 1. There are several large and statistically significant differences. In particular, the increases for FLAs and motivation are statistically significant at ($p < .01$) and very close to a full point increase. For IP, the results show an increase greater than a full point (1.17; $p < .01$). This indicates that the impact of the Skype exchange may strengthen IP in Japanese elementary age students.

Table 1. The Pre-Intervention Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix ($N = 29$).

	M	*SD*	FLAs	IP	Mot.	Com. Conf.	WTC
FL Activities	3.14	1.70					
International Posture	3.31	1.84	0.395*				
Motivation	3.17	1.70	0.767*	0.753*			
Comm. Confidence	3.45	1.40	0.524*	0.213	0.357*		
WTC	3.34	1.86	0.695*	0.643*	0.829*	0.389*	
Desire to Travel Overseas	4.45	1.77	0.449*	0.496*	0.659*	0.238	0.653*

Note. *$p < .01$

The correlation analysis results for the pre-intervention data are presented in Table 1. As can be seen, there are a number of rather high correlations between several of the

variables. First, the correlation between the FLAs and motivation is .77, indicating a strong relationship. This means that any FLA should have a positive influence on motivation and vice versa. The same can be said for the relationship between motivation and IP, since the correlation between them is .75. Furthermore, the highest correlation between motivation and WTC (0.83) is much higher than that reported in several of the previous research studies reviewed for this paper (e.g. Yashima et al., 2004).

The correlations for the post-intervention data are presented in Table 2. The correlations between FLAs and IP, communicative confidence, and desire to travel overseas increased. Also, an unexpected result is the increase in the correlations between communicative confidence and all five of the other affective variables. This is interesting since communicative confidence showed a slight decrease after the Skype exchange.

Table 2. The Post-Intervention Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (*N* = 29).

	M	*SD*	FLAs	IP	Mot.	Com. Conf.	WTC
FL Activities	4.10	1.16					
International Posture	4.48	1.10	0.448*				
Motivation	4.10	1.16	0.742*	0.340*			
Comm. Confidence	3.41	1.38	0.537*	0.368*	0.450*		
WTC	3.90	1.24	0.633*	0.566*	0.609*	0.469*	
Desire to Travel Overseas	5.07	1.14	0.491*	0.466*	0.596*	0.289	0.564*

Note. *$p < .01$

There are several positive and statistically significant differences between the *M* scores before and after the interventions. For example, the FLA increase by .96 points ($p < .01$); IP increased by 1.17 ($p < .01$); Motivation had an increase of .93 ($p < .01$); and Desire to Travel Overseas by .62 ($p < .05$); WTC had an increase of .56, although this did not reach the threshold of statistical significance. An interesting result was the slight decrease of 0.04 for Communicative Confidence.

4. Conclusions

These results support previous research which showed strong correlations between affective variables (Ockert & Tagami, 2014; Tagami, 2011). These results are of interest to not only elementary school teachers but teachers of second languages in general. In essence, the use of

classroom time to prepare for and participate in a Skype exchange with students of the target language who are living abroad will in itself motivate students to practice the target language so as to be understood. Second, and perhaps most importantly, the desire to comprehend what is being said during the exchange is almost certainly a source of compelling input (Krashen, 2011). In other words, the anticipation leading up to the event and the actual participation in the exchange may provide compelling input (Krashen, 2011).

Therefore, the statistically significant increases in affect are likely due to the anticipation of communicating with significant others (the students living abroad) and the uniqueness of the experience, which combined could provide compelling comprehensible input (Krashen, 2011). The uses of recent technological advances such as the Internet provide an interesting alternative to traditional educational approaches. The use of technology-based FLAs would help maintain student interest and educators are encouraged to include them in their curricula. As MEXT (2003) desires, "[t]o develop students' basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, deepening their understanding of language and culture and fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages" (p. 1).

The research results presented herein may help educators better understand the impact of tech-based language exchange activities on students' affect and attitudes toward English language learning. It is by no means any attempt to replace classroom teachers with any sort of technology-based program. On the contrary, the Skype exchanges occurred during class time with the presence of their teacher, not in lieu of class time with a teacher. Future studies which explore, specifically, the amount of compelling comprehensible input (Krashen, 2011) received via the exchange(s) would add considerably to this line of research. An area of research could be the desire of the students to communicate in English. This desire may be comprised of both anticipation of the event / material and interest in the activity itself, be it verbal or written input, such as in a letter exchange (Tagami, 2010). A future paper will examine the student interest in the Skype exchanges by analyzing qualitatively the student responses regarding their attitudes toward and feelings about the Skype exchanges.

Acknowledgment

The author would like to thank the students and teachers who helped with this research project; Tatsuto Tagami for his assistance with the data and analysis; and the editor and reviewers for their assistance in bringing this paper to press. Any errors are the author's.

References

Amibile, T. (1989). *Growing up Creative*. New York: Crown.

Carreira, J. M. (2006). Motivation for learning English as a foreign language in Japanese elementary schools. *JALT Journal, 28*(2), 135-57.

Csikszentmihalyi , M. (1990). *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience*. New York: Harper Perennial.

Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effects of context, norms, and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *22*(2), 190-209.

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning*, *44*(3), 417-48.

Clément, R., & Kruidenier, B. G. (1985). Aptitude, attitude and motivation in second language proficiency: A test of Clément's model. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology 4*, 21-38.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign language learning. *Language Learning 40*, 46-78.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 Self: A theoretical overview. In Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 350-366). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

Guarda, M. (2012). Computer-mediated-communication and foreign language education. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society, 8*(3), 15-27.

Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y. (1984). *Communicating with Strangers: An Approach to Intercultural Communication*. New York: Random House.

Hanna, B. E., & de Nooy, J. (2003). A funny thing happened on the way to the forum: electronic discussion and foreign language learning. *Language Learning & Technology*, *7*(1), 71-85.

Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies*, *20*(2), 29-70.

Jang, H., Reeve, J., & Deci, E. L. (2010). Engaging students in learning activities: It is not autonomy support or structure, but autonomy support and structure. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*, 588-600.

Julkunen, K. (2001). Situation- and task-specific motivation in foreign language learning. In Z. Dörnyei and R. Schmidt (eds.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 29-41). University of Hawaii Press.

Kramsch C., & Andersen, R. W. (1999). Teaching text and context through multimedia. *Language Learning & Technology, 2*(2), 31-42.

Kramsch C., A'Ness, F., & Lam, W. S. E. (2000). Authenticity and authorship in the computer-mediated acquisition of L2 literacy. *Language Learning & Technology, 4*(2), 78-104.

Krashen, S. (2011). The compelling (not just interesting) input hypothesis. *The English Connection*, *15*(3), 1.

MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, *11*, 135-42.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*, 3-26.

MacIntyre, P. D., & MacDonald, J. R. (1998). Public speaking anxiety: Perceived competence and audience congeniality. *Communication Education, 47*, 359-65.

McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Speech Communication Association, Denver, CO.

McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1991). Willingness to communicate: A cognitive view. In M. Both-Butterfield (ed.), *Communication, Cognition and Anxiety* (pp. 19-44). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

MEXT. (2003). The course of study for lower secondary school. Retrieved on 23 February 2011 from http://www.mext.go.jp/english/shotou/030301.htm.

Nakahira, S., Yashima, T., & Maekawa, Y. (2010). Relationships among motivation, psychological needs, FL WTC, and Can-Do statements of English language learning based on self-determination theory: preliminary study of non-English-major junior college students in Japan. *JACET Kansai Journal, 12*, 44-55.

Noels, K. A., Clément, R., & Pelletier, L. G. (1999). Perceptions of teachers' communicative style and students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. *Modern Language Journal, 83*, 23-34.

Noels, K. A., Pelletier, L. G., Clément, R., & Vallerand, R. J. (2000). Why are you learning a second language? Motivational orientations and self-determination theory. *Language Learning, 53*, 53-64.

Ockert, D. (2006). Survey results: Learning about language learners' learning styles. In K. Bradford-Watts, C. Ikeguchi, & M. Swanson (Eds.), *On JALT2005: Sharing Our Stories* (pp. 330-339). Tokyo: JALT.

Ockert, D. (in press). The influence of technology-based foreign language activities on Japanese elementary school student affect. *The International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning & Technology.*

Ockert, D., & Tagami, T. (2014). Preliminary results of Japanese elementary school students affect toward English language learning. *ICT & Innovations in Education International Electronic Journal, 2*(2), 38-55.

Reeve, J., & Halusic, M. (2009). How K-12 teachers can put self-determination theory principles into practice. *Theory and Research in Education, 7*, 145-154.

Richards, J. C. (2012). Some affective factors in language teaching. *The Language Teacher, 36*(6), 49-50.

Robinson, P., & Gilabert, R. (2007). Task complexity, the cognition hypothesis and second language learning and performance. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 45*(3), 161-176.

Tagami, T. (2010). Exchange Activities between Matsumoto and Salt Lake City [matsumoto saruto raiku no shimai toshi keitai o ikashita koryu katsudo]. Paper presented at the 10th Annual JALT Pan-SIG Conference, Matsumoto, Japan.

Tagami, T. (2011). Impact of International Exchange Activities on the Students' Affective Variables: Willingness to Communicate「kokusai koryu katsudo ni yoru jidou no yoi no henai o takameru shogakko gaikokugo katsudo~」. Paper presented at the Elementary School English Education Society, Osaka, Japan.

Takiguchi, H. (2002). Real-time communication class with foreign countries using a video conferencing telephone system. *STEP Bulletin, 14*, 142-155.

Ushioda, E. (2006). Language motivation in a reconfigured Europe: access, identity, autonomy. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 27*(2), 148-161.

Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-based Learning.* Harlow, U.K.: Longman Addison-Wesley.

Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *Modern Language Journal*, *86*, 55-66.

Yashima, T., Noels, K., Shizuka, T., Takeuchi, O., Yamane, S. & Yoshizawa, K. (2009). The interplay of classroom anxiety, intrinsic motivation, and gender in the Japanese EFL context. *Journal of Foreign Language Education and Research*, *17*, 41-64.

Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning*, *54*, 119-152.

Appendix

English translation of the questionnaire items using a six-point Likert-type scale from1 (*Completely Disagree*) to 6 (*Completely Agree*).

1. I like foreign language (English) activities.
2. I want to know more about foreign countries (different cultures).
3. To communicate in English, I want to study more.
4. I have confidence to communicate using simple English.
5. For myself, I want to communicate with foreigners in English.
6. I want to go overseas at some time.

ONLINE LOCALIZATION OF ZOONIVERSE CITIZEN SCIENCE PROJECTS – ON THE USE OF TRANSLATION PLATFORMS AS TOOLS FOR TRANSLATOR EDUCATION

by **Krzysztof Michalak**

Center for Theoretical Physics PAS

Al. Lotników 32/46, 02-668 Warsaw, Poland

krzysztof.michalak16 @ gmail.com

Abstract

This paper aims at describing the way in which online translation platforms can facilitate the process of training translators. *Zooniverse*, a website hosting a variety of citizen science projects in which everyone can take part, was used as an example of such a concept. The first section of this paper is focused on the history, idea and general description of the website. In section two the online translation platform, which is connected with *Zooniverse*, has been presented in detail with emphasis put on advantages and weak points. Ideas for practical application of *Zooniverse*'s localization platform have been outlined in section three.

Results have shown that localization platforms hold a great potential in terms of providing training for trainee translators. This is mostly because they offer basic experience in terms of simple computer assisted translation technologies and access to translations into other languages that have been already submitted. They are also characterized by simplicity and accessibility, as the platform can be used from any place all over the world. *Zooniverse* can, therefore, be the basis for further research on how the potential of such websites can be harnessed for more effective translator training.

1. Introduction

In the 21st century the Internet is the most popular of all media and the variety of its applications is simply incredible. It is, therefore, not surprising that the Internet is an extremely useful tool for scientific research and education. This can be illustrated perfectly by the example of the *Zooniverse* website. It is the mother of a great array of scientific projects focusing on biology, genetics, ecology, history and most of all astronomy and astrophysics. In this article I am going to present the idea behind the citizen science and the *Zooniverse* family of projects, as well as the whole website from the technical perspective. Also, I will describe the way the *Zooniverse* translation platform, which works with every *Zooniverse* project, can be applied for the purpose of training future translators.

1.1. *Zooniverse* in general

Zooniverse was created in July 2007 together with the onset of the first *Zooniverse* crowdsourcing project called Galaxy Zoo. Since its launching, many more projects have been created, with the majority of them enjoying unceasing and incredible success and popularity. The *Zooniverse* family of websites has been developed and maintained by the Citizen Science Alliance (CSA), which is run by seven different organizations and institutions from the UK and the USA, with the Center for Theoretical Physics PAS and New Science Foundation being CSA partners in Poland.

The *Zooniverse* citizen science projects are devoted to various areas of science. The website is composed of many webpages, each acting as a separate science project in which everyone can participate. All science teams involved require hundreds of thousands of images classified and categorized in order to make them useful. Those images come from different surveys and research carried out by the aforementioned science teams. The amount of visual data collected in every case is so large that the task of analyzing it tends to be impossible for those teams alone. Unfortunately, computers are not capable of classifying those images on their own either and due to this the human intervention tends to be unavoidable and much more accurate. This is where volunteers – groups of people who populate the Internet in abundance – come in!

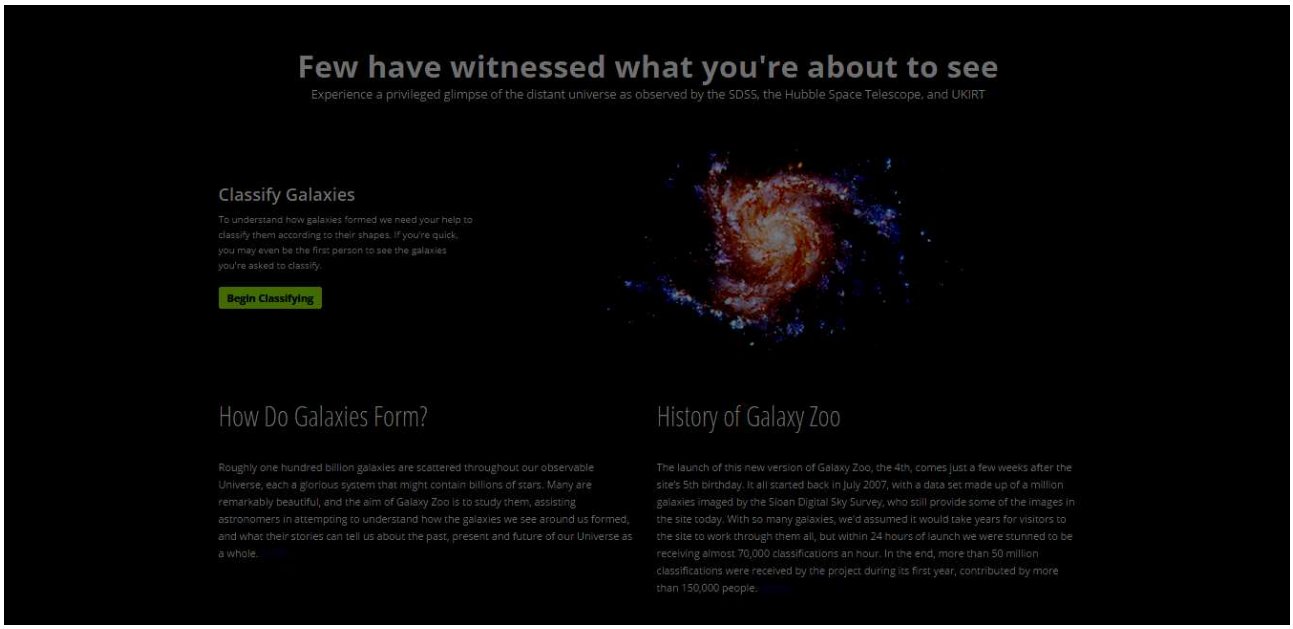


Figure 1. Galaxy Zoo homepage (source: www.galaxyzoo.org).

1.2. The idea behind citizen science

Citizen science is a new term which describes the concept of engaging the public in real scientific research and giving the researchers a hand in analyzing their enormous datasets so they can devote their precious time to more pressing matters. In order to become a citizen scientist one does not have to be a professional in any field. In fact, it is mainly addressed to people who have little to do with professional science on a daily basis.

The citizen science comes in a wide variety of forms. The most popular ones focus on providing support in data collection and in the analysis of the data already collected. *Zooniverse* takes advantage of the latter and gathers as many volunteers as possible with the aim of using their potential to enhance scientific works. It is a website with a global impact, so virtually anyone can sign in and help the scientists. By going through a short tutorial and then classifying just a couple of images, one can help make a real difference.

Furthermore, in order to increase the number of people involved in classifying and submitting the results a special translation platform was created for all projects. As a result, volunteering translators from all over the world can choose a project matching their interests or areas of expertise and translate it; consequently by doing so they expand the number of those taking part in advancing scientific research.

1.3. Operation and results

The way all the *Zooniverse* projects work is very simple. Signing up is not mandatory, but when an account is created by a potential user, it lets them see the classifications to be submitted, discuss the images with other volunteers and members of the science teams, share the results and take advantage of some other additional features. The first thing one visiting any *Zooniverse* website should do is to go through the brief tutorial and see the “about” section of the page in order to understand what the aims of the specific project are. Tutorials are created in a very user-friendly manner so there is no doubt what is expected from those who intend to join in the cooperation. The fact that the majority of the websites are translated into other languages makes them even more accessible. After completing the tutorial, a user is ready to classify the visual data available on the website and submit the results directly to the science team.

As every project requires volunteers to perform different tasks, the *Zooniverse* projects pose a wide range of opportunities for cooperation. Project types include annotation, decision tree, pattern matching, ranking, filtering and transcription.

Annotation requires volunteers to use a special tool to draw shapes on the image in order to mark specific features visible on the picture. In a decision tree project participants are asked a series of questions and are supposed to choose the answer which best reflects what the image shows. Pattern matching is based on categorizing the sounds or features of images according to specific examples, while in the ranking project one has to decide which image fulfills some requirements to a greater extent. Filtering projects are based on a gradual description of the visual data by analyzing the images and answering questions. Finally, transcription involves the process of deciphering the characters from an image in order to present them, as a result, in a typed form.

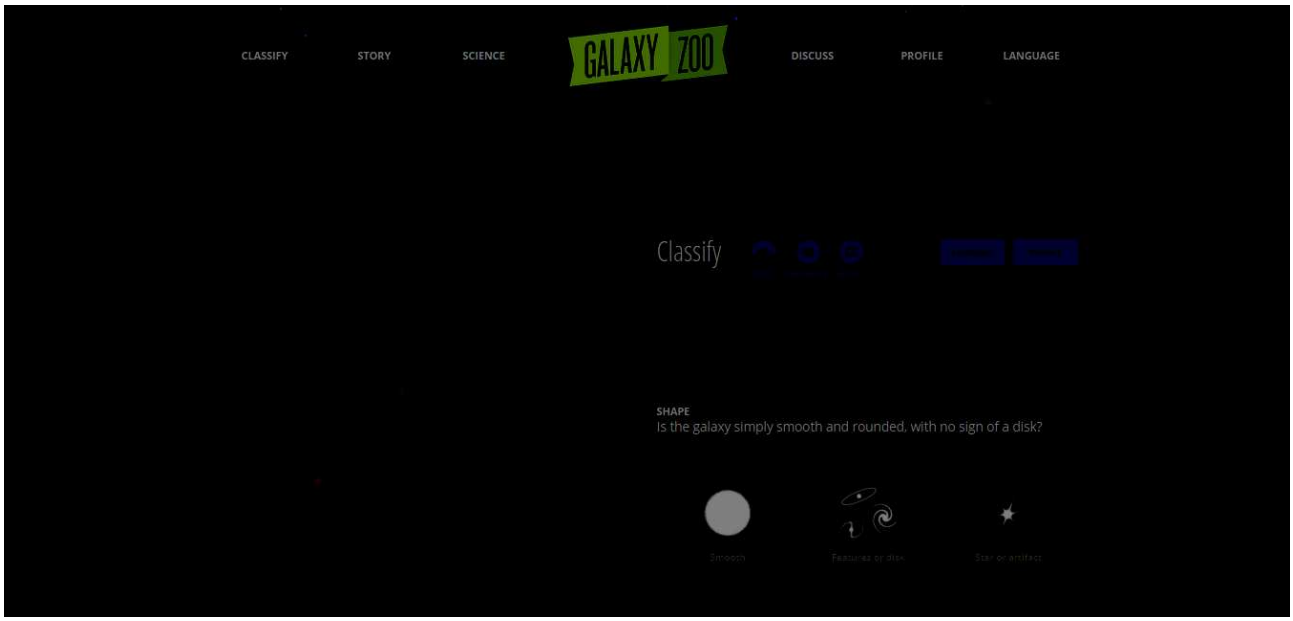


Figure 2. Galaxy Zoo classification applet (source: http://www.galaxyzoo.org).

All the data gathered from the projects are first stored and then analyzed by the researchers. It is quite plausible that the very data volunteers are helping to collect now will help scientists teach computers how to do the same job in the future, thanks to extensive sample data which can be used to feed computers for further analysis. Some of the data, like in the case of the *Zooniverse Galaxy Zoo* project, are published and can be accessed virtually by practically anyone all over the world. Moreover, as there are many volunteers classifying the images and each image is analyzed several times by different participants, very interesting discoveries tend to be made as a result of such a multi-angle approach. For example, thanks to the countless classifications collected by the Galaxy Zoo, scientists were able to discover such objects as “green peas”, being intensely star-forming galaxies or “Hanny's Voorwerp”, which is a very rare astronomical object.

1.4. Polish versions

A great majority of *Zooniverse* citizen science projects have been translated into many languages, including Polish. This paper was prepared on the basis of the translation work carried out for the sake of creating Polish versions of available projects in order to make them more accessible to non-English speaking Polish audience.

Volunteers from Poland managed to make a modest but still valuable contribution to the operation of Zooniverse projects like for instance Galaxy Zoo, Radio Galaxy Zoo, Disk Detective and Milky Way Project. At the turn of the year 2014 Polish version of Galaxy Zoo took the 6th place, Radio Galaxy Zoo and Disk Detective were 5th and Milky Way Project was 7th among all other language versions according to the number of sessions. Some of the Polish versions have been around only for a few months, so they are still gaining their popularity. The data presented show that translation of *Zooniverse* projects was not in vain and helped make a difference.

2. Description of the translation platform

Having outlined what *Zooniverse* is and what it aims at, I will describe the translation platform itself together with all its features. First I will go through the technicalities of the site, briefly describing how the platform works and what it offers. Then I will delve deeper into what advantages and disadvantages of this translation platform for its potential users.

2.1. Technical aspects

As I have previously mentioned, every *Zooniverse* citizen science project is connected to a special translation platform which supports all projects collectively. In order to use it one has to create an account by registering via any of the available projects and then be granted access to the platform by one of the *Zooniverse* crew members. After choosing a specific project and being assigned to it, one can begin the process of translation into a language that is at the time unavailable for a given project. The whole process ensures that only selected, authorized users have access to the translated material; this policy prevents any translation from being submitted, deleted or even modified accidentally.

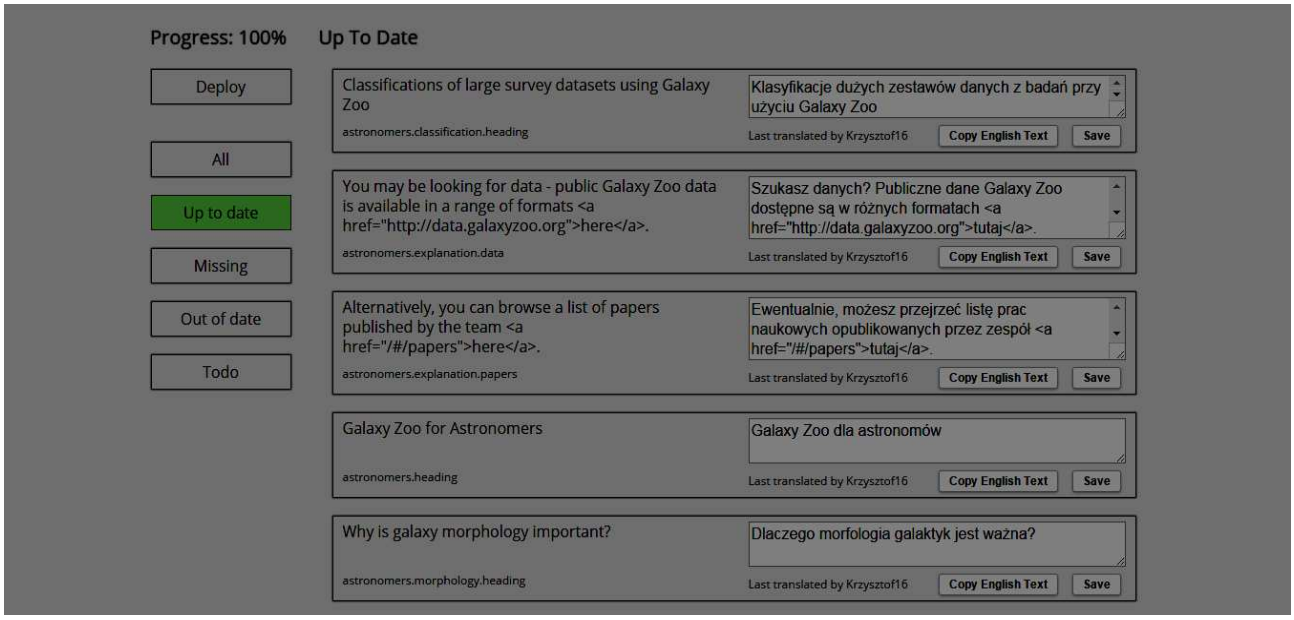


Figure 3. An excerpt from the *Zooniverse* translation platform (source: http://translations.zooniverse.org).

The platform offers a few options for the user. The text of a website is divided into many windows, each of which represents single words, chunks of words, sentences or sometimes multiple paragraphs. Next to every window containing the text in the source language (SL) there is a blank window where the text in the target language (TL) should be typed. When the text from a window is translated, it can be saved by simply clicking a button. Of course the already translated and submitted material is still available for any further modification or proofreading. When the text from every window is translated and checked, the translator can contact one of the members of the *Zooniverse* team in order to publish the translated version of the site for public use.

Further on, this paper aims at describing the way the translation platforms, as the one described above, can be used to train translators. Therefore, I will now try to explain what are the advantages and disadvantages of such translation platforms based on the example of the one created by *Zooniverse*.

2.2. Advantages

The first advantage I would like to mention is the clarity of the platform. The fact that each paragraph and sometimes single words or sentences are presented in a separate window is a feature that translators may welcome as a very convenient option. As a result, a limited chunk of the source text is clearly presented for the translation process. What is more, after the translation the text in the SL and in the TL are right next to each other and are clearly available for any possible editing processes. This accounts for the ease of translation and

prevents chaos. This is also a perfect introduction to the concept of treating a text as an entity divided into segments for the translation purpose, which is a well-known concept of the CAT technology. Moreover, the already translated text is saved in different tabs, including “Up to date”, “Out of date”, “Missing”, “'To do”' or “All”. As a result, the translator can easily navigate between the translated and non-translated material.

Secondly, the platform is equipped with a very useful function that can be of great advantage for both aspiring and professional translators. Namely, it allows generating a trial test version of the website with the translated content that is available only to the translator. This makes proofreading much easier and more comfortable, as one can see the site exactly the way it would look like with the currently translated text. Thanks to that, a translator can see whether he or she has committed any mistakes in terms of paragraph division, spelling and transfer or detect any errors in the HTML code. After spotting a mistake, one simply needs to find the respective window on the platform, type the corrected text or code, save the window and redeploy the whole site.

Another advantage is the fact that any translator of a particular language pair that has access to a given project can browse through other language versions of the same project. As most of the *Zooniverse* projects are translated into several languages, this is an incredibly useful feature, especially for translators who know more than one foreign language. Whenever one encounters a translation problem caused by insufficient context, unclear, ambiguous and possibly completely unknown vocabulary or significant mistakes in the source text, it is possible for the translator to make use of the translations submitted by translators of other languages. These translations show how other translators solved the problem or translated a particular item into their first language. Sometimes the translation submitted by one translator can be a combination of translations or strategies that were adopted by more than one translator; therefore, it is a very useful functionality, as it can offer the translator various translation solutions.

There is also one advantage that is of lesser significance for the translator than those listed above; however, it is still worth mentioning. Because the content of the website is presented to the translator as a lengthy list of windows with corresponding pieces of text, the platform has a counter that shows the percentage of windows already completed. Although this feature is a bit imperfect, as it does not take into account the length of the segments but their number only, it enables the translator to gain an overall impression of how much work there is left and potentially how the translation process can be made more efficient.

2.3. Disadvantages

The *Zooniverse* translation platform also has some disadvantages, which are present due to the fact that it is actually a simple tool, not professional translation online software. The flaws that can be encountered while performing translation tasks on the platform are not too frequent. However, whenever the translator faces them, he or she is bound to spend more time than necessary in order to solve the problem. I believe some of the issues can be easily fixed or patched, but it is possible that in order to fix some of the other problems, serious restructuring of the whole translation platform is required. I am going to go through only some of the problems, those that are most common.

One of the problems a translator working on such a translation platform is surely going to encounter is the presence of incredibly lengthy pieces of text represented by a single window. In such a case one has to copy the whole text into some other text processing program, as this long text is very inconveniently presented. What is more, the text is often interwoven with the HTML code, which makes the situation even more complicated (the issue of the HTML code will be addressed in the next paragraph). This problem can be eliminated by the technical staff of the website whose task is to properly divide the content into windows representing specific pieces of text on the platform. Presenting the SL material in such a form is highly undesirable for the translator and significantly extends the time it takes to complete the translation process making it a significantly more challenging task. Consequently, this increases the number of translation errors, committed in particular by inexperienced translators.

Another significant drawback of this translation platform is the aforementioned problem of the HTML code being interwoven with the text itself. Therefore, a translator taking up the translation has to be familiar at least with the most basic HTML tags. As sometimes lines of code are an integral part of the text, they have to be copied exactly in the same form from the SL text into the TL text. Any misspelling of the tags may result in errors in the display of a particular fragment of text on the website, which may result in it becoming completely incomprehensible. Therefore, it is not only problematic, but also highly time-consuming. What makes things even worse is the fact that there is no way to input these tags by other means than typing, or copying and pasting. The platform, unfortunately, lacks a panel with basic HTML tags, so whenever they appear in the text, they need to be typed, or copied and pasted by the translator from the source text. Sometimes one can get lost in the abundance of tags and symbols which can lead to unpredictable outcomes.

There are also a few other problems which, however, are far from being a great

inconvenience. One of them is the lack of the option of any basic text statistics, like a word count for example. Of course, it is regarded as a disadvantage only from the translator's point of view, since the purpose of this paper is to evaluate to what extent this platform may facilitate and simplify the translation process. As this form of translation could be used as a code of good practice, even for academic purposes, the possibility to quickly count words of the translated text is highly desirable, although this feature shall only be valued from the translation process perspective. However, the fact that the information about the progress in translation (the percentage of text translated described in section 2.2) is very general might turn out to be slightly misleading for the translator. It is because the counter does not take the window size into account. Lastly, one can sometimes encounter a bug while generating a test version of the site. This bug prevents some paragraphs from being exported and as a result they still appear in English, not in the TL, even though they have been properly translated and saved. In such a case, the only option the translator is left with to solve such problems is to contact the technical support team.

3. Practical applications

The very purpose of this paper is to show that translation platforms, such as the *Zooniverse* platform described above, hold educational potential as a practical activity for in-training and aspiring translators. The fact that translations done via such platforms are online and can be performed from any location makes it very easy to use for education. I will now outline how translation platforms could be utilized by teachers and lecturers for providing translation practice to their students and what are the aspects of such platforms that emphasize its educational potential.

Translations done via the platform could easily become an assignment for students to complete either individually, in pairs or in larger project-based groups. The platform facilitates collective translation by showing which particular translator is responsible for translating specific parts of the website. Therefore, after the assigned translation is completed and submitted for review and grading, the person responsible for evaluation can see which segments have been translated by particular students and grade them accordingly.

The teacher can access the translation platform and review the segments together with their corresponding windows. Each segment is signed with the username of each particular translator who has submitted the latest version of the translation, which aids the process of grading performed by the reviewer. Moreover, the teacher responsible for assessing the translation can use the export function in order to view the test version of the site and see how

the proper text is composed.

A great training potential also lies in the features and possibilities the platform has to offer, as described above. The ability to confront one's translation with those submitted in different foreign languages can point at a variety of other strategies and solutions that can be applied in the translation process. It is also a significant advantage when it comes to providing more contexts for the purpose of decoding the specific information hidden in the text. Also, as mentioned before, such assignments introduce aspiring translators to the concept of dividing texts into segments for translation purposes, which is very similar to the concept offered by any CAT tool.

4. Summary

The advantages and various aspects of translation platforms, such as the one of *Zooniverse*, prove their educational potential in providing hands-on translation training for beginner translators. They are confronted with a wide range of possibilities in terms of comparative analysis of translations submitted by them and fellow volunteers. The platform is characterized by its high transparency and relative ease of operation. Although it is not free of flaws and disadvantages, I believe it is possible to improve and reprogram it to suit the translators' needs in order to raise the quality of translations. Lastly, it is worth taking into account that the translation platform has not been created for any educational purposes in particular. If the platform had been created from scratch to meet such objectives, it would, undoubtedly, have even higher training potential. This suggests, therefore, the need for further research into this matter.

CRAFTING DIGITAL WRITING: COMPOSING TEXTS ACROSS MEDIA AND GENRES - BOOK REVIEW

by **Mahmoud Abdi Tabari**
Oklahoma State University,
Stillwater, OK 74074, USA
abditab @ okstate.edu

Book details:

Crafting Digital Writing Composing Texts Across Media and Genres
Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 2013, 208 pages
ISBN-13: 978-0325046969 Paperback
£20.44

Introduction

This book opens up a discussion about multiple ways in which technology can help teach writing and provides guidelines for teachers who teach students the craft of digital writing in a classroom. Indeed, Hicks believes that it is teachers' responsibility to incorporate digital writing into their class curriculum and emphasizes the importance of the digital writing process. Hicks tries to familiarize teachers with the principles of digital writing and gives a list of ideas for those who are willing to use technology, particularly digital texts. He investigates how teachers can use digital tools in the classroom and how students produce textual output, through the digital writing process. In addition, he goes further and analytically focuses on the writing practices which are going on with different projects, and later on develops those ideas and perspectives into literacy-rich activities. Hicks provides a general picture of digital writing for teachers on how to consider and evaluate students' digital written output. Through this reflection and evaluation on students' digital writings, teachers can provide better guidance for their writing practices. He focuses on the importance of writing in the technology age, and explores teaching principles for students who create digital writings in this era.

Overview

The book puts a lens on potential advantages of technology and media in interacting with others, telling a story through different media, and making information available to local or global readers. It consists of eight chapters, addressing various topics about digital writing.

Chapter One, "Overview of the Book," discusses multiple strategies and techniques through which teachers can teach writing with technology. Hicks believes that schools have to analyze how teachers are currently employing digital tools and technology in their classrooms so that the focus remains on literacy-rich activities, and not simply using technology for its own sake. In addition, he suggests that teachers make an inventory of the ways students do digital activities and identify how they speak, read and write during digitally-infused tasks whether inside or outside school. Hicks tries to raise teachers' knowledge of the effectiveness of digital writing tools in classrooms and also encourages students to actively work with digital media.

Chapter Two, "Author's Craft, Genre Study, and Digital Writing," addresses an important issue— of what it means to compose pieces of digital writing—and then persuades both teacher and student to gradually recognize and develop the elements of digital writing that move beyond merely copying, pasting, and publishing texts on websites or blogs. Hicks' argument is not solely restricted to digital writing. He goes further and explicates different texts that students can use such as narration, argumentation, and description, and meaningfully makes a connection to the Common Core[1]. In addition, he highlights the challenges students are grappling with, whether via pen and paper or digital texts.

Chapter Three, "Crafting Web Texts," presents various types of web-based compositions that students are able to create with digital tools such as computers, tablets, phones, and digital cameras, which are very exhilarating and exciting. Hicks states that students should be granted opportunities to keep in touch with the world through digital media. He highlights a few digital samples such as digital essays and science journals, through which students can produce web-based digital writings. However, he cautions that teachers must ensure that their students write these texts according to their own critical, creative thinking rather than copy others' works. He also mentions that web-based texts require rich linguistic resources, and digital writers have to carefully attend to content, language, and organization.

---

[1] The Common Core is a set of high-quality academic standards in mathematics and English language arts/literacy (ELA). These learning goals outline what a student should know and be able to do at the end of each grade.

Chapter Four, "Crafting Presentations," opens up a critical discussion about why some teachers stand behind the use of the old standby platform of PowerPoint for presentations in their instruction. It even becomes worse when students have to watch other students' long PowerPoint presentations on a specific topic. In turn, Hicks provides novel alternatives such as using multimedia websites, infographics, and screencasting. Through these digital tools, not only are students keeping up with new technology, but they will also take an active role and be more cooperative in the classroom. Moreover, he adds that it is necessary to teach students how to start collaborating with peers and create interesting, interactive presentations.

"Crafting Audio Texts," Chapter Five, addresses the issue of teachers providing general support for their students in learning processes, particularly when they are using oral language. In doing so, teachers should raise students' awareness of the power of their words and communication. Hicks also encourages both native and non-native teachers to have their students record themselves and listen to their own pronunciation and overall tone through podcasting. He introduces podcasting to students as an effective way in which to reflect on and monitor their performance, and highlights that it has received less attention in comparison to other forms of digital writing such as creating presentations, websites, or videos.

"Crafting Video Texts," Chapter Six, starts by asking this question, "Is video production really a craft under the purview of writing teachers?", to which Hicks' answer is "yes." He points out that while it is a demanding task for students to produce reflective, high-quality video products that appear to be far away from their real work of writing instruction, the connections between composing words and video create unique possibilities. In writing courses, teachers typically prepare the writing curriculum that requires students to produce sentences, paragraphs, and essays and develop them; similarly, with video, students must learn how to use various images, video clips, and sounds to develop a coherent message. To employ digital media in writing courses, he suggests teachers use heuristic "MAPS," through which readers are invited to look at Mode, Media, Audience, Purpose and Situation. Hicks reiterates this issue in this chapter and he is more concerned that teachers have students so tied to a checklist or rubric that it completely kills their creative capabilities. Additionally, he urges students to attend to the craft of digital writing and focus on their own writing processes. Through using MAPS, students wear a lens to reflect on digital writing.

"Crafting Social Media," Chapter Seven, discusses how to actively engage students in digital writing and help them share their clear, succinct writings through social media. Hicks states that students keep in close touch with social media these days, and they constantly use

digital tools on a daily basis. Hicks believes that "social media is the telephone for this generation of teens (and, increasingly, adults)" (p. 140). It means that teenagers spend more time posting on social media than talking on the phone with their friends. Therefore, it is the teacher's responsibility to teach students how to communicate properly when they employ these digital tools. In the end, Hicks provides some implications for how to use microblogging, group text messaging, and social bookmarks.

"Modeling and Mentoring the Digital Writing Process," Chapter Eight, closely investigates a number of digital writing samples from a specific student and uses them as the basis for teachers to know how to teach purposefully and creatively. He also introduces teachers to some digital tools such as applications and quick guides to websites and provides them with guidelines about how to design digital writing tasks. He asserts that the teachers should not neglect the importance of traditional literacies by encouraging students to produce digital writings, but they have to motivate students to produce more writings. He persuades teachers to have their students do purposeful, deliberate work with both print and digital writing.

Recommendation

This book is a worthy read because it opens up a different perspective for both teachers and students. It ushers the way for teachers to understand their students' writings in various formats, certainly not substantiated by educational systems. Hicks encourages students to keep thinking, do more deliberate work, be risk takers, recognize their mistakes, and learn from them. Additionally, he discusses different kinds of writing through the processes of learning and creativity, and raises teachers' awareness of how they can actively involve their students with meaningful, creative, and reflective writing. In the end, he urges composition teachers to develop their notions of writing and use multiple strategies and techniques to teach them.

For more information about the book, including a list of links and resources, visit the companion wiki page at http://digitalwritingworkshop.wikispaces.com/Crafting_Digital_Writing.

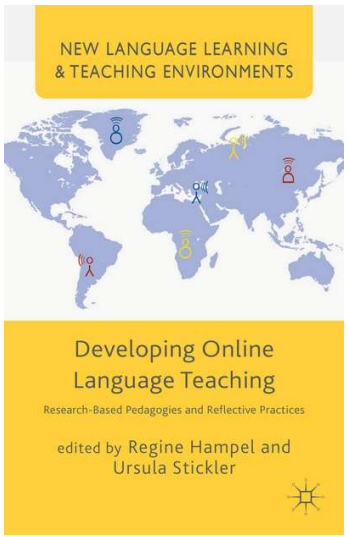
DEVELOPING ONLINE LANGUAGE TEACHING. RESEARCH-BASED PEDAGOGIES AND REFLECTIVE PRACTICES - BOOK REVIEW

by **Kamila Burzyńska**

University of Technology and Humanities,

Ul. Chrobrego 31, 26-600 Radom, Poland

kamila.burz @ wp.pl



Book details:

Developing Online Language Teaching. Research-Based Pedagogies and Reflective Practices

Regine Hampel and Ursula Stickler (Eds.)

Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke, 2015, 206 pages

ISBN: 978-0-230-28249-0 hardback

ISBN: 978-0-230-28250-6 paperback

£58,00

Introduction

Developing Online Language Teaching. Research-Based Pedagogies and Reflective Practices by Regine Hampel and Ursula Stickler is the latest publication from *New Language Learning and Teaching Environments Series* edited by Hayo Reinders. The book was released by Palgrave Macmillan in 2015. In the introduction, the editors promise “a journey towards

successful integration of ICT elements into the online and blended teaching" (Hampel & Stickler, 2015: 6) and they seem to have kept the promise.

The spectrum of the book's addressees seems broad as it encompasses: pre-service and in-service teachers interested in developing a set of ICT skills and pedagogically transformative practices and also researchers whose field of study relates to online teaching and learning. It was designed with the aim of getting the readers to reflect over their current instructional practices and further developmental options. The authors of eleven chapters truly believe in adaptive teaching, where educators balance the needs and abilities of learners with the affordances of the tools used in class and also the demands of accreditation and assessment. In a very approachable way, they present and discuss the ways to become not only digitally competent but most importantly pedagogically aware of why and how to use ICT tools to facilitate learning. In line with their assumptions over an outstanding role of collaboration in learning, they recommend scrutinizing a number of options and tools the Internet offers for practitioners who are seeking support in their professional development, e.g. Free Online Training Spaces, Open Educational Resources, Online Communities of Practice or the DOTS projects' websites.

Presentation

The structure of the book, as the editors emphasize in Chapter 1, is modular, not linear. This undeniably is an advantage of the book, especially when one considers using some parts of it relevant in their pre-service teachers' classrooms.

In Chapter 2, entitled "European Language Teachers and ICT: Experiences, Expectations and Training Needs", Aline Germain-Rutherford and Pauline Ernest present the results of 3 DOTS (Developing Online Teaching Skills) surveys (2008, 2011 and 2013) and the qualitative data gathered from participants of more than 20 workshops on DOTS. The results reveal the learners' willingness to take part in technology-enhanced lessons and the teachers' need for high quality and ongoing forms of online training. It appears that educators want to know how and why the use of the latest technologies can contribute to learning apart from requesting to be trained on which tools to use.

Chapter 3 by Ursula Stickler and Martina Emke, whose title is "Part-time and Freelance Language Teachers and their ICT Training Needs", enables the reader to learn about the whole scale of teaching contexts where a considerable number of teachers are part-time and freelance practitioners. They often aspire to change their professional situation in

order to get a full-time job by participating in various Continuous Professional Development forms. This is not an easy goal to achieve since it usually requires applying logistical skills, devoting one's time and money to be able to take part in CPDs or even struggling to cater for the possible conflicting demands of various institutions they are employed at. When it comes to what these professionals appeal for, it seems the training formats that involve learning by doing, collaboration and reflection are the most frequently mentioned on the wish list. The teachers do not find cognitive approaches with limited reflection tasks sufficient and fully meeting their needs.

Chapter 4, entitled "Online Language Teaching: The Learner's Perspective", was written by Linda Murphy. The author presents the data gathered in 2008 and 2011 from two questionnaires filled in by 850 students who look for certain skills and qualities with regard to their teachers. It turns out the learners yearn for the shift to a greater use of online elements. As opposed to what some prophets of doom used to claim at the dawn of online language teaching, students still find the teacher indispensable in the classrooms where instructors incorporate technological tools into their practices. Subsequently, the expected teacher's functions in the aforementioned context, namely: systemic, affective as well as cognitive ones, are presented in the chapter, too.

Part 5 by Ursula Stickler and Regine Hampel, entitled "Transforming Teaching: New Skills for Online Language Learning Spaces", encompasses the discussion over the skills that are needed for OLLS. The authors propose the skills framework, where the skills on level 1 involve: matching pedagogies and technologies, on level 2: developing social cohesion and fostering communication, on level 3: enhancing creativity online.

Chapter 6 (by Joseph Hopkins, "Free Online Training Spaces for Language Teachers"), Chapter 7 (by Anna Comas-Quinn and Kate Borthwick, "Sharing: Open Educational Resources for Language Teachers") and Chapter 8 (by Aline Germain-Rutherford, "Online Communities of Practice: A Professional Development Tool for Language Educators") are successful attempts to systemize the available tools for CPD development. The authors provide the reader with thorough analyses of the tools, they present the opportunities the options allow but also discuss the barriers and challenges involved. The readers will certainly find the typology and examples of the OERs extremely useful. What is more, some recommendations for a self-development plan, tips on setting one's own library of free online training spaces or designing a community of practice may appear precious as well. Those who need specific examples illustrating how all these tools, repositories and

communities work in practice will be directed to sample websites where they can read, learn, share their practices, and as a consequence, evolve in their professional identity and knowledge.

Chapter 9, "Theoretical Approaches and Research-Based Pedagogies for Online Teaching", is an overview of theoretical approaches, which may be useful for both novice and experienced researchers. The author, Regine Hampel, presents a number of methods and research tools to be utilised when conducting studies regarding different aspects of OLT. In fact, there are several hints over the areas and directions of research marked throughout the whole book. One may find them inspirational when looking for one's own potential area of expertise.

The last two chapters – entitled "Developing Online Teaching Skills: The DOTS Project" and "Using DOTS Materials for the Professional Development of English Teachers in Turkey: Teachers' Views", are the accounts of the projects which can perfectly serve as proofs to successful application and utilisation of DOTS materials. Apart from describing a sample DOTS project's details (2008-2010) around activities, tools and approaches undertaken, Mateusz-Milan Stanojević (Chapter 10) recommends a number of practical suggestions for reflection, which seem invaluable when teachers want to apply the DOTS approach for their own benefits. Süleyman Başaran, Emrah Cinkara and Neşe Cabaroğlu (Chapter 11) conclude with the discussion over another DOTS project's results, which show participants' positive views about DOTS materials, DOTS modules' application and the project's impact on the participating teachers' attitudes being it surprisingly significant. The investigation into the benefits and drawbacks is balanced, however, and presented in an unbiased way. The chapters may be treated as the evaluation of the approach promoted by the book, which reveals the great potential of OLT and emphasizes the continuous need for it to be tested and broadly researched, too.

Evaluation

The book is a kind of an awakener for one's professional development inspiring to reflect upon one's teaching and further development. Secondly, it is a source of stimulating ideas for research and research tools. Furthermore, its flexibility regarding the target readers needs to be appreciated. Everyone interested in the approach will find something for oneself no matter if they are pre-service, novice or in-service teachers and more or less experienced researchers. Furthermore, the sensitivity towards the whole spectrum of potential addressees of the book

ought to be emphasized. The reader-friendly language use can be sensed from the very start of the publication. What is more, reflective tasks each chapter finishes with are highly advantageous for mentors or lecturers providing instruction to pre-service teachers. They are relevant, ready-made tasks designed for immediate use in and outside the classroom. Finally, the organisation of the book deserves appreciation, too. It is the well-thought-out order of articles that ensures the flow and coherence of the content, due to which one can "digest" the book easily.

At the end of the introductory chapter, the editors placed a word about the medium – a traditional book – they decided to use in order to scrutinize Online Language Teaching. They wish to explain the decision which may seem at odds with the approach they are trying to advocate in the book. As they pointed out, they want to reach the readers who make their first steps in using technology in their classroom. Moreover, the authors hope for the book to be a source of knowledge and ideas that will be useful in the educational context in the future as well, not only at this particular moment in time of the development of ICT in teaching. Thus, a fixed format may be more easily approached and taken advantage of in school contexts farther along. There is one more point that should be added to the ideas above. Some people are still slightly conservative when it comes to the choice of a medium and the experience of reading itself. According to the research commissioned for Publishing Perspectives Designing Books for Millennials[1] conference, which took place in March 2015, young people in Britain and the USA prefer buying print books to e-books. Some studies in other countries, e.g. in Poland, reveal similar results[2]. That is why, a great number of readers are probably very grateful to the authors for publishing the book in the paper version.

Recommendation

To sum up, *Developing Online Language Teaching. Research-Based Pedagogies and Reflective Practices* is worth recommending. When one decides to take part in the journey the authors invite him or her to, they will not regret it. There is a high chance of ending up as an

[1] Gleed, A. (2013). *Booktrust Reading Habits Survey 2013. A national survey of reading habits and attitudes to books amongst adults in England.* Retrieved from http://www.booktrust.org.uk/usr/library/documents/main/1576-booktrust-reading-habits-report-final.pdf

Zickuhr, K. & Rainie L. (2014). *A Snapshot of Reading in America in 2013*. Retrieved from http://www.pewinternet.org/2014/01/16/a-snapshot-of-reading-in-america-in-2013/

[2] Wasylewicz M. (2014). *Książka papierowa czy elektroniczna – preferencje czytelnicze dzieci i rodziców w dobie ekspansji nowych technologii*. Last accessed May 10, 2015. http://www.ktime.up.krakow.pl/symp2014/referaty_2014_10/wasylewicz.pdf

inspired and ready to act teacher, and most importantly, as a pedagogically aware educator, ready to evolve in one's professional identity.

References

Gleed, A. (2013). *Booktrust Reading Habits Survey 2013. A national survey of reading habits and attitudes to books amongst adults in England*. Last accessed May 10 2015. http://www.booktrust.org.uk/usr/library/documents/main/1576-booktrust-reading-habits-report-final.pdf

Hampel, R., & Stickler, U. (Eds.). (2015). Developing Online Language Teaching. Research-Based Pedagogies and Reflective Practices. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wasylewicz, M. (2014). Książka papierowa czy elektroniczna – preferencje czytelnicze dzieci i rodziców w dobie ekspansji nowych technologii. Last accessed May 10, 2015. http://www.ktime.up.krakow.pl/symp2014/referaty_2014_10/wasylewicz.pdf

Zickuhr, K. & Rainie L. (2014). *A Snapshot of Reading in America in 2013*. Last accessed May 10, 2015. http://www.pewinternet.org/2014/01/16/a-snapshot-of-reading-in-america-in-2013/