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CALLing all the CALLers Worldwide

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CALLing all the CALLers Worldwide

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Sustainability and inter university collaboration in higher education: capacity building for English for specific and academic purposes (ESAP)

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Abstract

How can students and scholars in higher education gain ground and confidence to professionally communicate in English in a global perspective?

In a symposium on sustainability and inter university collaboration, the underpinning of this growth by various stakeholders, with both successes and pitfalls, is illustrated by means of practical cases in order to feed an ensuing round table discussion on the leading questions: how can networking guarantee sustainability of cooperation projects? What role do online environments and platforms play in setting up sustainable networks and in supporting joint projects during and beyond their life span?

The presentations covered Capacity Building in International Cooperation (Lut Baten), Faculty Identity and FL Planning (Liliana del Pilar Gallego) Assessment Literacy and Certification (Ivonne Peña Collada and Claudia Harsch) Developing Intercultural Communicative Competence (Ana Vivian Fernández Peraza), Virtual Exchange (Sake Jager). The symposium paved the way to launching LatinCALL, an association for sustainment and promotion of networking for CALL in Latin and Central America.

Keywords: capacity building; identity; intercultural communicative competence; virtual exchange; assessment; networking; sustainability; LatinCALL

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1. Introduction

VLIR IUC (www.vliruos.be) stands for Institutional Inter University Collaboration. This Flemish organisation is devoted to capacity building in higher education in 18 developing countries in the world, one of which is Cuba. International mobility (research and recycling scholarships for graduate studies in
Flanders), training and research programmes (at the local campuses) are the core activities in exchange and collaboration.

A first and basic requirement in this networking is language proficiency. English, and especially English for specific and academic purposes (ESAP) is the springboard for communication. Staff and students need to fulfill the specific language requirements for English of their target Flemish universities for entering research, recycling and training programmes. For example, in order to be accepted at Flemish universities, PhD students have to minimally prove a B1 level in oral proficiency in English, within the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). They minimally need an overall B2 level, preferably certified by means of standardized tests, to defend and obtain a joint PhD, which is a dual diploma, recognized both in Europe and in the home country.

Within the cooperation, North and South, the stakeholders’ needs are basically alike: an optimal infrastructure, a customized curriculum, a certification procedure, an effective teacher training programme and an efficient exchange of materials and contents. On top of that the educational approach for autonomous, collaborative and problem-solving learning needs to be integrated in the organization and daily practice of the universities. These needs require a process of change and growth, which actually comes down to capacity building, overarching the boundaries of different disciplines and the cultures of the different universities. Involving international networking and cooperation requires intercultural communicative competences of all stakeholders involved, North and South, staff and students. How can it be achieved?

The first speaker, Lut Baten, opened the symposium by answering questions on how the VLIR IUC cooperation has tried to facilitate and sustain cooperation by working both bottom up, with students and staff as well as top down, with governmental alignment. As an example a case was chosen: the 15 year long cooperation among 6 universities in Cuba and 5 universities in Flanders, Belgium, on how to prepare about 50 PhD students in several disciplines for their joint PhD in English, on how to train their trainers, on how to set up an ICT platform for exchange and on how to establish e-learning within a open source community. In total 20 million euros have been invested, resulting now in a nation-wide start-up of e-learning centres and certification of English in Higher Education. The programme continues, aiming at exchanging South-South, not only North-South, thus learning from and with each other, expanding.

2. The involvement of stakeholders in networking

Certification of students and staff in English language proficiency is a crucial step in international cooperation and development, not only at institutional level but also nation-wide and internationally. Claudia Harsch and Yvonne Peña Collada reported on a collaborative capacity building project between the Ministerio de Educación Superior de Cuba, Universidad de las Ciencias Informáticas, the British Council Cuba and UK, and the University of Bremen. This project arose from the need in Cuban higher education to raise the level of English proficiency; it is also driven by the introduction of the CEFR as the proficiency framework in higher education language training (Collada Peña et al., 2018). It built on previous capacity building endeavours within the VLIR-IUC network, particularly on the transversal project Strengthening Foreign Language Skills for Intercultural and International Academic Purposes with the Universidad de Oriente, Cuba.

The main aim of the certification project is to set up a sustainable system of English language learning, teaching and certification. In a first step, the Cuban Network of Assessment in Higher Education was founded in 2017, with the help of a workshop grant by the International Language Testing Association, in cooperation with the University of Bremen and with support of the president of the European Association for Language Testing and Assessment. The project targets three aspects: training university language teachers to become trainers themselves in order to establish sustainability; developing standardized language tests that are aligned to the CEFR in order to achieve international recognition; and conducting research with regard to the effectiveness of the training, the quality of the test instruments, and the impact the new certification system will have. With regard to training the trainers, representative teachers of all Cuban regions are currently attending a training program that is conducted by international trainers located at the University of Bremen and the British Council. These teachers receive training in all relevant areas of language assessment, so that they can a) develop assessment tools for the new certification system, and b) train other teachers in their regions in relevant areas of assessment and certification. The approach taken is collaborative and dynamic, with face-to-face training phases where international trainers from the University of Bremen and the British Council UK visit Cuba, and online working phases where the teachers
collaboratively develop assessment materials and receive feedback from each other and from the international trainers.

The effectiveness of the training was evaluated after one year via an online questionnaire. Results show that teachers gained in knowledge and skills in all relevant areas covered in the training phases. They particularly appreciated the cooperation and networking opportunities amongst colleagues and the exchange with national and international experts. The positive evaluation shows the way for an extension of the program, making use of local and global networks such as ILTA and the newly established Latin American Association for Language Testing, where the Cuban network is a member. The project design and the evaluation were presented at international conferences and publications are currently under way.

Within their faculties, teachers play a crucial role in raising a new way of learning and of cooperating. In the contribution from Liliana Gallego, thirty faculty teachers in FL area in Colombia were diagnosed in their conceptions about teaching and research and in the activities they developed in those spheres of activities. The study in which they voluntarily participated identified most of them as not having the training required to do research and that fact consequently had created in them different misconceptions about what research is and what is required in that activity. Also, those misconceptions and lack of support in their institutions has created some tensions and negative feelings to accomplish research as one of the roles a foreign Language faculty teacher is supposed to assume. To illustrate that, participants of the study manifested that they were initially taught to be good teachers but not taught to develop research exercise nor to write or publish academic written texts. The ones that do research learnt that when doing their PhD studies. When checking the activities they usually developed, it was common to find the majority of them working on their classes, teaching, planning, writing guides and written manuals, handouts and evaluations but except a few of them, they were far from doing research, being part of evaluation committees in different journals or writing scientific articles. Those teachers declared not to be prepared for that. They also claimed that in spite of the fact institutions asked them to do research; their policies in most of the cases only count on and validate teaching activities instead of their writing and research activities. Stakeholders should then plan how to change their institution policies towards helping foreign language teachers to assume new roles, to train them in learning how to research and how to write about what faculty members investigate, to share their knowledge with other colleagues and to promote their participation in the design of institutional policies to transform and transit to a new conception of what a faculty member is and should be. After the study, the University of Caldas has started a teachers’ development program on doing research and writing articles to be published. Besides, the institution has called the teacher-researchers belonging to the university and grouped them to help the institution in planning more coherent policies for the promotion of research and writing and of course in changing the conceptions of foreign language teachers.

3. How to reach sustainability in networking?

Cooperating in a virtual world, requires the skills to engage with varying interlocuters, (individuals, companies, administrators, students). These are all stakeholders, in a changing world and changing situations. Hence, language for specific purposes but also for intercultural communication needs to be acquired with the necessary digital literacy and awareness. In 2003, Ana Vivian Fernández Peraza started as a newly graduated PhD, in the new VLIR -IUC program at the Universidad Central “Marta Abreu” de las Villas (UCLV), Cuba and continued till 2013. She reported how English gradually became embedded as the vehicle of communication between Flemish and Cuban partners in their various academic domains. A hands-on skills based approach was opted for, gradually growing into experimenting with meetings and oral presentations, face to face and online. Moreover, the choice was made to also teach business English courses to academic administrators and faculty members. Her own recycling scholarship abroad resulted in course development with on-line contents related to Cuban and Belgian culture, including intercultural issues like differences in styles of communication. WebQuests were introduced as part of the teaching practice, as well as LMS use. Feedback from the learners, expanding their contacts with professionals from other countries, urged for filling the need of ICC training in intercultural encounters.

Upon realizing that, Ana Fernández reported on how a next step was taken in Costa Rica, where the English Teaching Major curriculum was mostly focused on developing language and teaching skills, with hardly any attention to ICC. An action research project was proposed to the Universidad Americana. The initial objective was to develop classroom activities that promoted intercultural awareness in oral communication courses. Teacher-trainees’ interest arose in the various factors that play in intercultural communication, and how to successfully deal with them in intercultural encounters. A greater sensitivity of cultural issues in their own country was particularly revealed when talking about common stereotypes prevalent in the
country about Nicaraguans, anti-immigrant attitudes, and recent anti-immigrant events. The use of ICT gave an extra boost to their motivation to better grasp their own and other cultures, ensuring confidence in online communication abroad as future educators and co-operators.

Sake Jager continued on this line expounding on Virtual Exchange (VE). It is a form of computer-mediated learning whereby students from geographically remote classes work together online (in pairs or small groups) on learning tasks developed by teachers or educational facilitators. Traditionally applied primarily in language and culture learning, it is gradually being implemented across disciplines as a tool for international learning (O’Dowd, 2018). VE may assist students in developing the intercultural, international and global competencies which are required for employability in our global ‘knowledge society’. A stronger interest in education in critical global citizenship and civic engagement also promote the use of VE. Finally, only a limited percentage of students worldwide have the opportunity to study abroad, which has strengthened the case for engaging them in alternative modes of international experience. Many HE institutions and the European Union are currently trying to implement VE on a more substantial basis. Examples of this are the European Forward-Looking Cooperation Project EVOLVE (www.evolve-erasmus.eu) and the Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange pilot programme (https://europa.eu/youth/erasmusvirtual_en).

VE is particularly well suited to reinforcing sustainability and interuniversity collaboration in Higher Education. First of all, VE is an excellent tool for enhancing students’ linguistic and intercultural skills. In the context of the VLIR IUC project and the LatinCALL network, students from Latin-American countries may be engaged in learning tasks with students in Europe or other continents, using English as lingua franca for the exchanges. This may foster oral and writing proficiency in English and help prepare them for participating in the MA and PhD programmes offered by the partner universities. Working online with peers from other countries offers them authentic preparation for collaborating in global communities, which is typical of many careers today both inside and outside academia. Moreover, to design and facilitate these exchanges, the educators need to negotiate learning outcomes, tasks, tools and practicalities with their foreign peers, which may add a fresh dimension to already existing partnerships or be the start of establishing new ones. From these multiple perspectives, VE – which is already firmly rooted in language learning in some Latin-American countries, such as Brazil, would seem to be an appropriate tool for networking in the context of VLIR IUC and LatinCALL.

4. Conclusions

A survey and discussion with the participants of the symposium on capacity building, with an ensuing round table, resulted in the launch of an association for Computer Assisted Language Learning in Latin America, LatinCall. Its mission was formulated as follows. LatinCALL is an international association that fosters the effective teaching and learning of languages assisted by technologies in diverse and multilingual contexts of Latin America. LatinCALL seeks to empower educators, stakeholders and the educational community in general, to engage meaningfully with technologies and promote excellence in language learning, research, and teaching practice.

In its vision, LatinCALL expects to be recognized as an authority for continuous professional development of language teachers and practitioners that use technologies in Latin America that facilitates the exchange of knowledge and networking among professionals. LatinCALL envisions to lead and promote the effective teaching and learning of languages assisted by technologies in the region, by building liaisons among those involved in education both nationally and internationally, by creating opportunities for professional development opportunities and, by establishing connections with varied CALL organizations in the world.

A steering committee, with representatives of seven Latin American countries, and a website was set up to prepare for the first convention of LatinCALL by 2020.

5. References


Stories of using social media in second language teacher education

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Abstract

This narrative inquiry discusses the impact of social media, Facebook in particular, on the shaping of Brazilian pre-service language teachers’ professional identities. The research context is a teacher initiation project, forming part of a Brazilian government programme called PIBID (Teaching Initiation Scholarship Programme), in which I collaborated as a teacher educator. The project involved pre-service and in-service EFL teachers designing and implementing language teaching materials with the help of digital resources at two state schools. The theoretical background draws on technology normalisation and collaborative language teacher education perspectives, as well on storied views on teacher identity. The field texts include journals, online interactions, recorded conversations, drawings, and teaching materials gathered over the course of an academic year. Facebook became a tool for teaching English, as well as a space for reflecting on teaching and learning assumptions and experiences. By working with this social medium in teacher preparation, the pre-service teachers were exposed to a number challenges, such as developing self-discipline and adapting digital resources pedagogically. This had a profound impact on their identities as second language teachers.

Keywords: Second language teacher education; technology normalisation; social media; narrative inquiry.

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1. Introduction

Social media has had a great impact on our lives, shaping the way we relate to our friends, collaborate with peers, teach, learn and even learn how to teach. This paper reports on the impact of social media, Facebook in particular, on second language teacher education by addressing the following research question: how do experiences of using Facebook in second language teacher education shape pre-service EFL teachers’ professional identities?

Here, teacher identity is understood through Connelly and Clandinin’s concept of “stories to live by” (1999, p. 4). In this perspective, “identities have stories, they are narrative constructions that take shape as life unfolds” (p. 95). Becoming a teacher, therefore, involves “continuous reformulations of the self” through moments in which teachers learn to “not-know” (confront uncertainties) and to “un-know” (reflect on and re-evaluate practices) (Vinz, 1997, p. 139).
Given the role of Internet and social media in our society, developing second language teachers’ professional identities involves offering them conditions to normalise ICT in their classrooms, that is, to fully integrate technology into their practice (Bax, 2003; Chambers & Bax, 2006). Thus, it is crucial to help them master digital skills, such as the socio-emotional literacy (the ability to collaborate online) (Eshet-Alkalai, 2004), and develop their technological pedagogical content knowledge, “a form of professional knowledge that technologically and pedagogically adept, curriculum-oriented teachers use when they teach” (Harris, Mishra & Koehler, 2009, p. 401).

This paper discusses stories of normalising technology in EFL teaching by adopting a narrative inquiry methodology, in other words, by considering narrative as both method and way of understanding experience (Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The research context is a teacher education project, forming part of a Brazilian government programme called PIBID (Teaching Initiation Scholarship Programme), in which I collaborated as a teacher educator. The programme awards grants to teacher educators, and to pre-service and in-service teachers participating in teacher education projects developed by universities in partnership with state schools. Its main aims are to integrate schools and teaching degree programmes, and to improve the quality of education at state schools.

2. Method

This study takes the form of a narrative inquiry, a research methodology that studies experience as a storied phenomenon (Clandinin, 2013; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Analysis involves positioning field texts (the term for data in this narrative approach) within three commonplaces (temporality, sociality and place) to identify narrative threads. The field texts include written journals, online interactions, recorded conversations, drawings, and teaching materials gathered over the course of an academic year.

The research participants are six Brazilian pre-service EFL teachers. They were all female and between 18 and 50 years old. The PIBID project, in which we were engaged, involved in-service EFL teachers from two state schools and pre-service teachers designing and implementing English reading activities with the help of digital resources.

3. Discussion

The PIBID project was implemented in three stages. The first stage consisted of English language workshops, class observations, and face-to-face and online discussions (via a private Facebook group created for this purpose) about second language teaching. The second stage focused on the discussion of national educational guidelines, and the design and implementation of pre-service teachers’ first English reading activities. The third stage consisted of a second round of materials design and implementation. Throughout this process, Facebook was used in different ways by the pre-service teachers: first, as space for discussing second language teachers’ roles, resources and experiences, as well as the pedagogical application of digital tools (the pre-service teachers commented on posts I shared); then, as a space for sharing materials and ideas (the pre-service teachers shared, for example, activities designed by them and materials related to teaching); and finally, as a space for teaching English (the pre-service teachers implemented language teaching materials using their own Facebook groups).

Two main narrative threads emerged from the analysis of the pre-service teachers’ experiences of using Facebook in the project: “Some struggles along the way” and “Discovering possibilities”. “Some struggles along the way” accounts for the moments in which they learned to “not-know” (Vinz, 1997), that is, to confront the uncertainties of using Facebook as a learning and teaching space. It represents a number of challenges the pre-service teachers faced, such as developing self-discipline, overcoming the fear of sharing comments online, and adapting digital resources pedagogically.

“Discovering possibilities” accounts for the moments in which the pre-service teachers learned to “un-know” (Vinz, 1997), that is, to reflect on and rethink their assumptions about the pedagogical application of digital technologies. Through “un-knowing”, the pre-service teachers could make sense of their teaching practice, be critical about their own online materials, discuss the use of digital tools in our society with pupils and, above all, understand that ICT per se would not make language learning more effective.
4. Conclusions

Confronting the uncertainties of using Facebook as a learning and teaching space had a profound impact on the pre-service EFL teachers’ identities: they could make sense of their practice and re-evaluate their assumptions about the pedagogical use of digital resources, developing their technological pedagogical content knowledge and giving their first steps towards normalising ICT in their teaching. Their professional identities were shaped as they were provided with opportunities to imagine (by experiencing and reflecting on the pedagogical use of ICT), live out (by designing and implementing online activities) and re-imagine (by making sense of their practice) stories of using ICT in second language teaching.

In exploring the meanings that particular pre-service EFL teachers derive from their experiences of using Facebook, this study is insightful for both second language teacher education practice and research. It illustrates ICT normalisation in its early stages, shedding light on how pre-service teachers imagine, live out and re-imagine the use of ICT. This in turn can inform second language teacher education curriculum. For example, teacher educators may consider these stages when designing proposals in their own programmes. Second language teacher education researchers, meanwhile, may adapt these stages in order to study ICT normalisation in other contexts.

5. References


Recalibrating content-related strategies for language learning in the digital age

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Abstract
Technology provides access to an unprecedented array of content for use in language learning. Once relegated to the study of language for specific purposes, the content of language learning tasks today should be recognized as central to the pedagogical choices made by teachers, material developers, and curriculum designers. The centrality of content is evident in all forms of CALL activities from advanced-level data-driven learning to internet collaborations for intermediate learners, and beginning-level materials for input, interaction, and controlled production. This paper argues that the content requirements of technology-mediated pedagogies today require that professionals recalibrate their content-related strategies for selecting, using, and evaluating content in language learning tasks. It suggests that current technology-mediated practices and affordances challenge the profession to improve strategies for engaging with language and content in order to maximize the potential of technology as a tool for connecting learners to the world of language learning opportunities. CALL professionals are ideally suited to do so because of the dynamic, content-rich pedagogy inherent to learning through CALL.

Keywords: data-driven learning; corpus-based pedagogy; virtual exchange; and multimedia narrative; language for specific purposes; content-based language teaching; content

1. Introduction
Technology-mediated pedagogies today require carefully selected content to model language conventions, to prompt use of the language for communication, and to capture students' interest in learning about the people and cultures where the language is spoken. Regardless of the role that content plays, content-responsible language pedagogy is difficult for language teachers to develop and implement. Murray and Christianson (2012) summed up the challenge for English language teachers, "Because few English language teachers are experts in both academic content and language, teaching English by studying academic content often proves difficult" (Murray & Christianson, 2012, p. 68). The difficulty does not lie in finding and accessing relevant content because teachers and students have access to abundant resources through the internet. The difficulty lies in knowing how to select, sequence, and present content to maximize interest and language learning.

Pre-technology approaches to content-based language learning offer little guidance because they assume that teachers and students have limited access to content. Content is assumed to be circumscribed by the selections of distant material developers, leaving little opportunity for local engagement with questions about content. Technology today, however, offers teachers and students access to unlimited content. Moreover, research and practice in CALL has pioneered approaches for dynamically incorporating content into language pedagogy. Three CALL pedagogies—corpus-based pedagogy, virtual exchange,
multimedia narrative—illustrate how technology-mediated pedagogies are prompting the profession to recalibrate strategies for working with interesting and useful content that is integral to language learning.

2. Corpus-Based Pedagogy

Corpus-based pedagogy beginning with data-driven learning has evolved to embrace the importance of content, thereby moving ever closer to pedagogies for teaching language for specific purposes (LSP), as illustrated in Figure 1. The problem facing English language teachers, as stated by Murray & Christianson (2012), has been tackled for years by teachers of all languages taught for specific purposes. LSP teachers and material developers teach the linguistic conventions used to convey topics and enact genres that are used by members of certain professions and discourse communities. LSP teaching predated the introduction of data-driven learning, but as access to corpus linguistic techniques became available to teachers and students, new pedagogies developed to exploit discovery learning, a range of corpus-based pedagogies affording more or less responsibility to students to discover patterns and even build their own corpora. Corpus-based pedagogies evolved in accordance with general educational trends valuing students' access to materials, use of authentic language, and learners' active role in the learning process (Boulton & Pérez-Paredes, 2014).

Figure 1. Schematic diagram depicting the convergence of practices in corpus-based pedagogy and language for specific purposes

Corpus-based pedagogy has gradually converged with LSP methods evolving into today's pedagogies using specialized corpus tools, such as the Research Writing Tutor (Cotos, 2014). The Research Writing Tutor was developed to help ESL academic writers to gain independence in analyzing and producing research articles in their disciplines. It uses a discipline-specific corpus of research articles for each student and draws upon Swales' genre analysis to teach the research article genre using the specific instantiations of research articles in each discipline. The Research Writing Tutor provides a glimpse of the possibilities for discipline appropriate language teaching, but it also hints at the challenge. The genres to be learned by L2 writers across disciplines are many and not all as well defined as research articles. For example, undergraduate engineering majors may write research reports, but they also write cover letters, technical memoranda, proposals, project-related emails, lab reports, essays on engineering topics, and site visit reports (Conrad, Pfeiffer, & Szymoniak, 2012). Students in other fields study even additional genres and a wide variety of topics. Students need to learn the language used in their fields for knowledge building. Recalibration of content-related strategies requires a better understanding of how language is used to build knowledge (Maton, 2014).
3. Virtual Exchange

Today's virtual exchange pedagogy has developed from the combination of two once distinct pedagogical strands in language teaching. Virtual exchange is defined as "the engagement of groups of learners in extended periods of online intercultural interaction and collaboration with partners from other cultural contexts or geographical locations as an integrated part of their educational programmes and under the guidance of educators and/or expert facilitators" (O’Dowd, 2018, p. 5). The idea of connecting students with learning opportunities through interpersonal interaction across distance and cultures marries practices in distance learning with research and practices that advocate conversation for second language acquisition. Figure 2 summarizes the convergence of the two distinct evolutionary processes in today's virtual exchange pedagogy.

![Figure 2. Schematic diagram depicting the convergence of practices in distance learning and collaborative learning pedagogy](image)

Considerable successes have been reported from research on pedagogy connecting language learners in collaborative projects and discussions (Furstenberg, et al., 2001). Even greater potential can be envisaged for developing learners’ intercultural competence (Byram, 1997). However, research also uncovers miscommunications and disappointing communication breakdowns among peers who would ideally be offering each other opportunities for language practice and a window into another culture (Kramsch, & Thorne, 2002). O’Dowd and Ritter (2006) have outlined the factors that can affect the success of virtual exchanges, not the least of which is the topical content of the discussion. What topics are well suited to productive, collaborative knowledge building and the language of constructive negotiation in international teams, and how are they best sequenced to help students learn? Recalibration of content-related strategies requires a means for explaining how different types of content are negotiated in collaboration.

4. Multimedia Narrative

Some of the earliest work in CALL created multimedia software to provide students with opportunities to see, hear, and interact with the stories and places of people who speak the target language. In retrospect, these materials from the 1980s held the potential for bridging the divide between the beginning-level language courses and the upper-level literature courses that is illustrated on the left side of Figure 3. In foreign language teaching in the United States, many recognize the need to transform the curriculum from past practices to a more coherent progression from beginning to advanced levels, as illustrated on the right side, through careful selection of content and language across all four years (Byrnes, Maxim, & Norris, 2010; Paesani & Allen, 2012). Questions remain about how to best do so, but multimedia narrative CALL materials should play a significant role in engaging students’ knowledge and interest in the target language and culture at the beginning level to lay a foundation for their understanding of current events and perspectives of speakers of the language. In other words, the essential content for the beginning level is not limited to superficial practices included in tourist guides, but should be selected with a view of the goals of language and culture learning (Risiger, 2007; 2018).
Figure 3. Schematic diagram showing the needed transformation from a language-literature split to a language and content curriculum

Building language competence through content poses unique challenges at the beginning level, where textbooks have used content fragments to illustrate elements of language (e.g., Chapelle, 2016). The use of multimedia to support beginning learners provides rich affordances for demonstrating functional language use with visual contextual information conveying cultural content (Malinowski, 2015). An example of such a series for first year French is Liaisons: An Introduction to French (Wong, Weber-Fève, & VanPatten, 2016), which presents a mystery spanning Québec and France with characters that engender sympathy and interest, while providing focused language practice. Research on use of this and other sophisticated multimedia products promises increased understanding of how beginners can benefit from working with multimedia narrative to learn both language and content. Recalibration of content strategies is needed to address questions about the key facts and issues of cultural narrative that provide an essential foundation for developing the intercultural competence students will need as they progress to virtual exchanges and beyond.

4. Conclusion

Language is used to express meaningful content, but the professions' response to this fact so far has not proven to be adequate to meet today's opportunities and needs. In the past the content-language connection was isolated by creating distinct pedagogies for content-based language teaching or attempting to circumvent content by including superficial presentations of a range of topics in textbooks for the general curriculum. Today, all teachers and students have access to a wide range of content that is augmented and updated in real time. In an environment where teachers and students can select the content they find interesting and important, teachers and material developers need new strategies to teach the language that students need to engage with dynamic and interesting content. Current practices in technology-mediated language learning, both in formal instruction and in the wild, have amplified and expanded the challenge that Murray and Christianson (2012) identified for English language teachers. Research on technology-mediated language learning is needed to recalibrate content-related strategies for all language professionals.

5. Acknowledgements

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6. References


Can’t say you didn’t know – obliging students to be informed about plagiarism

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Abstract

Plagiarism is a serious academic infraction that bears heavy consequences for university students globally, and it is essential for students to be properly informed about what constitutes plagiarism. Within this context, the needs of second language learners should be addressed. To do so, the existing university LMS was used in the implementation of a plagiarism awareness resource called Can’t Say You Didn’t Know, targeting university students enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL) courses in a French-speaking university. The ADDIE instructional design model was used to address the needs of students at varying proficiency levels and to ensure uniformity of instruction, mandatory participation and ease of use for teachers. This information needed to reach all students, and to verify that they understood this information, a mandatory quiz using Moodle was created. A corrective discussion for each question was also included. All students were required to complete the quiz at the start of their English language classes, and students could not access any course content until they had completed the quiz. The evaluation phase revealed drastically reduced rates of plagiarism that were sustained over time when compared with previous sessions, which relied on teacher instruction or university resources. The authors conclude that the use of an integrated online quiz can constitute a simple and successful means of raising awareness about plagiarism prevention within an academic program and can lead to new directions in offering adequate support to university language students.

Keywords: academic integrity; plagiarism; Moodle; university; writing; LMS

1. Introduction

The Université du Québec à Montréal (UQAM)’s Règlement 18 defines plagiarism as using someone else’s words or ideas, entirely or in part, and presenting them as your own without indicating a reference.

In the past decade, plagiarism at universities has become an issue of growing concern. In the United Kingdom, 40,000 cases of plagiarism were reported over four years (Adams, 2015). Looking at issues of integrity at Canadian universities, out of 7,000 academic infractions in the 2010-11 academic year, 50% were related to plagiarism, and 22% involved inappropriate collaboration (Moore, 2014). In 2015, UQAM explored academic infractions at the institution and observed that international students represented 30% of the student body but accounted for 73% of academic infractions (Ouimet, 2015). Several reasons for higher rates of reported academic infractions among international students were suggested, including higher stakes, unfamiliar evaluation criteria, and different learning styles. An additional factor is patch-writing, as suggested by Introna & Hayes (2004), who explored the possibility that plagiarism among second language students is not more prevalent, but simply more easily detected stylistically.
At an institutional level, UQAM informs students about the repercussions of plagiarising, and all teachers are required to include the university policy on plagiarism in their course outlines. Students have access to a plagiarism resource developed by the library for undergraduate students across disciplines. Finally, all instances of plagiarism are dealt with by an unbiased committee to encourage reporting and avoid conflict with students.

At a pedagogical level, ESL teachers at UQAM have been largely responsible for instructing students about plagiarism using a variety of strategies, including promoting personal voice, providing practice integrating and citing sources (Lund, 2004), and informing students about what constitutes plagiarism (Bluestein, 2018; Lund, 2004; McGovern, Pulford & Siddique, 2016). Also, the aforementioned university library resource was translated into English and was available to ESL students and teachers through the university’s Learning Management System (LMS), Moodle.

Despite these practices, rates of reported plagiarism remained disproportionately high in ESL courses over several semesters. It was essential to explore how these resources were not meeting the needs of students and how students could be better informed. The university library quiz, for example, was aimed at advanced writing students and did not address specific needs of ESL students.

2. Method

2.1. Student Population

The student population in ESL courses at UQAM consists of both French first language (L1) speakers (53%) and speakers of other languages (47%). These certificate and undergraduate students are enrolled in credited university courses and are taking English courses ranging from low intermediate to advanced levels.

2.2 ADDIE Instructional Design

The methodology for this project was based on the five stages of the ADDIE instructional design model (Branch, 2010). First, an analysis of the students’ needs revealed a lack of accessible information, and teachers’ concerns focused on the need for preventative rather than punitive measures. Issues regarding ease of implementation and use, accessibility, and maintenance were also important for teachers.

Work by McGovern, Pulford, Siddique (2016), which addressed the specific needs of ESL students, was used as a starting point in the design of the Can’t Say You Didn’t Know quiz. After consulting with teachers, the final quiz included questions covering citing sources, paraphrasing, getting help, self-plagiarism, using online tools, such as Google Translate, and understanding university regulations. To reinforce learning, explanations were inserted after each question regardless of student responses.

The LMS, Moodle 3.0.9, was used to deliver the plagiarism resource due to its familiarity among students and teachers, and technical support could be relied upon at all stages of development and implementation. Moreover, Moodle enables teachers to share a quiz among different users. A simplified procedure was created allowing teachers to easily import the obligatory quiz into all courses and set parameters to restrict access to all course content until students passed the quiz. Students may retake the quiz as many times as needed. The implementation took place in the winter 2017 semester.

3. Discussion

From 2009 to 2010 teachers were largely responsible for informing students about plagiarism. In that academic year alone, there were 20 reported cases of plagiarism from ESL students. In 2010 the university’s library quiz informing students about plagiarism and presenting information about how to properly cite sources was translated into English and included as an optional resource for all students and teachers. It was predominantly used in the writing courses for the following four academic years. Also, starting in 2011, teachers were required to include the university plagiarism policy (Règlement 18) in all course outlines. There was a decrease in the number of reported cases of plagiarism, but considerable
fluctuation remained. Finally, from the winter session of 2017 until the fall session of 2018, with the Can’t Say You Didn’t Know quiz in the LMS, zero cases of plagiarism were reported over five academic sessions. Table 1 shows the reduction in reported cases of plagiarism in ESL courses since implementing the Can’t Say You Didn’t Know quiz.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No Uniform Strategy in Place</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>20</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Optional Library Quiz</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010 – 2011</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012 - 2013</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014 - 2015</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>5</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Can’t Say You Didn’t Know quiz</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2017-2018</td>
<td>0</td>
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</table>

Table 1. Number of Reported Cases of Plagiarism in ESL Classes at UQAM

4. Conclusions

The use of an online resource to raise awareness and prevent plagiarism is a simple and successful means to address the specific needs of second language learners. The quiz has been implemented in other university courses, not specifically for second language students, which suggests that the simplicity of the quiz has applications beyond second language programs and ensures student commitment to academic integrity.

5. Acknowledgements

This project was supported through funding from UQAM’s Faculty of Communications (Fonds d’aide aux initiatives académiques).

6. References


Abstract

This study reports on the necessity to develop an online English learning platform for various undergraduate programs at Universidad de Atacama (UDA). The research team at UDA English Center (UEC) proposed to create a virtual learning environment to provide flexibility to students, as well as to innovate in English teaching at the university. The platform includes three main components: 1) B-learning English in a module-based design to provide students with access to synchronous and asynchronous learning environments. 2) Assessment for learning. 3) Fostering learners’ autonomy, in line with the requirements developed through the online platform proposal. Theoretical and questionnaire data were analyzed to create the design proposal for the online platform. Results from the questionnaire showed it is feasible to implement this teaching approach at UDA English Center (UEC).

Keywords: Online English learning platform; B-learning; module-based design; synchronous and asynchronous learning environments; competency-based assessment; learner autonomy.

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1. Introduction

UDA English Center (UEC) was created to teach English as a cross-curricular subject to students from several undergraduate programs, which poses several challenges. In face of this, teachers at UEC identified an opportunity to innovate in English teaching. No study to date at UDA has examined the following inquiries: How to develop English communicative competence in students from diverse study programs? How can students achieve better results when learning English? How could UEC provide more flexibility and reduce students’ sitting time? The solution proposed is to design and implement a virtual learning environment (VLE). The main research objective is to create a design for a b-learning platform, contextualized on the needs of the students, and facilitate English teaching and learning by making use of technology. This research is descriptive and was informed by two sources of data: 1) theoretical data taken from studies carried out in similar contexts and 2) a questionnaire that a sample of students answered. The results supported blended learning use in terms access to required technology and were also used to propose a design for the VLE.
2. Method

An anonymous online questionnaire was answered by a sample of students. This instrument was designed to learn about the participants’: 1) level of access to technology, 2) preferences on face-to-face and online English learning activities, 4) previous experience with blended learning courses, 5) previous English learning experience, 6) degree of motivation for learning English and 7) study habits to infer degree of learner autonomy. All participants in the study were students enrolled at UEC who were attending classes regularly. A sample of 231 students was selected, out of a total population of 570 students. Sample size was calculated considering confidence level at 95% and a margin of error of 5%.

3. Discussion

Questionnaire analysis shows that most students have access to devices with internet connection at home and at the university, as shown in Tables 1 and 2. This shows that implementing a b-learning model at UEC is feasible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Access to computer with internet connection at home</th>
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<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Table 2: Access to computer with internet connection at university</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</table>

A majority of students (70,6%) answered that they are not familiarized with blended courses. This could pose a challenge for UEC staff, as constant monitoring will be needed to ensure student compliance. Another potential challenge that was identified is that most students (63,2%) claimed that they do not study English regularly outside the classroom, which suggests that a significant amount of the population are not autonomous learners. Taking widely accepted views on learner autonomy into consideration (Benson, 2006; Little, 2001), students with a low degree of autonomy might find themselves lacking the necessary discipline to comply with the required assignments.

Only a small percentage of respondents (8,2%) claim to have previous experience with blended courses at UDA. Out of that group, 36,8% of participants evaluated that experience as Useful, while 42,1% regarded it as Very useful.

Regarding the participants’ perception of most significant face-to-face learning activities, these results suggest that face-to-face classes should have a focus on oral production. While the second preference was for grammar and vocabulary drills, these could be used as complementary activities during face-to-face tutoring sessions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Perception of most significant face-to-face learning activities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided speaking activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar and vocabulary drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening comprehension activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading comprehension activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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As for online activities, participants showed a clear preference for language learning games. Other preferred activities were exercises in language learning apps such as Duolingo and Busuu!, interactive listening activities and tutorial videos. All these activities are considered in the design proposal.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: Perception of most significant online learning activities</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Responses</strong></td>
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<td>----------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language learning games</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language learning app activities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interactive grammar drills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactive listening activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial videos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partaking in online discussions on forums and blogs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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</table>

Design for the blended learning course was based on the idea of a ‘flipped classroom’ described by Gruba, Hinkelman, & Cárdenas-Claros (2016). A blend of 50% face-to-face and 50% online work was deemed most appropriate. Students are expected to complete online lessons prior to attending face-to-face classes.

Students will complete weekly online lessons which are divided in three sections: Explore, Train yourself and Assess. Explore serves as an introduction to content by providing students with pictures or videos. In Train Yourself students will interact with content through grammar, listening comprehension and reading comprehension activities. In the final section, Assess, students’ progress will be evaluated through individual or collaborative assignments.

Self-assessment is an important component of online work. After students finish each lesson, they will complete a self-assessment chart and are encouraged to write a short reflection on what they have learned. This is meant to foster learner autonomy, though it may not have an impact on English proficiency (Gholami, 2016; Najeeb, 2013).

4. Conclusions

Add conclusions to paper here. This section should include (1) answers to the research questions asked, (2) the main trends and generalisations inferred from the investigation, (3) any limitations to the study or future developments to it if applicable, (4) implications of the work in the wider CALL context.

5. References


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CALLing all the CALLers Worldwide

Concepción, 13-16 November 2018

E-portfolios scaffold English language teacher development in Chile

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Abstract

University students preparing to teach English as a foreign language (EFL) must demonstrate both language proficiency and pedagogical content knowledge. In one Chilean university, teacher educators developed a program-wide electronic portfolio (e-portfolio) documenting student teachers’ pedagogical and linguistic development across their university study. The students, all L1 Spanish speakers, upload artifacts demonstrating achievement of national standards, write reflections in their L2, English, and participate in critical thinking development activities to improve their critical thinking skills. Along with ongoing feedback from peers and formative evaluation from professors, students receive process scaffolding and technical help from a dedicated language instructor assigned to an e-portfolio program resource room. In this Research & Development paper, we describe the e-portfolio platform development as an assessment tool and focus on its uses as an English language learning tool.

Keywords: e-portfolio; EFL teacher education; language teacher assessment

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1. Introduction

University students preparing to teach English as a foreign language (EFL) in Chilean schools must demonstrate not only language proficiency, but also pedagogical content knowledge in order to receive their teaching licenses. In one Chilean university, teacher educators developed a program-wide electronic portfolio (e-portfolio) documenting student teachers’ pedagogical and linguistic development across their five years of study. The students, all L1 Spanish speakers, upload artifacts demonstrating achievement of national standards and write reflections in their L2, English. Initiated in March 2016, the e-portfolio documents language and content learning across the undergraduate degree program.

¹ Corresponding author contact information email: katterine.pavez@uda.cl telephone +56-52-2255584
2. Method

2.1 Context

This project was developed at the Universidad de Atacama (UDA), a public comprehensive university located in Copiapó, Chile. UDA’s English pedagogy career annually accepts 25-35 freshmen. National teacher preparation expectations require graduates to demonstrate CEFR C1 level English proficiency and to pass a national teacher licensure exam by the end of year four. Entering students generally have A1 or A2 level proficiency and take English language courses throughout their studies.

2.2 E-portfolio development process

Responding to calls from the national Ministry of Education to track new teachers’ progress toward disciplinary standards (Avalos, 2014), teachers from all education majors collaborated to develop a program-wide e-portfolio platform. Initial funding was obtained from both the University of Atacama and the Chilean Ministry of Education in 2015. This initiative originated because many graduating students failed the reflection part of a teaching evaluation. The project aimed to improve such weakness.

The development committee considered existing open source platforms, but none fulfilled expectations. A programmer was therefore hired to design a customized platform. This platform uses PHP as programming language with a complementary Laravel open source framework. Sublime Text is used for generating and/or editing codes. HTML and CSS control the presentation format.

Designed in consultation with professors, the platform includes and organizes relevant information, such as attendance, rubrics, and indication of required work uploads. The user-friendly interface allows instructors to monitor student activity and students to be informed about Ministry of Education standards and indicators they should fulfil during initial teaching formation. Rubrics evaluate student text production and reflection.

Students upload artifacts from their teaching (video, lesson plans, etc.) and write reflections on artifacts and separate reflective essays (e.g., teaching philosophy statements) in English. Along with ongoing feedback from peers and formative evaluation from professors, students receive process scaffolding and technical help from a dedicated language instructor assigned to an e-portfolio program resource room.

2.3 Data Analysis

In 2016 and 2017 academic years, the program pilot tested the e-portfolio. First-year students took a one-semester course where they were introduced to the platform and uploaded a reflection titled “Philosophy of Teaching/Translating.” The program coordinators interviewed some students about their experiences. Results of the interviews and preliminary discussions of the e-portfolio process are discussed in Gilliland, Pavez Bravo, and Muñoz Galleguillos (2018).

For the 2018 academic year, in response to changes in the university and faculty curricular requirements, program coordinators revised the e-portfolio process and content expectations. In addition to uploading artifacts in designated courses throughout the program, students upload reflections during their first, third, and final years of the program. The first-year reflection topic was changed to “My Language Learning Experience,” and the e-portfolio course curriculum revised to teach critical thinking skills that contribute to reflective practices. Following the course, students were surveyed about their experiences using the platform. Open-ended items were coded for common themes.

3. Discussion

3.1 Changes to Program Design

Since the program’s inception, the e-portfolio assignment sequence has been revised. The new approach scaffolds reflection writing, making it a gradual process implemented at different points in teachers’ formation. First-year students consider teaching from the perspective of learners in high school. Second and third year students then compare and contrast their experiences of high school and university teaching.
Finally, during the practicum, students write their own teaching philosophy, including their conception of teaching and learning, a description of how they teach, and justification for such teaching.

3.2 Survey Results

Program coordinators surveyed first-year students following the e-portfolio course. Results for the first semester of 2018 showed that 80% of the students felt the critical thinking activities helped them learn and pushed them to think in English. They felt that their linguistic accuracy and vocabulary had improved. Students felt unanimously that the course helped them reflect on their English learning in previous educational experiences. They further noted positive washback from peer review activities on their revisions. Several commented that they saw their future teaching as service to the community and not just a job. Overall, students acknowledged the e-portfolio as a tool for reflection on circumstances leading them to this program of study, and a commitment to not making the same mistakes as their own secondary school teachers.

![Figure 1. Responses to open-ended survey question, “What is critical thinking to you?”](image1.png)

![Figure 2. Responses to open-ended survey question, “What do you think about your development of competency #5 [capacity to become lifelong learners]?”](image2.png)
4. **Conclusions**

The e-portfolio development represents an ongoing process. The one-semester class was redesigned to overcome weaknesses noted in students’ writing and critical thinking during the first two years of implementation. Having students writing in English assures continuous writing practice. Thus far, professors at UDA have been satisfied with the in-house platform design. Unlike an externally developed platform, having on staff the platform programmers and a dedicated computer lab monitor means that professors can raise technical questions at any point. University administration has committed to financially supporting the e-portfolio programmer and lab monitor, so the platform can continue to be revised as needed. Future longitudinal research will track students’ work from 2017 through graduation to document progress with critical thinking skills, language development, and reflection.

5. **Acknowledgements**

The UDA e-portfolio development was funded by grant ATA1402 from the Ministry of Education, Chile, and Universidad de Atacama, with KP and AM as project coordinators. BG’s participation in the project was funded by a Fulbright Scholar grant through the Fulbright Commission Chile.

6. **References**


Perception and attitude towards locally developed educational English video clips: a case study of a university in the IX region of Chile

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Temuco and Chile

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Temuco and Chile

Abstract

Adopting online supplementary material such as English educational video clips on Youtube for language teaching plays an important role in facilitating learning in EFL classroom. Scholars have tested its effectiveness on different parameters of language learning outcome. For example, its positive impact on learners’ motivation and language skills has been established. However, researchers have not treated the effect of locally developed English educational video clips that expressed local culture on learners’ language achievement. Based on these evidences, Co-ordinacion de idiomas of the Universidad de la Frontera in Chile decided to create local English teaching video clips and integrate them into its English course program in 2014. The objective is to enhance students’ motivation and language skills which had been at the lower side. The purpose of this paper is to measure learners’ perception of the locally developed video clips on their motivation, language skills and investigate their view on the nature of its cultural content. Qualitative and quantitative research designs were adopted to provide results that have a broader perspective. The result revealed that the locally made video clips did not only enhance learners’ motivation and language skills but aided the students to contextualize English in Chilean local context. Implications of the results and future research directions were also presented.

Keywords: Perception; Motivation; Video; Education; Culture; English; EFL.

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1. Introduction

The integration of videos into second language (L2) teaching content cannot be over emphasized. A large and growing body of literature has investigated the positive impact of video usage on English learning in the classroom (Abdulrahman Almurashi, 2016; Duffy, 2008). According to Moreno & Mayer, (1999), video is an effective tool that can be used to teach difficult concept and also to enhance students’ attention in the classroom. Other than being an educational technology useful for independent language learning (Hafner & Miller, 2011), incorporation of video into lesson plans is capable of increasing students involvement and participation in classroom (Balciği, 2009). The author argues that video is a pedagogical tool capable of fostering students’ interest in the target language which in turn reduce the stress that students face in the course of learning. This view is supported by Bravo, Amante, Simo, Enache, & Fernandez, (2011). They state that English teaching video clip is critical for L2 learners’ motivation. This is confirmed in another
study conducted among Taiwanese English learners (Kelsen, 2009), the study showed that students were more motivated to use Youtube videos for learning in the classroom than outside of their classroom.

Studies on how video influences learners’ language skills have been investigated over the years. Regarding writing, Mayora, (2009) claims that Youtube videos enhance students writing skill. With respect to Speaking, there is a consensus among researchers on the positive effect of Youtube video clips on students speaking abilities (Riswandi, 2016; Watkins & Wilkins, 2011). On the other hand, the advantage of video in applied listening skills has been reported. It is believe that it provides real situations intonation and real pronunciation which allows students to be exposed to a real context (Vanduzer, 1998). Finally, available work on reading skills has established the positive role of subtitle videos in reading comprehension (D’ydewalle, Praet, Verfaillie, & Van Rensbergen, 1991). All these studies presented thus far provide evidences that Youtube videos facilitate language skills learning.

The nature of cultural element in a teaching material can also play a major role in the facilitation of a L2 learning. A study has shown that English textbooks do not represent sufficiently students’ thought, ethos, value, beliefs and background (Fernando & Rodríguez, 2015). This will not only demotivate the students to learn the target language but also impede understanding of the content. This imply that locally developed English video clips that expresses local culture is critical for successful integration of video in EFL classroom. However, the making of Chilean English educational video clips by Chileans English teachers and students has not been successful over the years. This is due to several factors such as lack of technical manpower and other form of supports. As a result of this, there are limited studies on the development of authentic learning materials such as practical educational English video clips. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to measure learners’ perception of the locally developed English educational video clips and its impact on their motivation, language skills. As well as investigating their view on the nature of the video cultural content. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this investigation. This is the first study to undertake a longitudinal study on the impact of locally developed English video clips on students learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

2. Method

The current research involved a structured survey administered to 186 subjects who enrolled in either Basic, Pre-intermediate or Intermediate English course organized by Co-ordinacion de Idiomas in Universidad de La Frontera, Chile. Each level of English course consists of over 20 instructive English educational video clips. All the videos were casted by Chilean Teachers of English. This survey was administered towards the end of the course program so that the students would have been familiar with the videos. The administered questionnaire was designed in two parts. The first part dealt with demographic which required students to answer questions such as gender, age, years of studying in English as a foreign language while the second part entails Likert scale and an open ended questions, investigating students’ perception of the videos. The questionnaire was translated to Spanish language for the better understanding of the students. The students were informed that their participation was voluntary and their responses to the questionnaires would remain confidential. No time limit was imposed. The quantitative data findings of the results were analysed using Microsoft Excel and other relevant Statistical tool.

3. Discussion

It is interesting to note that all parameters investigated in this study have a strong positive effect on the outcomes. As shown in Figure 1, it is apparent that majority of respondents consider CODI videos to be highly motivating, more interesting than looking at PowerPoint presentations, relevant to the content of the course. In addition, the videos were perceived to promote Chilean culture and increased students’ participation in classroom.
Furthermore, Figure 2 presents an overview of the effect of CODI videos on learners’ language skills. Overall, readings, speaking, listening, writing and pronunciation are highly enhanced by the videos.

Impact of CODI Videos on Language skill

These results are consistent with those of other studies and suggest that video is an effective teaching tool in every foreign language classroom (Bravo et al., 2011; Duffy, 2008). However, unlike foreign English video clips, the findings of the current study revealed the capability of locally developed video in helping students to learn English through their local culture. Majority of the respondents claimed that the videos give them a sense of identity in English language because it expresses value and ethos of Chilean culture. This finding corroborates the ideas of Fernando & Rodriguez, (2015) who promoted inclusion local cultural content in all authentic materials for foreign language learning. It can thus be argued that locally developed
English video educational will not only enhance motivation and language skills but it will also help foreign learners in creating personal identity in English language.

4. Conclusions

The purpose of the current study was to determine the effect of locally developed English educational video clips on university students in EFL context. The relevance of video as an effective multimedia technology for teaching in language classroom is clearly supported by the current findings. The second major finding was that the videos helps in learning English through Chilean culture. This helps Chileans learners in connecting with their local culture through English. This work contributes to existing knowledge in the area of impact assessment of video on language learning by providing the advantage that locally developed English educational video clips have over foreign videos.

5. References


Data visualization for corpus linguistics software: enhancing learners’ experience

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Abstract

The use of corpus linguistics (CL) in language learning and teaching is now well-established and is said to be one of the most prominent applications of CL. In this field, CL methods are mainly used as a learning tool and as a reference source. A common practice when CL is a learning tool is the use of hands-on activities, in which learners work directly with authentic data. CL has been used as a reference to inform material production and to describe learners’ language. However, there is still resistance to CL from learners and teachers. Studies have reported that learners have difficulties in understanding the tools functioning and interpreting the results. Presenting data through visual aids can facilitate information insight and enhance the user experience. The main aim with this work is to improve the experience of learners and teachers with CL software, through the development of a new data visualization. The method consisted of (a) identifying the target audience and understanding their needs; (b) developing and implementing the visualization. User needs were assessed via (a) literature investigation into papers reporting corpus-based methods and (b) a contextual design approach, allowing observation of how users interact with CL software in their own environment. These observations were then used as a starting point for the development of a new visualization to better handle corpus metadata. Key issues for a successful data visualization, such as functionality, aesthetics and accuracy were considered. The new functionality was implemented in CQPweb, an open-source program for CL.

Keywords: corpus linguistics software; user experience; data visualization; word distribution

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1. Introduction

The use of Corpus Linguistics (CL) in the field of language teaching and learning (LTL) has been steadily growing since the Tim Johns’ work on data-driven learning (Johns, 1986; 1991; 1994). In this approach, learners of a second language deal with corpus data themselves, performing analysis to become proficient in the target language. By doing this, learners become “more active participants in the learning process” (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001, p.43) as they can be in charge of their own investigations and learn in an autonomous way (Bernardini, 2002). Corpora can also be employed indirectly in the LTL context. For example, to design materials and to describe the linguistic characteristics of different learner groups (Granger, 2002). Yet, there is still resistance from the users (Tribble, 2015). The aim of this work is to enhance users’ experience by improving CL software.
2. Method

Developing new tools is about knowing which similar systems are used; why they are used; and how they are used to accomplish the users’ goal. In CL this has been done with survey with users (Tribble, 2015) and with state-of-the-art surveys (Wiechmann & Fuhs, 2006; Boulton, 2012). Although the aforementioned studies do provide some useful information, they only address a few systems that were developed about twenty years ago and do not allow us to identify precisely what the most used tools are at present. One way of listening to a wider public is to investigate how scholars report their corpus-based research. Another way is to observe how they use these tools in their own environment.

2.1. Literature Investigation

To have a better view of which and how CL software is used, a corpus of academic articles relying on corpus-based techniques was created. The articles for the investigation were retrieved from three academic databases: the Arts & Humanities Database, Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts, and Project Muse Journals. They were chosen due to their constant update; high-impact publications; and wide range of research subjects. The more than 5,000 articles collected were formatted into XML, each containing the text identifier; the article name; the journal name; the publication subjects; the country of publication; the year the article was published; and the database from where it was retrieved. Because of the substantial size of this dataset, CL methods were used to analyse it. The data was analysed using a text analysis package in R, Quanteda (Benoit, 2018). This script-based tool was chosen to make the procedures as reproducible as possible, as it might be useful to repeat the analysis at a further date.

2.2. User needs and Software development

Usually CL tools are developed by single researchers without a support team (e.g. Anthony, 2018). As software development is time consuming and these creators are only part-time developers, there are usually little or no room to consider user-experience. Hence, these projects tend to be idiosyncratic and mainly reflect the creator’s main goals or preferences. The method adopted here is composed of a blend of different approaches to user-experience and human-computer interaction. In these approaches, users’ attitudes and reaction towards the product, such as satisfaction and learnability, are considered. To better understand the target audience and to identify their main needs, three steps were designed to better suit the different stages of the research.

2.2.1 Contextual Inquiry

Contextual inquiry includes observations and interviews in the user real context with the aim of gathering details and rationale of the user practices (Hartson & Pyla, 2012). The intent was to keep the interview the least invasive as possible and there were not predefined questions so as to avoid bias. Participants were required to perform a task in their preferred CL tool and say aloud why and how they were doing it. The audios and computer screens were recorded.

2.2.2 Contextual Analysis

To derive meaning from the observations, the recordings were analysed. Elements that revealed the need to improve or create a feature were selected and transformed into a requirement statement (RS) (Figure 1). The RS is a self-standing and concise sentence, stating a concept, a fact, a rationale or an idea. All the RSs were grouped in an affinity diagram (AD).

2.2.3 Design-informing models

As it is not possible to cover all the requirements and needs, the use of personas was adopted. This technique consists in creating a few ‘selected personas’ and one ‘primary persona’ with features that are representative of the target audience. Using this procedure is mainly useful in avoiding the desire of covering all users interests but also the risk of making users unhappy (Cooper, 2004). The intent is not to gather an accurate description of all the interviewed and observed participants, but to depict a user that is representative of the target audience.
3. Discussion

Different needs emerged from the investigations aforementioned. The most recurrent ones were preference for tools that are free; able to handle annotation; customizable; accurate and reliable; user-friendly; capable of sharing corpora online; and integrated with data visualization. Considering those points, I chose to address implement and enhance an existing piece of software, CQPweb (Hardie, 2012), that meets all but the last one of the requirements above.

Figure 1: Requirement Statement format

Figure 2: Screenshot of distribution visualization tool
A first visualization has been developed to help users grasp the meaning of distribution and consider its implications to the word frequency. Distribution concerns to which degree a word is spread throughout a corpus, meaning if it is evenly found in a corpus or if it shows preference to specific text(s) (Gries, 2008). The visualization of factors such as size of each text and times the word occurs in each text, also allowing for comparison among them, were made easily achievable through a few clicks (Figure 2).

4. Conclusions

The first version of the tool was implemented and is available for trials and user assessment. Adjustments to the tool will be made to better suit users’ needs. From preliminary analysis, I observed that interface design plays an extremely important role in the learners’ experience. Although this is not the main focus of the development, this aspect will be considered for future versions. With this new implementation and the new ones that are to follow it, I expect that CL will be more present in LTL, bringing more authentic materials to classrooms and autonomy to students.

5. References


The use of soramimi for native-like English pronunciation in Japanese students

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Abstract

This paper will report the results and discussions on a study of soramimi, a mishearing phenomenon from one language to another, towards the development of a method for teaching native-like English pronunciation skills for the Japanese English learners. The study was conducted using 160 pairs of words and phrases phonetically interchangeable between Japanese and English using a computer program developed by the researchers. The software works by comparing the phrases to the Levenshtein distance (LD) and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Results showed that the average Levenshtein distance between English phrases and soramimi phrases were 10 to 30 percent smaller than the ones between English phrases and "Katakana-English" phrases. This study further confirmed, from student's t-test and calculations of the average and variance, that soramimi phrases are more likely to be similar to native English pronunciation than the opposite. Finally, this paper will outline the procedure and results of a simple user study conducted with Japanese English learners and native English-speaking students under the cooperation of a study abroad agency in Vancouver.

Keywords: Soramimi; Music lyrics in English; English education; International Phonetic Alphabet

1. Introduction

Japanese study English language as a foreign language (EFL) from the 5th grade of elementary school (The Ministry of Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2008), in an attempt to acquire native like pronunciation. However, this is still one of the major difficulties for the Japanese English learners (JEL) due to the phonological gap (Ohata, 2004). In Japan, "Katakana-English" (Smith, 1997), the phonetic pronunciation used for English words that do not exist in the Japanese phonetic system. Katakana-English is problematic as a de facto method for teaching English pronunciation as the phonology and closeness to the original word are not considered. The researchers proposed that soramimi could be a technique to convert expressions in one language into different interpretations in a different language with phonetic interchangeability. The researchers believe that by using this technique, JEL will be able to understand how to enunciate English phrases from soramimi sounds in Japanese.
2. Method

2.1. IPA Comparison

To ascertain if soramimi or Katakana-English are phonetically closer to original English, IPA was chosen as a common alphabet to express phrases and the Levenshtein Distance (Levenshtein, 1966) as a method to calculate the phonetic difference between the phrases. The researchers randomly selected 160 Japanese-English pairs of words and phrases from 1000 music lyrics in English and their misheard Japanese expression as introduced in a Japanese TV program (Tamori Club, 1982). Katakana-English expressions were extracted from Japanese phrases in pairs by one of the researchers and converted into IPA along with phrases in English, and soramimi by using the Text-to-Speech service on IBM Watson for English and a contributed open-source software library (Long, 2016).

Additionally, English phrases with consonant reductions were prepared based on as a factor to be examined as most of Japanese sounds are composed of a vowel-consonant combination. The algorithm (shown in (Fig.1)) was designed by the researchers and used to reduce consonants. Cleansing of all output data of any special characters and alphabets retained to the conversion output to illustrate intonation or punctuation have done as well. Examples of the above are shown in (Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, Table 4).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English phrase</th>
<th>English phrase in IPA</th>
<th>Soramimi (Japanese phrase)</th>
<th>Soramimi phrase in IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It’s your life</td>
<td>ɪts.jə.laɪf</td>
<td>一張羅 (icchoura)</td>
<td>i_.tyʊ.u.la</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want some beats</td>
<td>.wɑnt.sam.bits</td>
<td>わさび (wasabi)</td>
<td>wa.sa.bi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shown by hand joke</td>
<td>.ɹɒn.bɑɹ.ɦænd.ʤɔk</td>
<td>商売繁盛 (shohbaihanjoh)</td>
<td>ʃ.ɻɪ.ʊ.ɭ.ɪ.ɦ.i.ɦ.ɭ.n.jʊ.ɭ.u</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Examples of IPA Transcription.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English phrase in IPA</th>
<th>Cleansed English IPA</th>
<th>Soramimi phrase in IPA</th>
<th>Cleansed Soramimi IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ɪts.jə.laɪf</td>
<td>ɪtsjəlaf</td>
<td>i_.tyʊ.u.la</td>
<td>ɪtyʊula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.wɑnt.sam.bits</td>
<td>wɑntsambits</td>
<td>wa.sa.bi</td>
<td>wasabi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.ɹɒn.bɑɹ.ɦænd.ʤɔk</td>
<td>ɹɒnbəzəndʤɔk</td>
<td>ʃ.ɻɪ.ʊ.ɭ.ɪ.ɦ.i.ɦ.ɭ.n.jʊ.ɭ.u</td>
<td>ʃɪʊbaɪənɲɪɲu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Examples of IPA data cleansing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English phrase</th>
<th>English IPA</th>
<th>Katakana-English phrase</th>
<th>Katakana-English IPA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wants to</td>
<td>wɑntstu</td>
<td>ワンツトゥ (wan-tsu-two)</td>
<td>wanntsutwu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curiosity</td>
<td>kjuɪəsɪri</td>
<td>キュリオシティ (kyu-ri-o-si-ti)</td>
<td>kyuɪɒθi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nine and</td>
<td>nainænd</td>
<td>ナインアンド (nain-ando)</td>
<td>n ainannd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Example of pairs of IPA data and its shortened sequence.

The LD, which is similar to the DP matching for measuring the closeness of two different sounds (Needleman, 1970), was adopted for the calculation of the closeness between two sound systems since each...
A data point was represented as a character string in IPA. The researchers examined the closeness of English/soramimi versus English/Katakana-English by calculating the average and variance of the LD calculation between pairs of <1>-<3>, <2>-<3>, <1>-<4> and <2>-<4>. A student's t-test was also conducted to confirm any significant differences between the two.

2.2. Student Study

To deliberate the possibility of soramimi use in classrooms, the researchers conducted a user study with JEL and native English-speaking students under collaboration with the Yokoso Japan Association in Vancouver, Canada. Subjects were required to take notes of what they heard and understood while their partner spoke some phrases. The JEL took notes on five phrases spoken by their native English-speaking teammates. The native English-speaking students in turn evaluated 15 soramimi phrases and 15 Katakana-English phrases spoken by their JEL in relation to English phrase fluency and took notes about what they understood. Prior to the study, the researchers prepared the reading materials in three different variations for both ESL students and English-speaking students. An Evaluation of the collected data was conducted by counting the number of lacking words and wrong words in each phrase and by checking the evaluation score the listeners marked. Example of the reading materials and working sheets are shown in (Figs. 2-6).

3. Discussion

3.1. IPA Comparison

The LD calculation results (Table 5) and (Table 6) demonstrate that the LD of a pair of English/soramimi phrases are about 10 percent smaller than English phrases/Katakana-English phrases. Additionally, a paired t-test conducted with the significance of 5 percent and 1 percent in accordance with Bonferroni correction suggested that soramimi are phonetically closer to original English than Katakana-English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair of data source</th>
<th>Levenshtein distance in average</th>
<th>Variance of the LD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English&lt;1&gt; - soramimi&lt;3&gt;</td>
<td>8.781</td>
<td>16.371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English&lt;1&gt; - Katakana-English&lt;4&gt;</td>
<td>9.244</td>
<td>21.497</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English with consonants reduction&lt;2&gt; - soramimi&lt;3&gt;</td>
<td>8.250</td>
<td>13.475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English with consonants reduction&lt;2&gt; - Katakana-English&lt;4&gt;</td>
<td>9.244</td>
<td>21.884</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The length of IPA expressions for Katakana-English phrases are comparatively longer, and the difference of IPA characters among similar sounds in different expressions could be a factor for improving the result. Adoption of another phrase dataset and a dictionary to merge the difference of similar phonetic alphabets should also be considered. Although CALL systems for pronunciation skills exist, a feedback system displaying waveform and graphs of the learner's spoken audio (Neri, 2003), or one that plays modeled sound (Forsythe, 2016), have been proposed, this project is differs since the researchers aiming to develop
means that the ESL learners can study fluent English pronunciation while keeping the phonetic features of
their mother tongue.

3.2. Student Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original phrase</th>
<th>“Inside your brain”</th>
<th>“Home grown”</th>
<th>“Heard about the party now just east o’ harlem”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Answer</td>
<td>Inside your brain</td>
<td>Homu grown</td>
<td>Heardo about the party now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 7: Examples of response from native English-speaking students.*

(Table 7) shows an example of a response from native English students, and (Fig.7, Fig.8) are part of the
result of totaling where each block in different color indicates that the same group of phrases was referred.
The former shows error counts of each response and the latter shows it in average by each phrase. The
response shows that speaking using soramimi is slightly easier to understand to native English speakers
compared to speaking in Katakana-English. Accuracy in short phrases, composed of 3 to 5 words, are
relatively higher than longer phrases of 10 or more words. One of the unique findings from this study is
the difference of listening errors. In Katakana-English, many listening errors arose from listener's
misunderstanding of sounds and missed words. Soramimi errors were caused by listener's confusion of the
phrases with homonyms or the wrong punctuation (see Table 8).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original phrase</th>
<th>Misheard phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“I look at”</td>
<td>“I will cut”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Home grown”</td>
<td>“Hong Kong”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 8: Examples of mishearing in response on soramimi-based spoken phrases.*

Additionally, the response from the Japanese ESL students tells us an interesting fact that many errors
arose from words with "l" or "r" sound, or words with no distinctive sound like "talk" or "talked". This
could be caused by the influence of Katakana-English or the difference between the two sounds system.
The researchers believe that teaching students’ English pronunciation with soramimi, which is possible to
tell delicate nuance of English sound that do not exist in Japanese. In spite of the resolution, soramimi may
have a possibility that makes pronunciation vulnerable like the case we confirmed in the user study for
native English speakers.

4. Conclusions

The large phonetic gap between English and Japanese can make learning native like English challenging.
Research results suggest it may possible to support fluent pronunciation and understanding of native sounds
using soramimi. The researcher’s investigation showed that using the Levenshtein distance to compare
soramimi-able pairs of phrases in the two languages and the IPA conversion, that soramimi is phonetically
superior than Katakana-English sounds. Using the findings, the researchers will begin designing a
computational method to generate soramimi phrases from an input phrase towards classroom teaching of
fluent English pronunciation to JEL.

5. Acknowledgements

This research project is partially conducted under support of the Kakenhi Grant-in-Aid for Young
Scientists(B) #16K21482. Also, the researchers appreciate the Yokoso Japan Association in Vancouver for
the user study conduct.
6. References


7. Appendix
図2: An example of reading material for native English-speaking students

図3: An example of work sheet for the JEL

図4: An example of soramimi reading material for the JEL
Figure 5: An example of Katakana-English reading material for the JEL

Figure 6: An example of working sheet for native English-speaking students

Figure 7: Example of error count on response from native English-speaking students (soramimi)

Figure 8: Example of error count in average on response from native English-speaking students (soramimi)
The development and use of database in the conventional classrooms of Spanish

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Abstract
There are various problems in Spanish language education carried out in large-size classrooms. To solve some of these problems, we developed some tools that can be easily used by teachers. As memorizing verb conjugation is one of the difficult goals for students, first, we developed a computer program to show conjugation tables and conjugated verb forms at random. This is a very simple program that can be used in a conventional classroom because not all foreign language teachers have sufficient ICT skills and many classrooms do not have state-of-the-art equipment. It uses a database saved in a Microsoft Excel file to which a teacher can add any verb and conjugations that he or she wants. So, a teacher can use this program as auxiliary material for a conventional textbook. Then, we developed some other tools, such as one that generates multiple-choice questions and one that shows bilingual sentence flashcards from database contents. Although these tools got favorable comments from teachers, they could not be used widely. Therefore, we investigated causes and tried to improve them. On the other hand, we developed another tool that reproduces natural interactions of the native speakers to the question sentences that appear commonly in textbooks published and used in Japan, because we felt the lack of opportunities for students to familiarize natural spoken Spanish.

Keywords: database, verb conjugation, simple user-friendly programs, auxiliary teaching materials

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1. Introduction
The purpose of this study is to develop auxiliary digital tools that can be used easily by most language teachers who don’t have special knowledge of ICT in a conventional classroom and can make grammar classes more active and attractive.

As we will see in the next section, in Japan most of the Spanish language teaching is carried out in large-size classrooms and many teachers adopt the grammar-translation method because of the lack of time. To make matters worse, many textbooks designed for such Spanish classes focus on grammar explanations and include some exercises related to the grammar topics. Therefore, students tend to be passive and learn the target language looking at textbooks almost always.

To prevent such classes from becoming boring, we felt the necessity of the tools that can help teachers in teaching language efficiently in large-size classrooms, can support traditional teaching method and use of textbooks and can attract students’ attention. We created some database tools in collaboration with some
other language teachers. The details of these tools and students’ comments will be shown and examined in the following sections.

2. Background

2.1. Spanish language teaching in Japan

Spanish is taught as one of the liberal arts subjects in many Japanese universities and it is also taught in a limited number of high schools as a second foreign language subject. Due to the universalization of the university education, more than 57% of the Japanese young people who have graduated from high school continue to study at university. As a result, many universities accept a large number of students. Therefore, the class size of the language classes has also increased and the qualities of students have diversified at the same time (Kakihara 2015).

2.2. Problems related to Spanish language teaching in conventional classrooms

In many Japanese universities Spanish is taught in conventional teacher-centered classrooms. And we face difficulties in activating students because almost all students, who are very shy, tend to keep silence in such a condition. To make matters worse, teachers cannot avoid the traditional grammar-translation method to some extent, because the linguistic differences are huge between Spanish and Japanese. Therefore, teachers have to explain grammatical structure and make students translate sentences and students also expect these things.

2.3. Why auxiliary tools? Why conventional classrooms?

As the elementary level Spanish language learners don’t have enough knowledge of Spanish language, they cannot practice by themselves using computer programs. That is why e-learning cannot substitute the classroom instruction. As for teachers, many Spanish teachers don’t have detailed knowledge of ICT. And traditional style classrooms where most of the Spanish language classes are held do not have state-of-the-art facilities. For these reasons, we came up with the idea of creating tools that can help teachers in teaching language efficiently in large-size classrooms, can make shy students pronounce in a loud voice, can support traditional teaching method and use of textbooks, can attract students’ attention, and can be used by any teacher without requiring any special knowledge of ICT.

3. Our tools

3.1. Outline of our tools

To achieve these goals, our team started to make database tools in collaboration with some other language teachers in 2012. Since then, we have developed the Conjugation Presentation tool, the Bilingual Sentence Flashcard Maker and the Creator of Multiple-choice Questions (Kamiya et al. 2013, Kakihara 2013). We use FileMaker to develop these tools. The database is saved in an Excel file so that any language teacher can manage the database.

3.2. Students’ comments

In 2013, we did a small questionnaire survey to know the impression of our students about the use of the Conjugation Presentation tool in our Spanish classes. The survey shows that 99% of the students answered that they could understand easily the verb conjugation using this tool. 66% thought that they could concentrate on the classroom activities using this tool. And all of the students gave an impression that this tool was effective.

3.3. Problems of our tools

However, these tools could not achieve success. In other words, they could not be used widely, although we did a hard promotion of these tools in many occasions. In order to find out why these tools were not accepted, we analyzed the problems of each tool.
From the Conjugation Presentation Tool, for example, we expected the following things: (1) Learners can practice conjugation a lot in a short time. (2) Students pay attention on screen. (3) Not only the assigned student but also all other students in the classroom are encouraged to work seriously. We could achieve success in having these expected effects, but this tool has some technical problems: (1) Some teachers wanted to separate the 3rd person usted from él and ella while others wanted to combine them. (2) It was difficult to show compound forms like pretérito perfecto or estar+gerundio, because of the lack of space.

From the Bilingual Sentence Flashcard Maker, we expected the following effects: (1) Once you input data, you can show sentences anytime. (2) You can show a sentence and its translation word by word so the students can understand the structure. Otherwise, this tool also had some serious problems: (1) Each time that you change textbooks, you have to input sentences in database. (2) You don’t have so many occasions to show the same sentences. Therefore, this tool could not reduce teachers’ task.

All of our tools have following problems in common. (1) With the passage of time, classroom equipment has changed. When we started this project, many classrooms had desktop computers. After that, as laptop computers become popular, many teachers bring their devices to the classroom. So, the advantage of our tools, easy to carry, has been lost. “You can take our tools in one Pen Drive Memory wherever you want.” was our tools’ advantage. (2) With the spread of tablets and smartphones, now most students have their own devices. So, some of our tools can be replaced by more attractive apps like Quizlet. (3) As we developed various tools, using them all takes time and effort and teachers came to avoid using them. (4) As the database grows, searching process becomes more complicated. To solve this problem, you need put different tags. And this further complicates database modification. In short, the most serious problem is that teachers cannot spend time for such things. So, we decided to improve our tools.

3.4. Improvements of our tools

From our experience, we can affirm that the Conjugation Presentation tool can make students concentrate on the classroom activities and it is the best tool for Japanese classroom settings. The first step we took to improve this tool was to make it compatible with the iOS, especially iPad, the most widely used device by teachers. Then, we improved the search function. For this purpose, we put some tags to each verb that can be used by more teachers. And to reduce time, we decided to make database with limited number of verbs. This decision conflicts with the merit of using a database, which teachers can change it freely. However, since most teachers did not add verbs, we thought that creating a tool that would not require teachers to change the database by themselves was also a good choice. And we limited the verbs to those that appear in one textbook. If we choose a textbook containing many basic verbs, this database will cover most of the verbs that appear in most beginner level textbooks. So far, this strategy goes well.

3.5. Development of a new tool

On the other hand, we began to develop a totally different type of tool. As we saw in the introduction, most students study in large-size classrooms and don’t have enough time to be exposed to natural spoken Spanish. Their textbooks contain some dialogues in order to handle some communicative activities. But these dialogues are based on grammar topics of each chapter. So, the interaction of the participants of the conversations that appear in textbooks tends to be unnatural. Therefore, we thought that the students needed to know the natural interactions of the native speakers. Then, we decided to develop a new tool that is based on dialogues of textbooks published in Japan but can reproduce natural interactions of the native speakers to the question sentences.
4. Conclusions

In order to introduce digital tools in conventional classrooms, after more than 5 years of experience, we came to following conclusions: (1) The number of tools should be reduced. (2) Tools must be simple and easy to handle because teachers don’t have enough time in a classroom. (3) The balance of grammar explanation and communicative activities is also important in the context of Japan.

Based on these conclusions, we decided to limit the tools and their contents. In the case of the Conjugation Presentation tool, we limited the verbs. And then, we decided to develop a brand-new tool that can reproduce natural interaction of the native speakers to complement the textbooks.

With all of these, we expect that we can realize well-balanced classes of grammar explanation and training and communicative activities in traditional style classrooms without requiring busy teachers so many new tasks.

5. Acknowledgements

This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI, Grant Number JP16K02905.

6. References

Details concerning the actual situation of foreign language teaching policy for elementary and secondary education can be found at the website of the Ministry of Education Culture, Sports Science and Technology-Japan: http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/kokusai/gaikokugo/index.htm.


Perspectives and trajectories of the language teacher in the 21st century

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Abstract

Founded in 2018, the AILA Research Network entitled Perspectives and Trajectories of the Language teacher in the 21st century (TPLang21) brings together 35 established language educators and researchers from 15 countries across five continents who work on information and communication technology (ICT) and (self-)empowering methods of continuing professional development (CPD). Through an online questionnaire shared with national and international networks for language teachers, trainers and administrators, we collected information about CPD programs, focusing on ICT and/or self-empowerment of language teachers, to compare approaches across institutions and countries, and explore beliefs about "ideal" teachers from an intercultural perspective. We investigate to what extent the digital revolution in communication technology has affected the notion of the ideal language teacher, perceptions of language training needs and actual models of language teacher training. This article reports the first results of this study, focusing on the professional background of respondents and on their satisfaction with the training received. The analysis shows that, overall, language teachers seem at least partly satisfied with the type of training received and the quality of the teacher trainers. However, other aspects of training, such as hands-on practice, do not meet language teachers’ demands.

Keywords: Language teacher education, Information and Communication Technology, Continuing professional development, Self-empowerment of teachers, Ideal teacher

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1. Introduction

In the last decade, demands on language teachers in terms of digital skills have risen in line with the growth of information and communication technology (ICT) and the educational benefits it promises – for ubiquitous learning, anyhow, anywhere, anytime (Andrews, Tynan & Stewart, 2011). Today’s students also tend to view technology as critical to their learning experiences (Brooks, 2016; Bullen & Morgan, 2015; OECD, 2012). Several training initiatives have been developed over the past years (see e.g. Cutrim Schmid, in press; Hampel & Stickler 2015) to support language teachers’ development of digital skills for the 21st century. Additionally, many countries and institutions offer awards for ‘model teachers’, and organisations often design their training around a notion of a “good” or “ideal” teacher. However, a key consideration is whether these models of excellence are genuinely keeping pace with the rapidly changing societal demands and expectations implicit in communication in the 21st century. Thus, the following questions arise:

- Do institutional models for continuing professional development (CPD) and teaching excellence reflect changing societal demands and expectations implicit in communication in the 21st century?
- To what extent has the digital revolution affected notions of the “ideal” language teacher, perceptions of language teacher training needs, and current models of language teacher training?
- How do needs, ideals, requirements and training provision for 21st century language teachers interlink?

Our AILA Research Network (ReN): ‘Perspectives and Trajectories of the Language teacher in the 21st century’ comprises language educators and researchers with long-standing expertise in the use of ICT for language teaching and learning and in (self-)empowering methods of CPD, and seeks to provide answers to these questions. The objectives of the network are informed by the questions above and are as follows:

1. To collect and evaluate information about CPD programmes, focusing on ICT and/or language teachers’ self-empowerment.
2. To compare approaches to CPD across institutions and countries.
3. To compare beliefs about teachers (“ideal teacher” images) from an intercultural perspective across different settings.

This short article only allows us to tackle objective 1. Ultimately, we aim to create a detailed picture of the landscape of language teacher training in terms of digital skills development, according to target culture, culture of origin, teaching and learning cultures, and the perception of the ideal language teacher within this context.

2. Method

2.1. Data collection

For the first phase of the study, a 32-item online questionnaire was designed and translated into six languages (English, French, German, Persian, Portuguese, and Spanish). This questionnaire was distributed across national and international networks for language teachers, trainers or administrators and shared on social media platforms.

The questionnaire is divided into four sections: personal information, pedagogical development for technology integration, perceptions of needs regarding teaching language education, and perceptions of the ideal teacher. The first two sections contain predominantly closed questions about the participants’ background, including information about teacher training received or provided. The last two sections contain open-ended questions on issues such as participants’ teacher training needs, notions of the ‘ideal’ language teacher, and existing models of training. Great care was taken to ensure respondents’ data privacy and that respondents’ data cannot be traced back to individuals.
2.2. Data analysis

Quantitative data was analyzed with the help of SPSS software. For the qualitative data, researchers employed NVivo, ensuring a coherence of coding by sharing the development of codes and categories amongst the principal researchers iteratively.

3. Findings and discussion

The online questionnaire, distributed in 2018, yielded 285 responses from 30 countries. 250 respondents are language teachers, 145 language trainers, 46 administrators, and 34 work in language educator-related professions. Since many participants have more than one professional role, the total number for all professional roles exceeds 285. The five countries most represented are Canada (28%), Argentina (17%), Brazil (15%), France (10%), and UK (8%). The main languages taught by respondents are English (55%), French (26%), Spanish (6%), and German (4%). Most participants teach in universities (35%) Others work in language institutes (14%) and secondary schools (13%).

Across all countries represented, first results show that national certificates offered by universities as face-to-face in-service training are the most common CPD program. As regards professional development including integration of technologies in language education, self-training and post-graduate training are the most representative types undertaken. Regarding respondents’ satisfaction with the ICT training received, overall responses and additional comments reveal that 53% of respondents are completely satisfied and 47% of respondents are dissatisfied or partially satisfied.

The qualitative analysis identified 3 main categories and 16 subcategories in the open-ended responses (based on 66 responses) to this question, with respondents commenting on three macro categories in terms of training: aspects of training, applicability/relevance, and institutional support/recognition.

Under ‘aspects of training’, participants mention their level of satisfaction with the following: form of delivery, content ‘currentness’, trainer, specificity to language teaching, theory and practice (balance, hands-on, practical/theoretical aspects: affordances for learning), duration/intensity/depth, empowerment, personalization, interaction opportunities, post-training follow up and community building. However, the results also show that even where respondents are mostly satisfied with the form of delivery, trainers and self-empowerment, their satisfaction is lower in other areas, such as currentness of content, balance between theory and practice (indicating a need for more hands-on practice), and duration, intensity, and depth.

We also see teaching professionals’ lack of satisfaction regarding post-training, applicability/relevance to their personal needs, access to technology, the curriculum, and institutional support/recognition.

4. Conclusions

The first objective of this REN is to discover whether institutional models for professional development (PD) and teaching excellence reflect changing societal demands and cultural perceptions implicit in communication in the 21st century. Initial results show that a gap exists between the real needs of language teachers and the training programs offered by institutions. Further analysis of the qualitative data will be achieved hoping to gain greater understanding of what is available, what is required, and what works. Furthermore, we will extend our research to investigate beliefs about teachers (“ideal teachers”) from an intercultural perspective and examine the links between needs, ideals, requirements and training provision for language teachers in today’s digital age.

5. Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank all members of the AILA Research Network and particularly those supporting us during our presentation at WorldCALL V in Concepcion.
6. References


Extending student presentations beyond the classroom with digital storytelling “Moxtra”

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Abstract

This paper explains how the author has used the mobile app and computer software Moxtra to enhance presentation and oral communication classes at the university level. After presenting in small groups in class, the students upload their slides into Moxtra, and then record their talks over them. Every member of what is called a ‘group conversation’ has access to the presentations, can see and listen to them, and give feedback and make comments, either in writing or by speaking. Even the free version of Moxtra allows this interactive access for the teacher and students, who thereby compile a digital portfolio of presentation and storytelling work, involving voice and visuals, during the course. It works particularly well in a Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) set up, as the app provides a workspace where the whole class can meet each other beyond the classroom. The teacher, and any other student, can give feedback after a presentation, and also while preparing beforehand, when students are drafting their slides and scripts, if they are using scripts. The app encourages students to practice their presentations and helps the teacher when it comes to assessment of students’ work because it is always available. It is especially helpful at stages when building students’ confidence is important, and when individuals presenting to the whole class takes up too much time in a course.

Keywords: MALL; blended learning; presentations; digital portfolio

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1. Introduction

Language learners at university are often given presentation assignments, whether in specialist presentation courses, or seminar classes. Such tasks fit the demands from education ministries for ‘active learning’ (Jones & Palmer, 2017), which, Prince (2004) explained, features “student activity and engagement in the learning process” (p.1). However, various surveys (e.g., Burgess, 2013) have shown that having to speak in public is a scary prospect for most people.

Language teachers, therefore, need to consider the stress that many students feel when having to present (King, 2002). One-to-whole-class presentations can also be unsatisfactory because they are time-consuming, and restrict each learner’s chances to speak. One way round these problems is having students
present individually, but in small groups, and presenting two to four times in different groups. This format is more informal and relaxed, and helps learners with little confidence.

The unfortunate downside of only presenting to small groups is that it is not possible for any student to see everyone else’s presentation. In a class of about 20 students, each student is likely to see only about half the presentations. The teacher will be able to see even fewer properly. However, the use of the free mobile app Moxtra means all presentations become available for all class members. It also allows everyone to give comments and feedback to each other. This paper explains how this technology is used, and how the author’s university presentation classes have benefited from the introduction of Moxtra.

2. Tools and Procedures

Moxtra is an app and computer software designed for businesses as an online collaborative workspace, but not yet well known in education. In the author’s course, however, after researching an agreed topic, students prepare slides of pictures, text and graphs on their phones using one of the slideware apps available. The students download the Moxtra app and accept an invitation from the teacher to join “a conversation.” One of the main attractions for this author to use Moxtra was the software’s “mobile-first architecture” (Moxtra, 2017). It should be noted, however, that the first time administrators invite people to join, they have to type in the email addresses of the invitees. This is the one slightly time-consuming task, for which a computer is useful.

After joining the Group Conversation, the students should first make a folder under their own name. If they do not, everyone’s files will get mixed up and hard to identify in the conversation. When each member keeps their own work inside their folder, everything is clear and tidy.

Any other group member can immediately access everyone else’s work, so feedback can be given on the proposed slides for the presentation. The teacher can give feedback on students’ slides, and suggest where more research is needed. Students can therefore develop the presentation more, making changes and corrections on their slides just as on a draft of an essay.

At this point in the course, in class students present ‘live’, in the small group format, as described in the Introduction.

Once their visual aids are in order (a PDF of some slides seems to be the easiest type of file to work with), students can record over them. Presenters simply swipe left as they speak to move to the next slide. While recording, presenters or storytellers can also make annotations on slides, and draw freely on the app’s whiteboard. The free version of Moxtra allows a time limit of ten minutes for one recording. It is possible both to pause while recording, and to discard a finished recording if the speaker wants to try again. A saved presentation results in an mp4 file, which can be viewed on any group member’s device or even downloaded and shared in other ways.

The final activity in the project is to require students to comment, within Moxtra, on class members’ presentations. It gives them a chance to see and hear those presentations they were not able to experience live. Comments can be written or recorded, and responded to, at any time. Teachers can keep these digital presentations as a record, and use them when grading at the end of the course.

3. Discussion

The author introduced Moxtra into two presentation courses of second year, Japanese female university students because it was clear many were a little fearful of the course. The classes, each with just under 20 students, were asked about their attitudes to presenting in the first meeting of the year. Over half agreed that it is useful to have good presentation skills. However, about half declared that they did not like presenting. The author, therefore, wanted to foster a supportive atmosphere in which the students could start to enjoy making presentations and building their confidence. The combination of using the round-robin presenting format, with shared digital presentations and written and spoken feedback given in Moxtra
outside and beyond class meetings, seemed to work to this end. The clear “dislikes” for presenting fell from 43.3% at the start of the course to 11.8% three months later.

To benefit properly from the use of Moxtra in presentation projects, the students and teacher need to be comfortable with using mobile devices in class. Even a few years ago, Hockley (2013) referred to this form of “mobile literacy” as “an increasingly important skill” (p.4). Most students seem to have acquired it.

4. Conclusions

This paper has explained how using the free app and software Moxtra can enhance the process of student presentations. It is especially helpful for an extra task after using the round-robin presentation format in class. Students who lack confidence or do not like presenting in front of large groups especially benefit. Moxtra is a convenient medium for providing feedback both before and after presentations, for providing language practice for presenters and listeners, and as a means for students in a class to view all their classmates’ presentations. It is also helpful for teachers when they grade students.

5. References


What is the desirable dictionary interface to EFL learners?

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Abstract

The present study examined how the differences in screen sizes between a smartphone dictionary and a tablet one affected their look-up behaviour, reading comprehension of the text, and retention of the looked-up words. The study was carried out at a university in Japan. The participants, who were heavy smartphone users, were 36 undergraduate students whose English proficiency levels ranged from intermediate to false beginners. In the first session of the study, they were assigned a word definition and a reading comprehension tasks with the English-Japanese dictionary on the iPhone and the iPad respectively. The time they needed for the tasks, the numbers of their lookups, and their quiz scores were compared. After the first session, they answered the questionnaire about each dictionary interface. In the second session, which was held on a week after the first session, a recognition test was conducted to investigate how much the looked-up words were retained. Also, the participants were interviewed for their impressions and comments on each dictionary interface. Overall, the tablet dictionaries received the higher evaluation in terms of ease of use by the participants. Thus, they looked up more words while using the tablet dictionaries. Significant differences, however, were found in the quiz scores and the rate of the recognition test contrary to expectations. This means that they got good marks and remembered the looked-up words better when using the smartphone dictionaries. Look-up frequency and the bigger screen, therefore, do not seem to result in better L2 learning.

Keywords: the dictionary interface; smartphone; tablet; retention, EFL learning

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1. Introduction

Mobile technology has changed the learning environment rapidly in recent years. New gadgets such as smartphones or tablets have edged into L2 classrooms, and traditional audio-visual aids have been replaced by such mobile gadgets. Dictionaries are no exception. Although pocket E-dictionaries still have deep-rooted popularity among middle school students in Japan, L2 learners tend to use their smartphones when they access language information after entering university (e.g., Koyama & Yamanishi, 2017; 2016). In fact, the Institute for Information and Communications Policy (IIIPC) revealed in their annual report of 2017 that 96.8% of Japanese between the age of 20 and 29 and 85.6% of Japanese teenagers, respectively, use a smartphone.

Then, what is a desirable dictionary interface for EFL learners? Koyama (2016) compared pocket E-dictionaries with smartphone dictionary apps in terms of dictionary interface design. She concluded that the interface design of smartphone dictionary apps does not directly have an influence upon L2 learners’ lookup behaviour and the effect on their learning. She also found that the interface design of dictionaries might be an incentive to L2 learning. Even though current young L2 learners were skilful at smartphone use, they showed some preference for pocket E-dictionaries in terms of the size of screen display and a physical keyboard.
The primary objective of the study, therefore, was to explore the potential to enhance language learning using mobile devices. As one means to this end, the present study examined how the differences in screen sizes between a smartphone and a tablet-based dictionary affected their look-up behaviour, reading comprehension of the text, and retention of the looked-up words.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The participants, who were heavy smartphone users, were 36 undergraduate students whose majors were Education. Based on the result of a 45-item cloze test conducted in advance, their English proficiency levels considered to be ranging from intermediate to false beginners.

2.2 Dictionary Apps and Tasks assigned

The same dictionary apps, Sanseido’s Wisdom English-Japanese Dictionary (3rd edition), was used for both smartphones and tablets. Two types of tasks, ten vocabulary questions and five reading comprehension questions, were used in the experiment. They were chosen from a well-known English Proficiency Test in Japan, including several words and phrases that were judged to be unfamiliar to the participants.

2.3 Procedure

In order to compare the differences in both interface design and effects on learning, the same procedure in Koyama (2016) was adapted. In the first session of the study, they were assigned a word definition and a reading comprehension tasks with the English-Japanese dictionary on the iPhone and the iPad respectively. The time they needed for the tasks, the numbers of their lookups, and their quiz scores were compared. After the first session, they answered the questionnaire about each dictionary interface. In the second session, which was held on a week after the first session, a recognition test was conducted to investigate how much their previously looked-up words were retained. Also, the participants were interviewed for their impressions on each dictionary interface. Given the number of the participants in the experiment, the non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-ranks test was adopted to analyse the collected data.

3. Discussion

Table 1 compares the time they completed the assigned tasks and the number of looked-up words for the tasks in the first session in two condition. Although no significant difference in the time to perform the tasks was found, we can claim that the participants could look up more words in a shorter period of time when using tablet apps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Smartphone Apps</th>
<th>Tablet Apps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time to perform tasks (min.)</td>
<td>43.33, 12.04</td>
<td>40.44, 10.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The number of lookups</td>
<td>33.72, 14.78</td>
<td>37.56*, 18.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.

Table 2. Results of the Quiz Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Smartphone Apps</th>
<th>Tablet Apps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Task</td>
<td>8.53, 1.52</td>
<td>8.33, 1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Task</td>
<td>2.67*, 1.20</td>
<td>2.14, 1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Vocabulary + Comprehension)</td>
<td>11.19*, 2.24</td>
<td>10.47, 2.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05
Table 2 shows the mean scores and the SDs for vocabulary and reading comprehension tasks in the first session. One point was given to each correct answer, and with full marks being ten and five respectively. As shown in Table 2, the results revealed a significant difference in the quiz scores at 0.05 level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Smartphone Apps</th>
<th>Tablet Apps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rate of recognition (%)</td>
<td>35.61*</td>
<td>31.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Results of Rate of Recognition

In grading the recognition task, one point was given if the participants could circle the words they had actually looked up in the first session. Comparing the rate in Table 3, the mean value was especially larger when they used smartphone apps. This difference was statistically supported by the result of Wilcoxon signed-ranks test. This indicates that the looked-up words with a smartphone resulted in better retention than those with a tablet.

A 16-item questionnaire was administered to assess their impressions on two types of dictionary apps. In the questionnaire, the participants rated their impressions on a scale of one to five. Overall, the tablet apps received a high evaluation in terms of dictionary interface, such as “This dictionary provided me with much information at first sight.” or “It is easy to see the screen of this dictionary.” After recognition test in the second session, participants commented on each dictionary app while reviewing the tasks they had performed a week before. Their feedback indicated that the participants regarded the tablet dictionary apps as appropriate for L2 learning.

4. Conclusions

From the results described above, we may conclude that L2 learners were obliged to go through an elaborate process to look up words using smartphone dictionary apps. According to “the depth of processing” hypothesis, an elaborate process for acquiring new lexical information leads to higher retention (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). Consequently, the looked-up words in a longer process with a smartphone could be retained better. However, further research under varied conditions is needed hereafter.

5. Acknowledgements

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6. References


Confessions of a first-time hybrid language course instructor: lessons learned and questions for the future

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Abstract
A hybrid learning format theoretically exploits both the convenience of anytime, anywhere online access and opportunities to interact and learn as a face-to-face community. This reflective practice paper explores the successes and challenges experienced in the first iteration of a hybrid beginning foreign language (Japanese) course. Attempts to engage students online through interaction were not always successful, and while in part this can be attributed to technical issues, learner dispositions also appeared to play a role. While there is great potential for the use of innovative multi-media and learner-centered digital materials, the time and effort required for both students and instructors to master their use can be formidable. The initial iteration of this course has provided much material for reflection, and this paper aims to provide practical suggestions for instructors involved in or contemplating hybrid language instruction.

Keywords: online hybrid course; student engagement; online course design; teleconferencing; multi-media instructional materials

1. Introduction
A hybrid teaching and learning format theoretically exploits both the convenience of anytime, anywhere online access, and opportunities to interact as a face-to-face (f2f) community. The student is responsible for learning the content in advance in the online environment, and then putting that knowledge to work in tasks during the f2f sessions. While theory was applied in the design of this beginning Japanese language course, the practical application of the curriculum proved to be more challenging. This reflective practice paper will examine some of the successes and challenges of this experience in the hopes of providing food for thought for instructors contemplating the use of this format.

2. Discussion
Online learning makes academic courses available to more students, and the hybrid format enables students from programs with demanding or set timetables to fit Japanese into their schedules more easily. There is also a higher percentage of international students enrolled in the hybrid class. These students, whose first
language is usually not English, may find the opportunity to view the grammar lectures as online videos easier than following a live lecture. Students are able to choose the format that works best for their particular learning style. Those who prefer to prepare, practice, and be evaluated individually, may find the online format more appealing and comfortable. On teaching evaluation questionnaires, students report satisfaction with the temporal flexibility of an online course, and instructors may appreciate the flexibility as well. While studies on hybrid or fully online classes report lower retention rates than face-to-face classes (Patterson & McFadden, 2009), that was not the case for this class. However, there was a lower successful completion rate and a lower overall average compared to previous f2f classes at the same institution.

An online course necessitates the creation and utilization of multi-media instructional resources, and their effective use is an important part of student satisfaction (Bollinger & Wasilik, 2009). While it can be rewarding for instructors to create innovative multimedia materials, it can also be time consuming and frustrating to put together a reasonably polished finished product that integrates with the curriculum and engages the students’ interest. Grammar-instruction videos were easily and cheaply produced for this course using screen-captured voice-over narrations of powerpoint slides, but this format tends to be low in media richness, and learner performance is not as good compared with lecture-capture videos or high-production videos (Chen & Wu, 2014).

Opportunities for meaningful communication tend to require more planning and organization to complete successfully in a virtual environment. Collaborate Ultra was used as a teleconferencing tool, and students signed up for one hour per week of small group and pair work using it. Several students experienced issues with Wi-Fi and audio/video, and so relied initially on the chat function which made communication awkward and time-consuming. In addition, some students were hesitant or unable to connect with video, and the dynamics of pairs or groups where individuals were not using video were strained. Some teleconferencing groups were more effective than others due to the dynamics of student personalities. Students must be reasonably outgoing and committed to a social learning process that involves both learning from and providing scaffolding for their peers through active collaboration and communication for the teleconferencing sessions to succeed.

The larger issue with teleconferencing was creating meaningful activities for students to complete in the session. Attempting to replicate classroom pair work activities by assigning exercises from the textbook for students to work on in the breakout rooms was found to be not the best approach. Tasks that required more authentic communication, and those that involved creating a dialogue or some kind of information exchange such as an interview were more successful. It quickly became clear that students did not tend to stay on task with only oral exercises, so some form of written work or report to be turned in at the end of the session was assigned. Native speaking language buddies were invited the teleconferencing sessions, but the buddies had limited audio and video, and sometimes had to rely on the chat function, which slowed the pace. Asynchronous exchange of videos proved to be more successful.

Course design has the most significant impact on how students spend their time in the course (Rientes et al., 2018), so an analysis of each module to quantify the time spent on different activities would be beneficial. Learning analytics provided by the learning management system can be a useful guide in this exercise, although they have to be treated carefully as they still do not include time spent by students on activities that may be external to the module.

While in theory an online class has the potential to give the student much more control over their own learning, the organization of this class remained very teacher-centered in that the instructor directed the learning path of the students through very detailed weekly checklists and online deadlines. This attention to organization requires a great deal of time, perhaps even more in comparison to a traditional course. However, student feedback showed that they appreciated the detailed work list. Many students, especially inexperienced or low ability students, make poor decisions about their own learning behaviour, and their movement through an online course is unplanned and more chaotic (Desmarais et al., 1997). Inexperienced or lower proficiency students need more explicit instruction in order to become autonomous learners. Coaching and support concerning study skills and learning behaviour is a time consuming but important role of the online instructor. However, for the instructor, the skills learned through the detailed organization of a hybrid course may also help improve traditional face-to-face course design as well.

Testing and evaluation is still an area of concern in that a secure and reliable online testing procedure has not been established and remains a question for the future. At this time, formal assessments like the
midterm and listening exams are given during the f2f sessions which is not the best utilization of limited in-class time.

3. Conclusions

Despite the challenges faced, the instructor feels confident that the hybrid format is worth pursuing in the context of the institution.

4. References


An explorative study of informal online language learning collaborations

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Abstract

This paper presents initial findings of a study conducted on the language learning site iTalki on the nature of spontaneously formed informal online peer-led collaborations to practise or learn languages without teacher presence. The study explores the behaviours, characteristics and motivations of informal and autonomous learners. It also investigates the learners’ personal learning environment (PLE). Using a Community of Practice (CoP) framework the author analyses how collaboration, interaction and participation shape language learning and practice. The study adopts netnography (online ethnography) combined with online survey and interviews and makes use of concurrent triangulation. Thematic analysis is conducted both manually and through the software NVivo. Preliminary conclusions suggest that the dominant phenomenon is one of language practice rather than learning and note the impact of social presence and peer collaborations on learner autonomy development. Learner identity is a trajectory that allows role-playing with an impact on learners’ self-esteem, confidence and overall performance.

Keywords: informal learning; language learning sites; community of practice; informal collaborative online language learning; personal learning environment; peer-feedback; peer-learning

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1. Introduction

1.1 Nature and scope of the investigation

Since the use of digital and Web 2.0 technologies has advanced, online learning has become increasingly social to satisfy individual and societal needs in learning (Dillenbourg, 2016; Stahl et al., 2006; Chikh & Berkani, 2010). Subsequently a body of CALL research focusing on collaborative online language learning (COLL) has emerged (Jeong et al., 2014; Wang & Chen, 2012).

Existing literature has evidenced some benefits of COLL in formal settings, such as the opportunity to acquire a language in a deeply social communicative environment (Gasiorek et al., 2012), explore language in use and become motivated to take part in linguistic communication (Gruba & Clark, 2013). Further studies focused on the benefits of using Web 2.0 of technologies that foster collaboration, interaction, participation and cross-cultural awareness in the classroom with an impact on learner motivation (Beavan et al., 2017; McCarty, 2010), self-confidence, autonomy, and group work (Martínez-Carrasco, R., 2018). Web 2.0 technologies, however, provide opportunities for COLL beyond the classroom and in completely
peer-led informal settings. One limitation in the current literature is the lack of field research studies that focus on independent informal online learners.

1.2. Investigation of informal language learning collaborations language learning sites

Language learning sites (LLS) are free online commercially-based spaces which users access to learn and practise languages independently and autonomously. Knowing who is using these sites independently and spontaneously, how and for what purpose, will improve understanding of the implications and potentials in online language learning and teaching.

This study investigates, through the lens of CoP (Community of Practice), how spontaneous informal COLL are formed, maintained and developed. CoP has its roots in social learning theory that locates learning outside learning institutions (Wenger, 1998; 2010). CoP ‘are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly’ (Wenger & Wenger-Trimn, 2015, p.1). LLS are often defined as ‘learning communities’, however participants’ feedback to this study suggest that overall they are rather market places or language exchange agencies (Zourou, 2012). On the contrary, the LLS iTalki’s embedded features encourage social presence within the site and promote language learning through peer interaction, exchange and collaboration. One of its affordances is the way it allows language learners to experience true language immersion with native speakers and peer learners. This is the reason why this study focused primarily on this site.

1.2 Research questions

1. What are the initial motivations for informal COLL?
2. What type of learning activities do informal online learners undertake?
3. What are the characteristics of the informal users of LLS such as iTalki?
4. How is working with others conducive to language learning. What types of collaborations are formed?

2. Method

2.1 Design

The research adopts online ethnography as described by Kozients’s netnography (2015) and is based on ten interviews conducted with ten LLS users; continuous observations of written communications in iTalki’s threads; thirty-one responses to an online survey and fieldnotes.

2.2 Data collection and analysis

Data was collected over a period of twenty-four months (pilot + main study). The online survey comprised both closed and open questions. Closed questions showed respondents’ demographics and background as well as general information about tools used and time spent online with the purpose of learning or practising languages. Open questions provided rich qualitative data about learners’ initial motivation, attitudes, goals and behaviours which fed into other data sources through concurrent triangulation. The survey also served for recruiting interview participants. The in-depth semi-structured one-to-one online interviews were approximately an-hour-and-a-half long, they were conducted via Skype, recorded using Quicktime and finally transcribed. Transcripts were sent to the participants for checking. Participants were asked to discuss their motivations to learn informally, activities conducted with others, collaborations formed, in what way they felt part of a community and how they evaluated their learning. Observations focused on language-learning-and-practice threads and were conducted and recorded in fieldnotes one-to-three times per week. Familiarisation with site allowed the researcher to take a more participatory role and to identify and follow the most influential participants. Data was analysed using thematic analysis as framed by Braun and Clarke (2006) conducted both manually and through NVivo.
3. Discussion

Preliminary findings suggest that informal learners are initially motivated by curiosity, desire to have fun and socialise, however motivation is also enhanced and sustained by the opportunity to learn or practise languages online with others in a personal learning environment (PLE) which is learner-centric, innovative, needs-driven, adaptable, stress-free and flexible, whereby the learners feel in control of their own learning.

![Table: Initial motivations for informal COLL (from survey and interviews data)]

| Accessible | “where I live there aren’t language courses”  
| I have a disability and I cannot travel” |
| Atomised | “I want to practice English with different accents” |
| Authentic | “I meet people from other English speaking countries”,  
| “it’s a window to the outside world” |
| Collaborative | “we help each other”;  
| “we work together to improve our skills and confidence” |
| Flexible | “I can learn in my PJ sitting on my sofa”;  
| “I am in control of my learning and don’t need to be with other twenty people in the classroom”;  
| “you can do it wherever you are, whenever you want” |
| Immersive | “It is more natural way than learning grammar [sic]. It is how we would learn if you moved to the country”. |
| Innovative | “it is much easier, cheaper and effective than traditional classroom learning”;  
| “more effective than sitting in a classroom with other students who are never at the same level than you” |
| “I have an opportunity to learn languages with native speakers”; |
| Of economic values | “it’s free ☺”;  
| “it’s free and you offer real value to the other person”,  
| “you don’t need to spend money for practice the language” |
| Sociable and fun | “to build friendship with other language learners”;  
| “we laugh a lot together”;  
| “my son visited him in Italy” it’s fun, authentic, interesting” |
| Stress-free | “I don’t need to worry about exams”  
| “there is no pressure” |

Figure 1. Initial motivations for informal COLL (from survey and interviews data)

The study also suggests that learners develop autonomy through working with others. Relatedness, mutual trust and support, commitment to each other and towards the practice of sharing and learning are all crucial in maintaining, sustaining and developing a CoP, which also impacts on learners’ motivation.
As well as receiving paid-for-lessons with professional tutors, iTalki users can pair with native speakers for synchronous language exchanges, write texts in the target language (notebook entries) supported by visual aids, give and receive feedback. Participants highlighted the importance of peer-feedback as a valuable tool to assure progression in an assessment-free learning environment. Feedback is often scaffolded, pluri-perspectival as well as mutual (feedback on mistakes; feedback on giving feedback); it can be corrective or formative and it refers to the form as well as the content. Users can also take part in asynchronous forum discussions with the wide online learning community.
Figure 3. Examples of threads developing shared practice

Data across the dataset and particularly through observations indicate the development of pockets of interest-based-CoPs formed by people who share the same interests and create a network of communities within and beyond the site. The study also indicates that in informal settings the PLE becomes complex, dispersed and extended whereby self-organised learners use a variety of tools and migrate within different communities depending on the purpose/aspect of the learning they want to focus on. The users are multifaceted and and their identities are trajectories influenced by social interaction (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2014). In the same learning event their roles might change between the role of learners and teachers, experts, novices, natives, non-natives. This fluid environment is perceived as conducive to an increase in learner self-esteem, confidence and overall performance.
Finally, the study suggests that learning occurs primarily through practice and the following types of collaborations might be formed:

- Problem solving based collaborations
- Task based collaborations
- Co-construction of knowledge
- Sharing (ideas, knowledge, practical advice, resources)
- Supporting each other (practical, moral, social).

4. Conclusions

LLS might present considerable potential for both second language teachers and CALL researchers as well as for independent language learners. This qualitative study focused on informal COLL established through CoP in iTalki and extended PLE. It attempted to investigate who is using informal COLL independently and spontaneously, how and for what purpose and what type of learning occurs.

Initial findings show that by working collaboratively informal online learners are able to develop:

- Metacognitive skills which impact on their language learning such as reflecting on a) own mistakes and other people’s mistakes; b) how and when to provide feedback; c) developing own learning strategies
- Phonological awareness (i.e. practice different accents, learning different sounds)
- Metalinguistic awareness (i.e. learn colloquialism, code switching, regionalism, origin and use of idiomatic expressions)
- A variety of transferable skills (i.e. communicative, social, digital) which impact on language learning and practice (i.e. finding useful resources, making video-casts).
It was not within the scope of this study to identify main trends and generalisations of informal online language learning, aims which the author intends to pursue in further research on CALL and informal learning.

5. **References**


Collaborative partnerships in CALL materials development

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Abstract

This paper will discuss the development of authentic learning materials for Irish language learners. The principal motivation to create these materials is to facilitate autonomous learning for students within Higher Education study programmes, however, given that the materials are open source, they can cater for a wider group of users, e.g.: independent learners, adult learners within community education programmes and learners from secondary education.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) provides a methodological framework that establishes a productive relationship between teacher and learner, whereby the emphasis is on presenting content to learners and taking steps to enable them to make sense of it, and acquire receptive and productive competence in using the language in which the content is delivered. An important additional consideration in CLIL methodology is the need to focus on the cultural aspect of language use, and to assist learners in familiarising themselves with how the target language is used in context.

Using authentic content generated by members of a speech community for the purpose of communicating with other members of that community can succeed in fulfilling the objectives of CLIL in a way that non-authentic materials cannot, particularly regarding the cultural imperative. We will see here how objective criteria have been applied to broadcast material produced by Ireland's national broadcaster RTÉ to assess its suitability for CLIL, and how an open educational resource specially designed for CLIL is used to share the materials with learners and prepare them for real world encounters in the target language.

Keywords: Content and Language Integrated Learning, CLIL, Irish Language, RTÉ, Gaeilge, Clilstore, OER, Authentic, Radio

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1. Introduction

The development of authentic language learning resources within the Higher Education sector presents particular challenges to the CALL practitioner, especially in relation to Less Widely Used and Taught Languages (LWUTLs) such as Irish.

From 2012-14 Ulster University was a partner in the EU funded Tools for CLIL Teachers project. This project developed an online Open Educational Resource (OER), named Clilstore (http://multidict.net) that enables teachers to create and share multimedia language learning units featuring: embedded audio or video clips; verbatim transcripts of the audio/audiovisual material with all words automatically hyperlinked to Multidict (a separate tool that brings together 100+ online dictionaries in a single platform); and the option to integrate language comprehension tasks e.g. crosswords and cloze exercises based on the
audio/audiovisual content. Previous studies have discussed Clilstore’s potential to facilitate a shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered education (Gimeno-Sanz, A., Ó Dónaill, C. & Andersen, K. (2014)), and as a suitable CALL tool for use within the HE classroom (Ó Dónaill, C. 2013).

The Tools for CLIL Teachers project promoted Clilstore widely via national and international training workshops facilitated by members of the project consortium, and it was also integrated into subsequent EU funded projects such as the CLIL4U project (see www.languages.dk). Given this high level of uptake, core members of the consortium have sought to ensure that the OER is maintained as a viable resource and that its functionality and materials are kept updated. The EU has recently provided funding to a reconstituted consortium, the CLIL Open Online Learning project (2018-2021), to undertake this critical development.

For its part during the legacy period of Tools for CLIL Teachers project, Ulster University has continued to build a community of practice around the Clilstore OER, and to endeavour to diversify the range of content available to end users. The question we are concerned with in this paper is how to maintain this legacy in a sustainable way which offers a healthy balance between the time and effort spent preparing courseware and the time spent assisting learners within study programmes.

2. Method

2.1. Sourcing Authentic Content

The language attainment level for undergraduate, Bachelor of Arts programmes at Ulster University, and in Third Level Institutions throughout Ireland, is benchmarked to Level B2 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001). In terms of listening competence, the CEFR sets out the following indicators at Level B2:

- Can understand standard spoken language, live or broadcast, on both familiar and unfamiliar topics normally encountered in personal, social, academic or vocational life.

- Can understand the main ideas of propositionally and linguistically complex speech on both concrete and abstract topics delivered in a standard dialect, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can follow extended speech and complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar, and the direction of the talk is sign-posted by explicit markers.

Basing learning units on authentic content has the advantage of enabling learners to use the language classroom or their personal learning space as a safe zone in which challenging material, in line with the above indicators, can be worked through with the assistance of available reference and practice materials.

Any attempt to try and create audio/audiovisual materials to expose students to the breadth of content implied by the above indicators would have considerable resource implications in terms of time alone. Furthermore, the opportunity to provide a dry run of real world communication within the safe confines of a programme of study is potentially missed by using simulated materials created solely for the purpose of teaching and learning.

In light of this, Ulster University approached Raidió na Gaeltachta, an Irish language radio station which forms part of Raidió Teilifís Éireann (RTÉ), Ireland’s national public service media organisation, to request permission to use its archive of recordings as the basis for language learning units to be hosted on the Clilstore OER. Using recordings from this archive would of course guarantee authenticity, as the station exists principally to serve the needs of its listeners, L1 and L2 speakers of Irish seeking information and entertainment, and not specifically as a language learning resource. As most learners at BA level and below desire to join this speech community and feel comfortable within it, it stands to reason that we should be using this type of archival material to model the language for learners within language study programmes.

3. Discussion

Raidió na Gaeltachta’s archive stretches back to when the station was established in 1972, it is the largest
minority language archive in Europe. Its content spans a wide array of topics including: news, current affairs, interviews with people from all walks of life, commentary on sporting events, folklore, song and music. It caters for an eclectic listenership with both scholarly and casual interests and serves an important function in documenting the life of a unique and rapidly changing speech community.

A key feature of the Cilstore OER is the ability to curate the material selected for a language learning unit. The metadata fields provided within the authoring interface allow a unit author to: indicate the source of the material; provide a description of the content; provide a description of the language used in the clip (e.g. dialectal features, genre etc.); the duration of the clip; and information about copyright. Text provided within these fields is discoverable by Google.

The process then of harvesting materials from an archive such this involves: the careful selection of content on the basis of its language learning potential and its thematic content; the preparation of verbatim transcripts; the curation of the material using the metadata form and the preparation of language learning exercises to extend and deepen the learning experience.

4. Conclusions

Collaborative partnerships such as that outlined above, provide mutual benefits for all stakeholders. The language teachers and their learners get access to high quality authentic content, and the content creators’ materials are brought to new audiences who are provided with a scaffolded introduction to challenging authentic speech, with a view to them becoming competent members of that speech community.

5. References


This symposium highlighted ways CALL might serve a critical role in fostering diversity and inclusion across languages and cultures, with papers focusing on four different but interrelated themes. The first paper considers how factors such as financial status, employment, family responsibilities and nationality can prevent language educators from attending conferences, and outlines ways CALL can enable wider participation. The second shows how digital literacies, including intercultural, ethical and critical literacy, can help language teachers and learners to build bridges between cultures. The third argues that rather than connecting people, the Internet and social media seem to be isolating them in bubbles with like-minded others, proposing virtual exchange (telecollaboration) as a way educators can use the Internet to help students connect with, learn from and collaborate with peers with very different life experiences. The fourth advocates systematic teacher and student preparation for technology-enabled, people-to-people education programs in language studies and across the curriculum maintaining that such programs provide an ideal context for promoting a critical and sustainable approach to developing digital literacies and citizenship. Between them, the four papers raise many key questions about CALL, diversity and inclusion, and begin to sketch out some preliminary answers.

Keywords: CALL; diversity; inclusion; digital literacies; virtual exchange

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1. Introduction

Genesis, Goals, and Speakers (Philip Hubbard, Moderator)

The genesis of this symposium was the 2017 conference of the Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA) in Rio de Janeiro. There, the group of us represented here began informally discussing the need for a more critical stance by the CALL community. As evidenced in multiple presentations at AILA, the applied linguistics field as a whole has been expanding its interest in diverse and previously marginalized populations, as well as considering the need to support the development of critical literacy. This change in focus for applied linguistics is captured in the writing of the Douglas Fir Group (2016), an
assembly of 15 leading applied linguists and SLA researchers, proposing a new transdisciplinary framework for applied linguistics. Of relevance to the present work is their highlighting of technologization as one of the three central forces shaping today’s multilingual world.

As we continued the discussion at AILA, a central theme began to emerge: how can CALL researchers and practitioners share their expertise and experience for the good of peers and language learners, especially with diverse and underserved populations? With most of the group already working on projects oriented in that direction, CALL for Help was born.

The presenters summarize their theory and research-oriented contributions below. Louise Ohashi presents the results of a survey focused on the reasons educators do not attend professional conferences, and discusses ways in which conference organizers can make their events more inclusive. Mark Pegrum highlights the pivotal role of digital literacies in language development, emphasizing intercultural, ethical, and critical literacies, and including both critical mobile literacy and critical material literacy – which extends beyond the digital – in the last category. Sarah Guth and Francesca Helm show how language teachers can use technology to develop virtual exchanges, to foster the development of digital literacies and to build bridges between their learners and others with different views and cultural experiences. They also apply a critical eye to the risks surrounding the mainstreaming of virtual exchange. Mirjam Hauck combines the preceding themes of critical digital literacy and virtual exchange, focusing on the role of the teacher in understanding and embracing critical digital pedagogy.

2. The four papers in the symposium

2.1 Reaching Beyond Conferences: The Potential of CALL in Supporting Diversity and Inclusion (Louise Ohashi)

Conferences can be beneficial to language educators for many reasons, such as increasing their knowledge, skills and motivation (Borg, 2015), but access is not equally available to all. In this study, an online survey was used to collect data from language educators on barriers to in-person conference/event attendance, ways respondents participated offsite when they couldn’t attend, and suggestions for organizers. The key objectives were to understand what prevents willing educators from going to events and how CALL could be used to support them offsite. The survey was completed by 142 participants from around the world (32 nationalities) who worked in a wide range of locations (23 countries/larger regions). They taught students from below pre-school age to adults, with some participants between jobs or retired. Due to space limitations, only the most salient findings from closed-response questions are reported below.

2.2 What factors have prevented language educators from attending conferences and other events designed for professional development?

Financial issues were the greatest barrier, with 47% of respondents not attending because they were unfunded and unable to self-fund and 43% choosing not to self-fund when funding was unavailable. Workplace barriers were also noteworthy, with 22% denied permission to attend, 8% only allowed to attend by accepting wage losses and 24% deterred/prevented for non-financial reasons, such as scheduling issues. Family responsibilities also prevented attendance due to children being prohibited onsite (4%), adults needing care (5%), resistance to attendance from family members (12%) and/or time with children being prioritized over events (13%). Finally, there were nationality-based barriers, with 6% deterred by a lengthy or complex visa application process, 4% deterred by visa costs and 1% unable to obtain a visa. Only 14% of respondents had always been able to join all events they wanted to attend.

2.3 How can organizers use CALL to support educators who face obstacles to attendance?

Respondents took various actions when they couldn’t attend events and these strategies offer insight into ways organizers can make events accessible offsite. Non-attendees used technology for presentations, with 35% watching live-streamed content, 7% presenting in real-time online and 7% presenting through pre-recorded videos. They also interacted with others about the event through Twitter (22%), Facebook (21%), other social media (7%) and/or real-time video chat (3%). Figures may increase if organizers are able to invest time and resources in these avenues. Furthermore, 8% did not attend as there was no information
for families provided by organizers so they felt children were unwelcome, revealing a role for CALL in publicizing family-friendly initiatives.

This small-scale study was designed as a preliminary investigation into the areas above, with the results used to aid in planning an international conference the author was organizing. It was not designed to be generalized to the wider population but may be useful for guiding future studies. With respondents from such diverse contexts, it may also provide a starting point for event organizers when considering who may be missing their events and planning ways to include those groups through CALL.

2.4 Connecting Cultures via Intercultural, Ethical and Critical Literacies (Mark Pegrum)

Among the digital literacies that have become essential to living, learning, working and socializing in the contemporary era (Dudeney et al., 2013; Pegrum et al., 2018), there are a number which are key to building intercultural bridges.

Against a background of growing superdiversity but also growing backlashes against superdiversity – exemplified by the 2016 Brexit and Trump votes in the UK and US respectively – it is apparent that the need for intercultural literacy is at a premium. This skillset, which facilitates productive communication across varying, overlapping and often heterogeneous cultural contexts, can be developed as students interact around common tasks with peers from across the world, whether on manually set up blogging or wiki platforms, or through collaborations supported by international organizations ranging from Quadblogging to UNICollaboration.

Ethical literacy, drawing on a heritage of ethical pluralism and intellectual humility (Ess, 2009; Kidd, 2016) and informed by intercultural research from outside Western traditions (Shi-xu, 2006), involves learning to act constructively and inclusively in contexts of difference where conflicts might otherwise easily arise. It is about much more than protecting oneself or others from trolls or predators, as important as this is; it is about developing a positive individual presence online (MOE, 2016), which can be honed as students reflect critically on how their actions might contribute to a more positive overall digital environment (Office of the eSafety Commissioner, n.d.).

Critical literacy is implicit in the above literacies, and indeed in many others, but it is a literacy that demands singular attention in a post-truth mediascape where digital misinformation and disinformation circulate and collide to create a destructive online environment, one which is frequently divisive and xenophobic. More specifically, critical mobile literacy is necessary to interrogate the challenges inherent in our 24/7 use of mobile technologies, ranging from privacy and surveillance to health issues; and critical material literacy reminds us of the non-digital substrate beneath our glittering digital universe, where conflicts have exploded around precious minerals in Africa and factory workers have taken their own lives in China (Fuchs, 2017; Qiu, 2016). Cultural and intercultural understandings and considerations, after all, must extend beyond the digital.

Developing digital literacies is far from a complete solution to the pressing need to better connect diverse cultures around the globe, but in the absence of such literacies, fruitful cultural connections become far more difficult to achieve.

2.4 Virtual Exchange: Promoting Understanding through People-to-People Interactions (Sarah Guth & Francesca Helm)

Virtual Exchange is one educational approach which can be used to foster some of the literacies mentioned in the previous section. This term is used to refer to technology-enabled, people-to-people education programs, sustained over a period of time, in which communication and interaction takes place between geographically and/or culturally distant individuals or groups, with the support of facilitators and/or educators (https://evolve-erasmus.eu/). One established model of virtual exchange familiar to many in the context of CALL is the telecollaborative model. Here virtual exchange is embedded into existing courses by partner educators who develop and implement a joint curriculum which entails student-to-student communication and collaboration on activities. This model is well established in foreign language education and also, increasingly, teacher education (http://www.evaluateproject.eu/). It is seen as a form of experiential and collaborative student learning which facilitates the development of transversal skills
such as intercultural awareness, foreign language skills, digital literacies and the ability to work effectively in virtual teams (O’Dowd & Lewis, 2016). There are also other models of virtual exchange such as online facilitated dialogue, which focuses on developing deeper understanding of different perspectives on current issues and active listening (www.soliya.net).

Virtual exchange has developed very much from a bottom-up perspective, starting over 30 years ago from teacher-led initiatives which involved partner classes and grassroots organizations that developed and implement virtual exchanges. However, it has recently drawn the attention of educational policy makers in the US and Europe (Helm, 2018) on several different levels:

- the institutional level, such as the SUNY COIL Center which was launched in 2006 by the State University of New York (Rubin & Guth, 2015) and has served as a model for other universities;
- the governmental level, for example the Stevens Initiative (www.stevensinitiative.org) which has the US State Department partnering with donors;
- the supra-governmental level, as in the case of the European Commission’s recent Erasmus+ Virtual Exchange pilot project (europa.eu/youth/erasmusvirtual_en).

As there is increasing interest in virtual exchange we may well be satisfied, but at the same time we must be alert and make sure that it is not hijacked by neoliberal ideologies. Just as virtual exchange can be designed to increase understanding of social and global relations and inequalities and to facilitate transnational collective actions, it can be used to promote an employability agenda alone, with an exclusive focus on skills and competences.

It is important that virtual exchange is not seen as a panacea. All too often discourses of CALL are framed as simple solutions to complex problems, for example MOOCs ‘open up education to the world’ and can be used to ‘transform lives through learning’. This hyperbolic language obscures the complexity of accessibility and the inequalities that many learners face - in all forms of online learning. In Europe, virtual exchange is seen as making the Erasmus+ program, traditionally associated with student mobility, more inclusive, allowing ‘better outreach to disadvantaged people’. Yet this is easier said than done. Our research has found that participants who complete virtual exchanges are extremely satisfied with their experience and report having improved their understanding of the relationship between different societies and their foreign language and digital skills (europa.eu/youth/erasmusvirtual/impact-erasmus-virtual-exchange_en). However, we have also found that there is a higher attrition rate for participants from underserved backgrounds, such as refugees and young people who are neither in education or employment, for a series of reasons relating to life conditions, access to technologies and digital literacies.

2.5 Critical Digital Literacies through Virtual Exchange (Mirjam Hauck)

Virtual exchange combines the deep impact of intercultural dialogue and exchange with the broad reach of digital technology, offering the opportunity to improve foreign language, intercultural communication, and digital literacy skills through the use of online tools and applications which facilitate engagement and collaboration (O’Dowd & Lewis, 2016).

Digital literacy is a very broad and elusive construct though: some perceive it as the technical use of ICT, others see it as knowledge application. In his review of Digital Literacy Frameworks, Brown (2017a) draws attention to the fact that most definitions and models are largely decontextualized, reflecting an instrumentalist approach. Properly contextualized digital literacy provision, he argues, should be anchored in real-life settings and take account of the wider socio-political context. Only then can educators and students begin to understand that our mostly uncritical technology consumption in the developed world is a root cause of many of the problems we face, including an ever more unsustainable planet (Brown, 2017b).

Virtual exchange, increasingly acknowledged as an ‘internationalization at home’ strategy for students who are not internationally mobile (universityworldnews.com), offers the aforementioned real-life settings. Each exchange brings at least two different socio-political contexts together and presents opportunities to discuss the problems highlighted above. Moreover, virtual exchange is by default mediated through
technology, providing an ideal context for fostering critical consciousness and agency (Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1983) and thus ‘critical digital pedagogy’ as promoted by Morris (2017).

Critical digital pedagogy considers the impact the digital has on our lives or, as Morris (2017) puts it: “Look beyond the tool to how we use the tool. Look beyond how we use the tool to how the tool uses us. Look beyond how the tool uses us to how we can resist, hack, change, or simply ‘prefer not to’.” Similarly, Brown (2017a) warns that educators will fail future generations “if our definition of digital literacies does not help to produce a sense of agency both with and without new technologies to disrupt ‘a world where 1% of humanity controls as much wealth as the bottom 99%’ of the population (Oxfam, 2017)” - an approach that echoes Giroux’s (1983) understanding of ‘critical agency’. “If digital literacies,” Brown (2017a) concludes, “are core to what it means to be an educated person in the 21st century, then our thinking needs to go beyond preparing people to fit the type of inequitable and socially unjust societies we have created over the past century.”

It is along those lines that educators in languages and other subjects should embrace virtual exchange and design encounters where students learn how to use ICT for public engagement, better lives and more sustainable futures.

3. Conclusions

Through the contributions above, we hope that we have provided some food for thought for colleagues and encourage those who are interested in joining our CALL for Help working group to contact us. By collectively taking a more critical stance on CALL, we can expand it from being primarily an academic field into being simultaneously an area of service.

4. References


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Teacher education and professional development: an investigation on the relationship between ICT and identity constitution

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Abstract

The main point of this paper is investigating whether some Brazilian future language teachers perceive the possible impact of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) resources on their learning of English as an Additional Language (EAL) as well as on their process of becoming EAL teachers in Brazil. Data have been collected through an online questionnaire answered by 25 teachers-to-be and a semi-structured interview conducted with other 8 teachers-to-be. These research participants study at the Additional Languages Teacher Education Program of the Universidade Federal do Pampa (UNIPAMPA, Campus Bagé, Brazil) where I am a teacher educator. As the use of ICT resources may help us tackle questions on the identity of future EAL teachers, there is special interest on how these research participants define themselves as future EAL teachers; how the ICT resources they have been using impact on their process of becoming teachers; and how this investigation will help better integrate ICT resources in the Additional Languages Teacher Education Program of UNIPAMPA. In data analysis, the lexicogrammatical choices made by the research participants are discursively analyzed. Findings show evidence for the fact that the use of ICT resources may be very useful in terms of learning English. However, it seems there is a need of further empowering future language teachers by increasing their awareness and understanding of their own learning process, and encouraging them to think more critically in relation to the teaching profession.

Keywords: future English language teachers; identity; ICT resources.

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1. Introduction

The context of this investigation is the Additional Languages Teacher Education Program of UNIPAMPA, located in the south of Brazil. In this context, students, as future language teachers, face two main challenges: they have to learn English and Spanish simultaneously, and they also have to become language

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teachers. In this research, it is pointed out that this complexity may have some implications for the constitution of future language teachers’ identity.

As defined by Norton (2000): “I use the term identity to reference how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future.” (p. 5). As the use of ICT resources may help us tackle questions on the identity of future EAL teachers, my research questions are: How do these research participants define themselves as future EAL teachers? (How) do the ICT resources they have been using impact on their process of becoming teachers? (How) will this investigation help better integrate ICT resources in the Additional Languages Teacher Education Program of UNIPAMPA?

In this paper, there is special interest in the relationship between technology and teacher education (Paiva, 1997; 2001; 2015; Richards, 1998; Norton, 2000; Buzato, 2001; 2016; Abrahams & Farias, 2010; Gallardo, 2016; Selwyn, 2016; 2017; 2018; Rocha & El Kadri, 2018).

2. Method

The research participants are 33 teachers-to-be. All of them study at the same Program at UNIPAMPA and were invited to take part in this research. They have selected pseudonyms (e.g. Ana, Dada, Jane, Lullaby, Yoda, 1995) in order to protect their privacy when disseminating the results. Data have been collected through an online questionnaire or a semi-structured interview. These data collection instruments throw some light upon how and why ICT resources are used by these research participants when improving their knowledge of the English language. Besides, this investigation focuses on how they see themselves as becoming teachers in this process.

3. Discussion

In relation to the first research question (“How do these research participants define themselves as future EAL teachers?”), when asked how much they identify themselves as future language teachers, their answers vary as follows: 18,18% of the research participants say that they identify themselves completely with teaching; 21,21% say that they identify themselves very much with it; 39,39% of them identify themselves partially with the teaching profession; and 21,21% of them say that they identify themselves very little with the idea of being an EAL teacher. Based on these data, the minority of these participants see language teaching as their future profession. This may have strong implications for the constitution of these teachers-to-be identity, especially for a possible lack of understanding in terms of their future possibilities.

Most of the research participants, who were between 18-30 years old at the time of data collection, say that they use technology for learning English, at least, 3 times a week. When asked how they study English, the most frequent answers were: 87% of them watch movies and/or sitcoms; 78% say that they listen to music; 69% say they make use of apps; 54% use social media; 36% read books in English. As evidenced by these data, these research participants make a frequent use of ICT resources; however, there is a tendency of connecting the study of English with entertaining practices. This is not necessarily a possible pitfall because these teachers-to-be have been in contact with the English language; as a consequence, they have been generating language input. On the other hand, there seems to be a lack of a more conscious study of the language – fact that may be relevant, especially for those language learners who are studying to become language teachers.

In relation to the second research question (“(How) do the ICT resources they have been using impact on their process of becoming teachers?”), 69% of the research participants affirm that they, as future language teachers, are partially prepared for using technology in their own classes, 9% say they are a little bit prepared, and 3% affirm that they are not at all prepared to use any ICT resources in their classes. Although only 18% of them say that they are well prepared to make use of technology in their own classes, and 9% say they are totally prepared to make this use, most of the research participants, when elaborating on their answers, align with the idea that ICT resources are very useful for language study: "Technology is crucial for learning; you can access the content you want to using your mobile; I have also used some apps when learning English” (1995), and “[in the Program] this is highlighted that with technology – games, songs, videos, online communication platforms or homework – we can help our students a lot, teaching dynamic classes in which they can engage and be motivated for learning” (Lullaby). There is evidence to argue that
these teachers-to-be see ICT resources useful for both their language learning development as well as their future teaching practice. On the other hand, most of them argue that they are not prepared to make use of these ICT resources. This way, there seems to be a mismatch between their perceptions about the usefulness of technological devices when learning a language and their expectations towards their future teaching career.

This is connected somehow to the third research question (“(How) will this investigation help better integrate ICT resources in the Additional Languages Teacher Education Program of UNIPAMPA?”), most of the research participants see a need of relating their perceptions and expectations about their future teaching practice and the use of ICT resources in their own classes to the language teacher professional development, offered at UNIPAMPA. In this regard, they highlight the need of knowing how and why to use technology in their learning-how-to-be-a-teacher process, as evidenced by the following excerpts: "(…) there is no digital literacy [in the Program] that teaches us how to use them [ICT resources]" (Jane); "I think that there should be further explanation on how to make use of these technological devices (…)" (Dada); "I believe that the Program expects us to use technology, but there are no specific courses that aim at discussing (about) and preparing us for this use in class” (Ana). The voice of these teachers-to-be brings important contributions to the Program.

4. Conclusions

In this paper, critically questioning the taken for granted assumptions that people know how to make the best use of ICT resources for language learning and that by using these resources future teachers will certainly become better professionals, I have attempted to investigate how Brazilian teachers-to-be deal with technology for English language learning and how they perceive technology interfering in their teacher education process. In other words, this study focuses on how these social spaces of the ICTs may help these research participants improve their English and shape their identities as future language teachers. Based on the data analyzed, there is evidence to argue that, according to this research participants’ view, the use of ICT resources may be very useful in terms of learning English. On the other hand, it seems there is a need of empowering future language teachers by increasing their awareness and understanding of their own learning process (as language learners as well as future teachers). This empowerment process may be enhanced by the work of teacher educators who can further guide future language teachers in the selection, use, implementation and critical positioning towards the use of technology, aiming at a critical understanding and development of digital literacy. In this perspective, as pointed out by Selwyn (2018), “technology has politics”. Having a political agenda as future language teachers and language teacher educators seems to make sense in my working context. In this perspective, there may be implications of these findings in the wider CALL context. It seems educators and researchers need to further encourage future language teachers to think more critically about the possible impacts of technology on language teaching, focusing on their own identity as professionals and on the teaching profession in a broader perspective.

5. Acknowledgements

This paper makes part of the Research Project “Constitution of Language Teachers Identity and the Use of ICT Resources: the education of English as an Additional Language teachers at UNIPAMPA” and the Research Groups “LECiber: Letras e Educação na Cibercultura” (in English, Languages and Education in the Cyberculture), and “Ensino e aprendizagem de línguas: uma abordagem quantitativa” (in English, Language Teaching and Learning: a quantitative research approach).

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A framework for enhancing mobile learner-determined language learning in authentic situational contexts

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Abstract

Mobile technology melds the mobile learner’s authentic real and virtual worlds, enabling increasingly untethered personalized, learner-determined language learning opportunities. This article introduces an evidence-based framework based upon cumulative findings from a number of the authors’ recent and ongoing research projects involving the collection of data from: language, literacy, and mobile learning experts, mobile technology experts, adult higher education, second language, and literacy learners, and expansive reviews of pertinent literature. This framework provides guidance for designing mobile language learning activities within the learner’s evolving personal, authentic situational learning context. The framework consists of three learner dimensions and four external environmental elements that synergistically define the dynamics of this learning context. The merger of these learner dimensions and external contextual elements yields three inter-dependent learning concepts that enhance the mobile learner’s motivation and self-determination; these inter-dependent learning concepts are relevancy, adaptation, and personalization. Application of these concepts enables instructors and learners to adjust activities by varying context-dependent and independent degrees of learner freedom, system control, structure and progression, content themes and topics, support and feedback, and interaction, as well as task types, layouts, and difficulty levels, with the benefit of environmental affordances. This framework is currently being used to develop a freely-available mobile app that aims to provide increasingly untethered, personalized, learner-determined language learning opportunities within the mobile adult literacy learner’s authentic situational contexts.

Keywords: Adaptation; authentic situational contexts; external environmental elements; inter-dependent learning concepts; learner-determined; learner dimensions; MALL; mobile-assisted language learning; mobile adult literacy learner; personalization; relevancy

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1. Introduction

Mobile technology offers untethered personalized, learner-determined language learning by merging the mobile learner’s personal, authentic real and virtual worlds. The framework presented herein introduces three learner dimensions and four external elements that dynamically formulate the learner’s authentic situational learning context, and provides guidance for designing mobile language learning activities within this context.

The framework is based upon cumulative findings from research on mobile language learning (Palalas, 2012; 2015), learner-determined emergent technology integration (Wark, 2018a; 2018b), and a mobile-
assisted language literacy project (Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b). These aggregated study results highlight the benefits of mobile learning activities in the learner’s authentic situational context and identify context, with its related design principle, integrate environmental affordances, as a key pedagogical requirement in mobile language learning design (Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b).

2. Discussion

A key finding emerging from the collective research data was the need for learners to become increasingly independent, or “self-determined” (Hase & Kenyon, 2001; 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2000a; 2000b). The more self-determined a learner is, the more intrinsically-motivated to learn and actively engage in exploring and directing their own learning the learner becomes. The learning process shifts from one in which the focus is upon knowledge transmission and the development of instrumental reasoning, or the “what” and “how” of learning, to one that blends instrumental reasoning with transformative thought (that is, engagement of rational thinking and creative intuition), thus addressing the “what, how, why, when, where, and who” of learning (Hase & Kenyon, 2001; 2013; Wark, 2018a; 2018b). It is within this learner-determined paradigm that the learner’s personal, authentic situational context becomes tantamount in their development as lifelong and life-wide learners.

The learner’s authentic situational context interweaves three key learner dimensions: (1) the learner (including personal history and experience; Bamberger & Tal, 2007), (2) language (with speaking, listening, reading, and writing sub-dimensions), and (3) mobile learning (consisting of the mobile learner and digital literacy), with four dynamic elements: (1) the setting (time and space), (2) participants, (3) technology, and (4) behaviours and interactions, governed by social-cultural norms (Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b).

The synergy between learner dimensions and external contextual elements yields three prevalent, interdependent learning concepts: relevancy, adaptation, and personalization (Palalas, 2015; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b; Wark, 2018). These salient concepts enable instructors and learners to adjust activities by varying context-dependent and independent degrees of learner freedom, system control, structure and progression, content themes and topics, support and feedback, and interaction, as well as task types, layouts, and difficulty levels, with the benefit of environmental affordances.

3. Conclusions

In summary, this article offers a framework and interactive dialogue on one pedagogical theme, context, as well as practical strategies, activities, and environmental affordances that enhance language learning opportunities within the mobile learner’s personal, authentic situational context.

The authors are currently engaged in a mobile-assisted language literacy project. Part of this project includes the development of a mobile adult language literacy app that illustrates how the learning dimensions (the learner, language, and mobile learning), external contextual elements (the setting, participants, technology, and behaviours/interactions), and resultant interdependent learning concepts (relevancy, adaptation, and personalization) can be incorporated to enhance the development of self-determined learners within their personal, authentic situational contexts.

Readers are invited to review the authors’ previous publications cited in this summary paper to obtain more information about the framework, three identified pedagogical design themes and their related principles, including the design theme, context, introduced herein, and discourse on the development of the self-determined learner within their personal, authentic real and virtual world situational context. Future publications on these topics are forthcoming as well.
4. Acknowledgements

This is a collaborative project between Athabasca University, George Brown College, Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) Toronto, Literacy Nipissing, AlphaPlus, and Development Made Simple. This project was made possible by a grant from the Social Science and Humanities Council of Canada.

5. References


A new method for summaries evaluation on a reading comprehension tool

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Abstract

COMPRENDE is an educational technology that uses different approaches to teach reading comprehension strategies to students from 5th to 7th grade. In this work, we propose a new version of COMPRENDE that incorporates Artificial Intelligence. The goal of the AI module is to provide flexibility over the type of student-generated text that can be evaluated by our system. For this purpose, a summaries evaluator has been developed using a discourse-based method that fuses syntactic and semantic models. The approach combines shallow linguistics features and speech patterns to evaluate the semantic content and coherence of free text responses, using computational linguistics and machine learning techniques.

To evaluate the semantic content of the text, we use two classic models of the literature: Vector Space Modelling, and Latent Semantic Analysis. We represented documents as mathematical vectors in which the dimensions are the frequency of words, relying on the assumption that texts with similar content should have similar scores. On the other hand, for the syntactic modelling we use an entity grid representation of the texts, which extracts syntactic patterns from the texts. This method relies on the assumption that coherent texts will have similar underlying syntactic patterns.

Initial experiments showed that our system obtains an accuracy of 90% when the content of the text is assessed, and an accuracy of 65% when assessing text coherence. In addition, the system provides feedback to the student by specific messages that help them to generate a better connection between the ideas of the text.

Keywords: Reading Comprehension, Learning Tool, Artificial Intelligence, Machine Learning, LSA, Entity Grids

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1. Introduction

Reading comprehension development improves chances of future progress of students, as well as their future development in working life (OCDE, 2013). Thus, communication with critical thinking through texts should be a central goal in schooling (Paris & Hamilton, 2009).

Standardized measurements of reading comprehension have shown that Chilean students are far from performing at acceptable levels (Soto & Jacovina, 2015). PISA test in 2015 showed that 28.4% of students could not achieve basic level (Level 2) of reading comprehension (OCDE, 2016), whereas the highest level was only achieved by 2.3% of the students. According to PISA, level 2 is a baseline of reading competence, because it implies having minimal reading skills required to participate effectively and productively in society. Moreover, Chile was ranked 41 out of 69 countries.

Reading comprehension skills can be improved by the teaching and practicing of different cognitive and metacognitive tasks. COMPRENDE (Soto, Gutierrez de Blume, Riffo & Figueroa, 2017) is an educational tool developed at Universidad de Concepción, that helps student training their reading comprehension skills via cognitive strategies, such as bridging between different concepts in a text. However, because the current version of COMPRENDE is statically designed, i.e., the set of possible answers in each module are predefined, it cannot assess open-ended answers.

In this work, we propose an enhanced COMPRENDE that incorporates Artificial Intelligence and computational linguistics techniques. This enhancement consists of an automated summary evaluator that assesses content and coherence of student summaries. The proposed module achieves over 90% of accuracy in assessing content of summaries and 65% in assessing coherence.

2. Method

2.1 A multiple dimension approach for automatic text assessment on a reading comprehension tool

As mentioned, we have proposed an automated summary evaluator. Unlike previous methods, our automated evaluator assesses separately the content and the coherence of each student summary by considering discourse patterns and latent semantic analysis.

Our proposed approach consists of a training phase and a runtime phase. In the training phase (Fig. 1), our method learns from a set of students’ responses that have been graded by hand (i.e., human graded corpus), and from a set of documents related to the questions answered by the students (i.e., domain-related corpus). In this phase, our method identifies semantic features and coherence features of each summary. These features allow our method to classify a summary with a score. We have used Random Forest (Breiman, 2001) as classification method.

In the runtime phase (Fig. 2), students’ responses are submitted to COMPRENDE to be assessed for their content and coherence. Then, the system will compute scores and will give the student a feedback based on obtained scores.
2.2. Semantic Features

Each summary is represented in a Vector Space Model (Peng, Ke, Chen & Xu, 2010), which is a mathematical representation of the texts based on term frequency. Then, we apply Latent Semantic Analysis (Landauer, Laham, & Foltz, 2003), which is a dimensionality reduction technique that addresses Vector Space Model issues such as detecting synonym and semantic relationships. To obtain the semantic space, a corpus related to domain of interest is needed. Finally, students’ responses are mapped to this semantic space.

2.3. Coherence Features

To obtain coherence features, each summary is represented as an Entity Grid (Barzilay & Lapata, 2008), which is a computational linguistics model based on centering theory (Grosz, Weinstein & Joshi, 1995). The centering theory is a linguistics discourse model that states that coherence of a text depends on how entities (e.g. noun phrases) in a text are distributed across utterances, and that a text is perceived as less coherent if there are too many changes of focus in the text. This has been proven to have a high degree of correlation in coherence assessments (Miltsakaki & Kukich, 2004). Entity grids (Fig. 3) represents text in a grid, in which rows are sentences and columns are entities in the text (e.g. noun phrases, pronouns, etc.). Each cell of the grid is the grammatical role of the entity in a given sentence. The model considers four types of roles: subject (s), object (o), other (x) and non-present (-).
The key rationale to use these features is that the distribution of entities in coherent summaries should show some regularities on its entity grid representation.

2.4. Experiments

To evaluate our proposed approach, we have used students’ responses in two domains: Water and Adolescent Games. These responses have been gathered by a previous version of COMPRENDE, and they have been human-graded following a predefined criterion.

Table 1. Collected data to validate the developed model.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Domain</th>
<th># Student Responses</th>
<th>Corpus for Semantic Model</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Games</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assess the performance of our proposed approach, we have used the metric of accuracy, which corresponds to the ratio between correctly assessed responses (same score that a human expert would have assigned) and total number of responses. Table 2 summarizes our results.

Table 2. Results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text Domain</th>
<th>Content Model Accuracy</th>
<th>Coherence Model Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adolescent Games</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Discussion

Our proposed approach obtained 0.9 accuracy on assessing content and 0.65 accuracy on assessing coherence. This means it is possible to automate the assessing of open-ended responses.

Lower accuracy was obtained in Adolescent Games domain. We theorize that gathering more data from students could improve the content accuracy on this domain. Regarding coherence, in both domains obtained similar results. A possible explanation for this, is that how human perceives coherence cannot be captured solely relying on the entity grid model, because the model is limited only to entity distributions across the text. To improve this accuracy, the model should be enhanced, for example considering other linguistics resources that trigger coherence at some degree, such as discourse markers.
4. Conclusions

In this work, we propose a novel approach to assess student summaries, that is based on multiple dimensions in a reading comprehension. The approach combines incorporates Artificial Intelligence and computational linguistics techniques in order to evaluate a summary’s content and coherency. Experiments showed that our proposed method achieves results with high accuracy when compared to human assessment. Future work of this research is to incorporate more domains, and also propose new predictors to help the system learn the scoring model, such as discourse markers, readability indices, among others.

5. Acknowledgements

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Moodle app gamification features and their potential for foreign language learning

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Abstract

This paper aims at exploring the educational potential of gamification in teaching German as a Foreign Language (GFL) by developing, implementing and evaluating a gamified, technology-assisted language course. An exploratory research was conducted to examine the affordances of the Moodle App to support a gamified language programme. Students (n=39) from a Dutch pre-vocational secondary school enrolled in the six-week gamified German A1 course called MISSION BERLIN, using the open-source learning platform Moodle and its app. Data collection methods include semi-structured focus group interviews, and interaction logs from the Moodle environment. Results indicate that the Moodle app is not suitable for a full gamified language programme, however, it can support a gamified language course.

Keywords: foreign language learning, gamification, Moodle, MALL

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1. Introduction

Gamification draws on the self-determination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000) and Csikszentmihályi’s theory of flow (1975) and is defined is the “process of making activities in non-game context more game-like by using game design elements” (Sailer, Hense, Mayr, & Mandl, 2017, p. 372). This process needs to be fuelled by a well-balanced mix of concrete elements (e.g. badges, leaderboard) and abstract elements (e.g. challenge, cooperation). Although both types deal with learners’ motivation and engagement, gamified learning occurs only when at least some abstract game elements are used, and for that concrete game elements are needed first (Pardoel, 2018, p. 12).

One non-game context with high expectations regarding gamification, is the field of education. The main promise is that it gives the educator a number of powerful tools to improve learners’ motivation and enhance students’ engagement. Although the playful design of games has a lot to offer to education, only a handful of studies on Gamification in education were placed in a secondary school setting (eg. Caponetto, Earp, & Ott, 2014; de Sousa Borges, Durelli, Reis, & Isotani, 2014; Dicheva, Dichev, Agre, & Angelova, 2015). Similarly, not many studies dealt with gamification in the Foreign Language (FL) or Second Language (L2) classroom in this setting.
At the same time, smartphones developed into complex devices that pedagogically can support anything that can be done with a computer (Burston, 2014). For example, mobile assisted language learning (MALL) offers language learners the possibility to create, rather than to consume, multimedia, as well as to play games and generally to learn at any time, any place (Godwin-Jones, 2016). This means that a gamified approach in a mobile learning environment, such as Moodle, has expectations from both sides to intensify students’ learning experience.

This paper is part of a larger Exploratory Research (Pardoel, 2018), aiming to better understand the affordances of mobile Gamification in FL/L2 education, specifically in the context of a Dutch secondary school. In this paper, we seek to answer following research question: in what way do the affordances of the Moodle App support a gamified language programme, called MISSION BERLIN?

2. Method

2.1. The setting

The exploratory study took place in a Dutch public pre-vocational school. The students (n=39, age 13/14) took a six-week course German as a Foreign Language (GFL) at CEFR-A1 level. This group of students (m=16/f=23) plays various games in their free time. All of them used their personal mobile device (smartphone) to play MISSION BERLIN, as well as the school’s Wi-Fi network.

2.2. Research design and data collection

The data were collected in a mixed method procedure. The students played MISSION BERLIN for six weeks. During the programme, their interactions (e.g. login times, task completion, quiz results) with the Moodle app were automatically recorded in the Moodle logs and evaluated. After finishing the game, all students were randomly assigned to one of the ten focus groups. Interviews with those groups were held in Dutch (L1) one week after finishing MISSION BERLIN. The answers were then coded and compared to the quantitative data in the Moodle logs.

2.3. Gamified course design

The GFL course MISSION BERLIN was designed for students with very low proficiency in German. As requested by Dutch education policy, it includes both linguistic, as well as cultural aims. The topics are based on the A1-CEFR. The storyline starts with the fictional arrival of the players at the Köln (Cologne) central train station, and challenged the players to travel to Berlin within six weeks. By doing so, they need to visit several German cities, and complete individual tasks and group tasks (“challenges”). Some challenges are optional. Upon completion, the students gain coins, tickets, items and points. As suggested by Muntean (2011), the challenges are uncovered progressively. In other words, new cities become accessible only when the previous activities are completed.

3. Discussion

Originally, MISSION BERLIN was designed for the desktop version of Moodle, but due to the limited availability of laptops and computers, it was decided to adapt the course and use the open source Moodle app as a fallback instead. As a result, specialised gamification blocks, such as LevelUp! or Stash, were not useful anymore, as they were not compatible with the Moodle app. Core blocks however (e.g. uploading audio, submitting work, reading or uncovering content), were supported in both the desktop version and the mobile application. As a result, students did not think of MISSION BERLIN as a game (n=8 yes; n=10 partially; n=10 no). For example, only 2 out of 39 students noticed the collectors’ items and not a single student mentioned the leaderboard, progress bars, or the amount of points they gained. Also, there was no option for virtual currency, as coins could be collected, but never spent.

As confirmed by several scholars (e.g. Burston, 2014; Godwin-Jones, 2011), reading from a small screen remains one of the challenges for MALL-related activities. The amount of "scrolling" and lack of overview was frequently mentioned in the interviews. As a result, the students completed the activities in a linear way, meaning that one student’s smartphone showed the information, while the others wrote the answers to the task. When finished, the first student continued the lesson and copied the work of the teammates.
Results from the interview also show that students considered the app a double-edged sword. On the one hand, they liked the fact that they could use their device for educational purposes. However, more research is necessary to determine if this is indeed a result from Gamification, or whether this is simply a novelty effect (Hamari et al., 2014). On the other hand, some students felt the app “intruded” their private lives. In particular using memory space without their permission made them feel out of control.

Finally, results from focus group interviews showed that most students (n=27 definitely; n=6 maybe; n=2 no), would like to play MISSION BERLIN again, provided some improvements in the new version have been taken care of.

4. Conclusions

From the results of this study, we can draw the following conclusion: the affordances of the Moodle app for gamifying purposes are limited. The Moodle app is not suitable for a full gamified language course, as it relies on core blocks only, thus making it less suitable to add specific concrete game elements. Concrete game elements are needed in order to let more abstract game elements come to live in a gamified system. Furthermore, the Moodle app saves photos and documents in the students’ private domains. Even though technically there is no problem for the act of gamifying a course, the students still considered it a violation of their privacy and did not approve it. However, the Moodle app can support a gamified language course, provided activities also take place in other learning environments and possibly with other devices.

Gamification in MALL is still in its infancy, and while mobile learning alone already entails a promise of positive motivational effects (Myhre, 2015), at the same time there is still a large gap to fill how gamification in MALL can work, especially in the context of underage students. Although this study partially contributes to that question, more research is needed.

5. References


Norwegian Immigrants (Master’s thesis).


Abstract

This article presents an iterative cycles of data analyses from relevant literature reviews merged with respondent data from literacy, language learning, mobile learning, and mobile technology experts, and adult literacy learners in a mobile language literacy project generated three distinct, albeit inter-related pedagogical design themes and principles supporting mobile learner-determined language learning. A brief overview of each design theme and related principle is introduced first, followed by a number of suggested strategies and activities, which illustrate how these design themes and principles can be applied in praxis. This practical discussion is enriched by the inclusion of examples of freely-available apps and technologies that support these and other mobile language learning goals, strategies, and activities. The aim of this work is to provide practical guidance and tools (including freely-available apps) for language instructors and learners within a pedagogical framework designed to promote mobile learner determined language learning.

Keywords: MALL; mobile assisted language learning; language learning apps, learner-determined; context

1. Introduction

The Literacy Uplift project is research project, supported by the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) funding, is aimed at Canadian adults (16-65 years old) from diverse cultural and educational backgrounds. The project aims to create a set of mobile learning (m-learning) tasks and activities that will result in increasing the literacy level of the learner to at least level 3 on a Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) test (recognized as sufficient by Employment and Development Canada) in order to facilitate their success in Canadian socio-cultural and workplace environments. This article presents results of iterative cycles of data analyses from relevant literature reviews merged with respondent data from literacy, language learning, mobile learning, and mobile technology experts, and adult literacy learners in a mobile language literacy project that has generated three distinct, albeit inter-related pedagogical design themes and principles supporting mobile learner-determined language learning.
2. **DBR Method**

This Design-Based Research (Bannan, 2009; Design-Based Research Collective, 2003; Palalas, 2012; Palalas et al., 2015; Reeves, 2006) study follows an iterative approach, allowing for its results to reflect ongoing feedback from faculty, participants and experts. DBR is used to investigate complex, dynamic and ambiguous realities and designs grounded in real-world settings, by applying, extending and creating new pragmatic and theoretical approaches. DBR addresses complex educational problems, via continuous iterations of analysis, design, development, enactment, and evaluation, leading to refinements, revisions and ultimately improved design that is contextualized in the unique educational setting; this flexible yet systematic process of rigorous and reflective inquiry involves collaboration, interaction and communication with a multi-disciplinary and transcultural team of designers, researchers, practitioners, students and other stakeholders; multiple research methods can be integrated to gather feedback representing the various perspectives involved, and in turn providing richer findings and triangulation of data; lastly, it results in new knowledge, tested design principles, and contextually-sensitive yet replicable designs and theories that are co-created and subsequently shared with practitioners and the target population” (Palalas et al., 2015).

The multi-cycle DBR approach (a version of the ILDF model proposed by Bannan, 2009) comprises three phases: (1) Informed Exploration, (2) Enactment, and (3) Evaluation (Local Impact; Palalas & Wark, 2017b). Each of the phases goes through multiple iterations allowing for the refinement of the design and collection of up-to-date feedback.

3. **Discussion**

Three inter-related pedagogical design themes and principles supporting mobile learner-determined language learning were distilled from a DBR mobile language literacy project merging iterations of data collection from literature with surveys, interviews, and focus group discussions from literacy, language learning, mobile learning, and mobile technology experts, and adult literacy learners (Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b). This section introduces these themes and resulting design recommendations and offers some relevant activities that employ freely-available apps and digital tools.

The most prevalent design theme discerned from the data was **Mobility**, with the principle, *Design for the mobile learner*. Attention must shift from perpetually-evolving technologies to address the mobile learner’s distinctive behaviours, actions, preferences, and attitudes as the learner moves across physical and virtual spaces (Sharples & Pea, 2014; Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017; Palalas & Wark, 2017a; 2017b). A seamless transition across spaces requires standardization and technological support through solutions such as SCORM and xAPI (Murray et al, 2012). As the seamless transition between platforms and spaces is offered by applications such as Duolingo, Busu or Babel, the standardization postulated by Murray remains a theory.

The second theme identified was **Learner-Determined**, and its related principle, *Respond to the learner*. In other words, “ask the learner, listen to the learner, and respond to the learner’s wants and needs” (Palalas, Pawluk, & Wark, 2017). Mobile language learning activities should enable learner choice, agency, and flexibility. For instance, Prodigy (Kay & Kwak, 2017) and Duolingo (Munday, 2016) adapt content to the learner’s progress, while learning platforms such as Lynda.com provide space for self-directed learning (Bonk et.al, 2015).

The last theme was Context, with its design principle, *Integrate environmental affordances into the design*. Study results accentuated the importance of incorporating m-learning activities into the learner’s authentic situational context. Dynamic elements of this context include “the setting (time and space), participants, technological factors, and socio-cultural norms that govern behaviour and interaction” (Edge et.al, 2011; Palalas & Wark, 2017b). The technology can be leveraged to provide just-in-time support for learners e.g. through translation (Google Translate, Google Lens) or search functions (Siri, Google Assistant).
4. Conclusions

The three themes identified in our research show that there is a consensus between learners and teachers about a need for personalized and contextualized learner-determined learning experience. Technology in this experience is a supportive tool that should be “invisible” rather than a “star” of the show. Contextualized and learner-determined learning must be relevant to the learner in order to keep the motivation high, especially among the adult learners. It has to also include various dimensions of mobility allowing the learner to control time, location, and tools used for the learning experience. All this would not be possible without proper support of technology.

5. Acknowledgements

This research project, supported by SSHRC funding, is a collaboration between George Brown College, Athabasca University, AlphaPlus, Literacy Nipissing, and Development Made Simple.

6. References


Complexity of affordances of mobile technologies in early language learning educational context

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Abstract
The article examines the complexity of affordances of mobile technologies in the K-12 language learning educational context. The study is first guided by a theoretical framework anchored in an ecological perspective and informed by theories of dynamic systems and complexity to explore the concept of affordances as a complex and dynamic system. The study made use of a digital ethnographic and participatory research methodology that focuses on doing research with young learners involved in their learning activities. The data analysis allowed the emergence of the following affordances offered by the mobile technologies: the sensorial and tactile affordances, the multimodal affordances, and the portability and accessibility affordances. However, the findings support the view that these affordances need to be understood as a complex and dynamic system that involves the interplay between the technological affordances of the mobile devices; the learning environment, which includes the physical and social space as well as the pedagogical practices adopted by teachers; and the learners’ physical, social, cognitive, and metacognitive behaviors. Following the outcomes of the study, the author of the article argues that the physical affordances of the mobile devices, by themselves, do not transform the nature of learning or the learning process and they are not a substitute for inadequate pedagogical practices.

Keywords: affordances; mobile technologies; MALL; K-12 educational context; early language learning context; complex and dynamic system

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1. Introduction
The use of mobile technologies has invaded all spheres of our daily life. This phenomenon is also observed in classrooms around the world, where emergent mobile devices such as tablets (e.g., iPads) are becoming preferred learning tools. Studies in the field of mobile assisted language learning (MALL)—have examined the role of the affordances offered by mobile tools such as smart phones and tablets in enhancing learning opportunities and the language learning environment (e.g., Stockwell, 2012; Duman, Orhon & Gedik, 2015). However, most of the MALL research in the last decade has been mainly concerned with intermediate learners or older and mature language learners such as college and university students. As a reaction to the phenomena of globalization, there is a rapid increase of second language programs for young learners as early as kindergarten across Asia and other parts of the world. Therefore, there is a greater need
for more MALL research that further investigates the use of emergent mobile technologies by young learners in the language learning educational context. In the literature relating to k-12 educational context, mobile technologies such as iPad have been recognized as valuable tools in supporting teaching and learning (e.g., Karsenti & Fiévez, 2013; Liu, Navarrete, Maradiegue, & Wivagg, 2014). Given the recent increases in the use of mobile technologies such as tablets (e.g. iPad) with young language learners (e.g. Pellerin, 2014; 2017) we need to examine more closely the role of the affordances of such mobile technology in reshaping not only the learning environment but also the learners’ language learning experiences. The article explores the concept of affordance with mobile technologies following an ecological perspective (van Lier, 2008) and theories of dynamic systems and complexity (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008). It is also built on the conceptualization of the learning process as a dynamic and complex system proposed by Zhang & Zhang (2013). The following questions are guiding the inquiry:

- What are the affordances the mobile technologies offer to the young learner in language learning educational context?
- How can the affordances offer by mobile technologies contribute in reshaping the learning environment as well as the learners’ language learning experiences?
- How can the affordances of mobile technologies support cognitive and metacognitive learner dimensions such as learner agency, autonomy, motivation, engagement, and self-regulation?

2. Method

2.1 Methodology

The findings presented in this article are part of a large research project and some of the outcomes of the data analysis have been the objects of other publications. The inquiry involved a digital ethnographic and participatory research method (Pellerin, 2017) that focused on young French language learners while engaged in learning activities with the use of digital and mobile technologies in the classrooms. The large research project involved 16 classrooms and over 350 students in Grades 1 (6 years of age) through 7 (12 years of age).

2.2 Data collection and Analysis

Digital data (audio and video recording) was gathered by the researcher as well as digital artifacts produced by the young learners themselves with the use of diverse educational applications (“apps,” e.g., Explain Everything; Puppet Pal, etc.) available on tablets (e.g. iPads). A coding process aligned with qualitative research approaches (Miles & Huberman, 1994) was first used to analyze the data obtained from the various sources. In the analysis, the coding process was also informed by the concept of perceivable affordances put forward by Norman (1999) which define affordance as the actions users consider possible to achieve with the tools made available to them.

3. Findings and Discussion

The following key concept has been retained for the purpose of this article: the sensorial and tactile affordances, the multimodal affordances, and the portability and accessibility affordances. The nature of these emergent affordances need to be understood as micro-systems rather than isolated elements. These affordances offered by the mobiles devices such as iPads, and more specifically, the access to multimodal and sensorial apps can only be understood as part of a dynamic and complex system. They have emerged from the interplay between the contextual elements such as the learner, the learning environment, the physical and social space; and the learner dimensions that involve the learner agency, autonomy, motivation, engagement, and self-regulation.

The data analysis revealed that some apps (e.g. “apps” Explain Everything) made available on the mobile devices offer possible sensorial and tactile affordances that allow young language learners to record their voices while simultaneously handwriting or drawing, to produce a personal video. Moreover, some of these apps enable the learners to have direct sensorial interaction with the touchscreen by the use of their finger. These haptic affordances allow the young learners to erase any aspect of their drawing, and to manipulate
various objects (different characters, settings, pictures, etc.) in order to create their own digital animation. In turn, direct interaction with the device through sensorial touch allows the emergence of a sense of control and agency over the learning task. The data demonstrate the interplay between the multimodal affordances offered by the mobile devices, the learning environment, and the behaviors of learners (in terms of their ability to exercise control over their learning) contributes to the emergence of a sense of agency, and the possibility of engaging in metacognitive actions such as self-regulation as well as peer regulation. Greater autonomy on the part of the learner promotes higher level of engagement and motivation toward the learning activities. The portability and accessibility have also emerged as being perceivable affordances (Norman, 1999) in supporting and promoting learning. However, these emergent affordances in themselves do not enhance the learning process. Thus, it is the interplay of all the contextual elements and the learner behaviors with the portability and accessibility as affordances that supports and enhances the learning process as well as the learners’ experience.

4. Conclusions

This short article provides new insights into the concept of affordances in MALL, and in particular, in the early language learning context. It also hopes that the adoption of ecological and complexity perspectives into the inquiry of the concept of affordances will better equip scholars, educators, and educational stakeholders to navigate the complexity of the concept of affordances, which goes beyond the limits of physical characteristics and functionality of the mobile devices.

5. References


CALL in initial teacher education in Brazil: a reflection on its challenges and opportunities

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Abstract

This paper discusses the challenges and opportunities of CALL integration in initial teacher education in Brazil based on an action research conducted in a public university in Niterói, Rio de Janeiro. The context of the study is an elective discipline which aimed at introducing the concept of CALL and providing participants with hands-on practice with varied technologies and approaches for language teaching and learning. Participants comprise seven undergraduate students who were about to graduate and already had some teaching experience. The action research aimed at identifying participants’ perceptions on the discipline and on the pedagogical use of digital tools for language teaching.

Analysis of data collected through the researcher’s reflective diary, students-teacher’s online interactions, and CALL materials and digital portfolios designed by participants indicate that participants were able to perceive the many opportunities of technology integration in the language classroom, highlighting the use of authentic and meaningful materials for language teaching and practice and the creation of digital narratives. One of the main challenges presented by participants was the lack of CALL training at university since none of them had ever had any discipline that approached the use of digital technologies for language teaching throughout their pre-service teacher education. Hence, the paper urges for CALL integration in the curriculum of initial teacher education in Brazilian universities focusing on the development of students’ digital literacy and the critical appropriation of digital tools so that digital technologies can be used effectively in the classroom bringing up transformations in language teaching and learning.

Keywords: CALL integration; Initial Teacher Education; Curriculum.

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1. Introduction

Digital technologies have brought countless opportunities to meaningful language teaching and learning. However, many language teachers seem to be unfamiliar with these tools and the possibilities they offer to enhance language learning processes (Kessler, 2017).

In Brazil, although several official documents for teacher education recognize the importance of teachers being able to use digital tools effectively in the classroom (Brasil, 2001, 2015; Paiva, 2013), many universities do not approach CALL in their curricula for language teacher education courses. Facing this challenge in a language institute at a public university in Niterói, Rio de Janeiro, an action research (Tripp, 2005) was conducted in order to identify the contributions of an elective discipline to the development of future teacher’s digital literacy skills and the integration of CALL in their initial teacher education.
To better understand these contributions, the following research questions guided the study:

1. What are participants’ perceptions on the discipline and on the pedagogical use of digital tools for language teaching?

2. What are the challenges and opportunities of such discipline to future language teacher education?

2. Method

2.1 Methodology and design

The action research followed Tripp’s four basic phases of action inquiry (Tripp, 2005): (1) the design of the new discipline, (2) the monitoring, collection and description of data and its analysis, (3) the evaluation of results; and (4) the reflection on its results and the planning of future actions to enhance teacher education for the integration of digital technologies in language teaching and learning at the university.

2.2 Context and participants

The course “Digital Technologies in Foreign Language Teaching” was offered as an elective discipline to the students at the Modern Foreign Language Department of the Universidade Federal Fluminense in Niterói- Rio de Janeiro during the second semester of 2017. It aimed at introducing the concept of CALL and providing participants with hands-on practice with varied technologies for language teaching and learning, such as virtual learning environments (VLE), social media, digital games, mobile apps, and others. Students also had the opportunity to experiment different teaching approaches such as flipped classroom, project-based learning, webquests, BYOD, m-learning, b-learning and e-learning.

Participants comprise seven undergraduate students of different language courses (English, Italian, German and Portuguese), who were about to graduate and already had some teaching experience.

2.3 Procedures and research instruments

The course used Google Classroom as a VLE and many discussions and online activities were conducted there. Throughout the course students were expected to discuss different topics related to CALL and design various teaching materials and tasks using digital tools (webquests, digital narratives, word clouds, etc.). The final assessment was a digital portfolio where students were supposed to gather all their production (digital artefacts) and reflect on their own learning.

As the research aimed to evaluate the experience through the analysis of participants’ perceptions on the discipline and on the pedagogical use of digital tools for language teaching, all the data generated throughout the course were used in the study. Research tools included the researchers’ reflective diary, students-teacher’s interactions on the VLE, and the digital portfolios.

3. Discussion

The content analysis (Bardin, 2009) of students’ interactions and digital portfolios showed that participants considered CALL a valuable aspect in their teacher education. They were able to perceive the many opportunities of technology integration in the language classroom, highlighting the use of authentic and meaningful materials for language teaching and practice, such as the creation of digital narratives.

Participants also showed concern about the lack of CALL training at university since none of them had ever had any discipline that approached the use of digital technologies for language teaching throughout their pre-service teacher education. They also highlighted the need for changes in their curriculum, which should include both specific courses and a transversal approach to CALL in their own language learning.

Thus, the main opportunity of the discipline to future teacher education was the new perspective student-teachers had of language teaching in the digital age, the importance of CALL integration and the need for changes in teaching practices. Other important contributions of the discipline comprise the development of
participants’ digital literacy, autonomy and collaboration skills. Throughout the discipline students were also able to experiment the expansion of the physical classroom and develop 21st century skills.

The main challenge faced during the experience was the lack of appropriate infrastructure such as equipment and good internet connection. The fact that this discipline constitutes an isolated practice in the language education course at the university also demands some critical analysis as CALL integration should pervade the curriculum of all language courses in teacher education.

4. Conclusions

Although CALL has been around for a few decades and digital technologies permeate all our daily practices, including teaching and learning, it is not possible to continue ignoring it in the education of future language teachers. This action research shows the contributions of an elective discipline to the development of future teacher’s digital literacy skills highlighting the importance of CALL integration in their initial teacher education.

The reflections on the results presented here enabled changes in a second version of the course conducted in the second semester of 2018 and will contribute to the design of a proposal for a mandatory discipline in the English Language Course. The research also led to a second research project on the creation of a technology laboratory for language teacher education to be implemented at the institution in 2019.

Hence, this reflective paper urges for CALL integration in the curriculum of initial teacher education in Brazilian universities. This integration should focus on students’ digital literacy and the critical appropriation of digital tools so that these technologies can be used effectively in the classroom bringing up transformations in language teaching and learning practices in both basic and higher education.

5. References


Concepción, 13-16 November 2018

Automatic speech scoring system based on ROFALL

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Abstract

The automatic speech scoring system is developed to score the students’ English speech tests records on Rofall, an online language training platform for students to practice English listening, speaking, reading and writing out of the classroom or in the classroom. The system is aimed at an open-typed speech test called “Personal Statement”. In this test, students will first watch a video and then summarize it. In order to improve the human-machine correlations, we use the Deep Neural Networks (DNN) to predict the score. The system is supposed to go through three major steps to score a speech. First, the audio file will be converted to text using the speech recognition technology. Second, we input the text to a text evaluation website to get its textual features. Finally, two kinds of features of the student’s answer will be input into the DNN model: 1) textual features (relevance with topics, grammar, sentence structure, etc.); 2) students' English level features (regular grade). We use the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) to evaluate the quality of the scores acquired by the system, the higher the r value is, and the higher the accuracy will be. The average correlation between human scores and machine scores (of 0.56) differs by 0.15 from the inter-human r (of 0.71), the correlation of 0.56 is high enough to the deployment of the system.

Keywords: Speech scoring; Automatic scoring; Deep learning

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1. Introduction

In recent years, more and more Chinese colleges and universities have incorporated oral English teaching and examination into their English classes. Rofall is an online language training platform for students to practice English listening, speaking, reading and writing which has been used in Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications for many years. This platform can automatic score English tests except for the speech test. Speech tests on the platform are open type question, which have unfixed answers. Open questions are more challenging for automatic scoring because we cannot score it comparing to a template. To solve the problem, it is necessary to build an automatic speech scoring system (ASSS) for open type English speech tests, and break through the technical barriers of ASSS.

There are many studies have focused on the evaluation of speech. Some studies have evaluated one or more aspects of speech, such as pronunciation, intonation, and fluency (Ramanarayanan, 2017). Some studies use the traditional machine learning model, such as the Hidden Markov chain (HMM) model, to rate non-native speakers’ English speech (Neumeyer et al., 2000), the support vector machines (SVM) for scoring pronunciation of reading English articles (Zhang, 2012). There are several studies using multivariate regression (MR) and classification and regression tree (CART) to establish a scoring model for the scoring of spoken speech (Zechner et al., 2009; Zechner & Bejar, 2006), the results of this study have been applied to the TOEFL iBT test and achieved good results. Among the factors affecting the accuracy of automatic scoring of speaking tasks, the type of oral question is an important factor affecting the accuracy rate. The error between the automatic score of open oral questions and the teacher's score is still high and unstable (Evanini et al., 2013; Loukina, 2017). This study explore a method to score an open type speech test automatically and improve its accuracy to an acceptable degree.
2. Method

2.1. Data process

In order to use the data collected from Rofall system to develop the ASSS: First, we converted to text through “Baidu Speech Recognition” (http://ai.baidu.com/tech/speech), a mature speech recognition software widely used in China. Then, we use natural language processing (NLP) methods to process the text: including text segmentation, sentence breaking and spelling correction. This process help us to make the text content closer to the students’ speech because the accuracy of speech recognition cannot reach 100%.

2.2. Feature extraction

We use “Pigai” website (en.pigai.org), an online automated writing evaluation system with real-time holistic and sentence feedback, to evaluate the text. After the evaluation, five feature values can be obtained: vocabulary, sentences, text structure, contextual relevance and total score. We count the key word frequency as the text of the topic related features. The more key words appear, the more relevant the text is to the subject. In addition, we also collect the students' regular scores as the feature of students' English proficiency. Finally, we normalize and constitute these features to a vector as the input of our system.

2.3. Build Deep Neural Network

We input the data we have processed into the DNN as the training set and use the teacher's score as the supervision signal. We use the Error Back Propagation (BP) algorithm to train the neural network, mapping between implementation and input and output targets. We input the training set into the input layer, iterate through the hidden layer, and output the scoring model from the output layer. Then we input the test data into the scoring model to gain the scoring result, compare this result with the teacher's score, and then optimize the model to achieve the final model when the model tends to fit. Our ASSS uses this model to give a score of the speech.

3. Discussion

The performance of the system is shown in Table 1. In this paper, Pearson correlation coefficient r is used to evaluate the correlation between two sets of data, which is a number between -1.0 and 1.0, the larger the numerical value, the stronger the correlation between the two sets of data. As can be seen from the Table 1, the correlation between the instructor and the peer assessment is 0.71. The average deviation value to inter-human is 0.15. In the actual application scenario, the deviation value of 0.17 relative to the manual score correlation is sufficient for deployment in the actual examination system (Zechner, et al., 2009), so we consider that the scoring model can be deployed in the Rofall system. We can see the mean and variance of the scores of teachers, students and the automated scoring model. The mean score of the automatic model is very close to the teacher and student mutual evaluation scores, while the variance of the machine scoring is much smaller than that of the teacher and student mutual evaluation scores. That is to say, the result of the automatic scoring model is tend to give a score which is close to the average.
Table 1. Correlation, mean and standard deviation of instructor score, peer score and model score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rater</th>
<th>Samples</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson r Instructor score</th>
<th>Pearson r Peer score</th>
<th>Pearson r Model score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructor</td>
<td>3872</td>
<td>87.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>0.51(-0.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer assessment</td>
<td>3872</td>
<td>91.3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.61(-0.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>3872</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Conclusions

Our research realizes the automatic scoring system of open type English speech test and provides a way of thinking for the combination of artificial intelligence and automatic scoring. On the premise of having a large amount of data, neural networks can be trained to establish the complex nonlinear relationship between input and output characteristics. We believe there are much more ways to combine DNN with CALL to solve subjective problems like speech test scoring. Since our scoring model is based on speech recognition, it is based on spoken language content and phonetic features were not included. In the future, we will improve the model continuously and add the evaluation based on the audio to enhance the credibility of it.

5. References


Abstract

This presentation focuses on the description of a University online course called *e-dacta*. One of the main course objectives is to provide special scaffolding for those students who wish to become teachers of English and/or English-Spanish translators at Universidad Nacional de La Plata, Buenos Aires, Argentina (UNLP). The online course research has not only focused on the interaction among course participants and tutors, but it has also facilitated the social presence. Garrison, Anderson & Archer (2005) in Shearer (2012) highlighted the importance of a community of enquiry that is built through the social presence in which participants “project themselves socially and emotionally as ‘real’ people” together with the teaching presence in reference to “the design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes”, and with the cognitive presence “learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry”. This research is part of a thesis dissertation on ELT &LT. The thesis findings were positive in reference to the use of technology fostering interaction in the online courses. In 2013 the *e-dacta* course was selected by the British Council & Macmillan Publishers ICT in Action competition as one of best ten e-learning projects in Argentina.

Keywords: interaction; distance education; social presence

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1. Introduction

The *e-dacta* is a University course which has been specially designed for the introductory subject of the English Language courses of studies at the National University of La Plata (UNLP) in Argentina. The level required to pass the introductory course is a CEFR B2 level; therefore, the online course works not only as a guide which shows the academic knowledge required for the entrance course, but also, as a source of

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general and useful information about the faculty, and, a first contact to the university academic institution fostering social interaction within a VLE (Virtual Learning Environment).

The following research is part of the thesis dissertation called ‘La enseñanza de una lengua extranjera utilizando tecnología digital: estudio descriptivo del tránsito de un material impreso a un entorno virtual de aprendizaje’ (ELT & LT: A Descriptive Study of the Transition from a Written Material to a Virtual Learning Environment) http://sedici.unlp.edu.ar/handle/10915/59236

The e-dacta course has not only focused on the interaction among course participants and tutors, but it has also promoted the social presence which builds a sense of belonging to a group; in our case, it fostered a learning community which is certainly welcoming for students who come from other cities, provinces and, even from other countries to study at our Faculty.

2. Method

The first e-dacta cohort was launched in 2008, and, throughout all the cohorts we have collected many examples of interaction that we considered useful for our thesis data research. Two forums and two chat sessions from the 2013 e-dacta cohort were selected and analysed. Also, they were chosen because of the high degree of task participation and interaction.

We analysed the chat sessions and forums taking into account the categories described by Garrison and Anderson (2015) (see Figure 1). We also studied other elements that were or were not present in the online classroom interaction studied by Levy & Stockwell (2006), Tarone (1981) in Armendariz & Ruiz (2005) such as emotions, abbreviations, use of L1 (mother tongue), self-corrections, etc. (See Figure 2)

3. Discussion

Garrison, Anderson & Archer (2005) in Shearer (2012) highlighted the importance of a community of enquiry that is built through the social presence in which participants “project themselves socially and emotionally as ‘real’ people” together with the teaching presence in reference to “the design, facilitation, and direction of cognitive and social processes”, and with the cognitive presence “learners are able to construct and confirm meaning through sustained reflection and discourse in a critical community of inquiry”. Course participants were provided with authentic and collaborative tasks that had been carefully designed to achieve the course learning goals facilitating the co-construction of linguistic knowledge.

In order to achieve the pedagogical objectives, we had to cross a psychological and communicative approach; this ‘separation between student and teacher’ (Transactional Design; Moore, 2012) was minimized through the participants’ interaction: “the more efficient the dialogic exchange, the lower the perceived distance in the educational transaction, and the possibility for miscommunication is reduced.” (Shearer, 2012)

Participant’s presence and linguistic production turned visible through interaction triggered by meaningful tasks in the chat and forum tools. The social presence categories mentioned by Garrison & Anderson (2005) such as affective categories (expressions of emotions, humour and self-disclosure) flourished in the participants’ interaction driven by different motivations: future course of studies expectations, anxieties, fears, uncertainty, insecurities, empathy, etc.

After analyzing the corpus taken from the 2013 cohort, we found that out of 60 students, 36 of them participated actively in all the course tasks but only 5 students who achieved the highest level of course participation and VLE number of access (from 100 to 324), were the ones who completed all the tasks and course evaluation successfully.

The following tables (Figure 1 and 2) show the analysis of the corpus in relation to the students’ interaction as regards frequency and appearance of the categories of social presence and other items that were studied in this research.
4. Conclusions

Our thesis conclusions were positive in reference to the use of technology fostering interaction in the online courses. We noticed that the most active participants were the ones that achieved the course learning goals successfully. Students’ commitment and dedication were key factors in reference to the success of a distance course. It was through interaction that participants became visible and their learning outcomes were exposed. We also noticed that interaction was higher when students had the need to communicate.

Another important stage to put attention to when designing distance course is the course task design. Students’ goals were achieved successfully not only thanks to students’ commitment and dedication, but...
also to the design of engaging tasks which most students found useful and interesting to do as, in some cases, they had the need to participate and learn more about their future careers. Thus, communication was authentic in the sense that students sent and received messages effectively while negotiating meaning in order to achieve their goals. (Rubin & Thompson, 1994, p. 30) Therefore, the educational transaction was lower due to the possibility of more efficient dialogic exchange in the course communication. (Shearer, 2012)

Apart from the above-mentioned course achievements, the following list summarizes the most relevant goals achieved and related to our research:

- A Community of Inquiry was created promoting a sense of belonging
- Meaningful & collaborative tasks were designed to achieve the teaching goals which boosted the co-construction of linguistic knowledge.
- Students were given academic and general information about the faculty which would be useful during the first steps at university.
- Students were scaffolded by the Teaching Presence and the Cognitive Presence
- The foreign language, English, was the language that all the course participants used all the time to communicate and to do all the tasks.
- Students were encouraged to interact with an appropriate teaching presence which involved motivation, guidance, observation, evaluation, etc.

5. **Future Research**

Our future research on CALL will focus our work on the study of feedback and evaluation and the use of e-portfolios as metacognitive resources. We will analyse the power of words in relation to the feedback given by teachers and how they are received by students. We are living interesting times in which the old paradigms of space and time in relation to learning technologies and in reference to teaching practices have
changed significantly; therefore, we consider that we cannot continue assessing the same way we had been doing for so long.

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CALLing all the CALLers Worldwide

Concepción, 13-16 November 2018

Using CALL to design a self-access listening course on Moodle

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Abstract

This paper aims at showing how CALL and second language (L2) listening research have been used to offer further listening practice to intermediate students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). A self-access listening course with five sessions has been designed and implemented in the virtual classroom (Moodle 3.1) of the course English Language I, a first year core subject for undergraduate students doing their degrees in English Language Teaching, Translation and Research at the School of Languages, National University of Córdoba (UNC) in Córdoba, Argentina. The project was initially part of the author’s MA Dissertation at the University of Leeds in 2013 and, drawing on the data and results obtained, the sessions have been changed and improved in 2018. The self-access listening course is now available to the 600 students enrolled in the virtual classroom of English Language I showing how, by using grounded L2 listening theories, CALL can aid the design and implementation of self-access listening activities.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language (EFL); listening; Moodle; blended learning, virtual classroom

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1. Introduction

Listening is considered a difficult skill for learners of English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) because of its temporal nature, the complexity of the listening processes and the features of spoken language (Field, 2008; Lynch, 2009; Ur, 1984). A process-oriented listening pedagogy guides ESL/EFL learners into the skills, strategies and processes needed for different types of listening (Cauldwell, 2013; Field, 2008; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Goh, 2014). CALL materials can aid the implementation of this Process Approach to second language (L2) listening. Teachers can choose from a wide variety of scripted and authentic audios available on the web according to their students’ needs and technological devices allow learners to independently access the audios and do the listening tasks at their own pace (Wilson, 2008). As there is not a single method or technology to implement CALL, “one logical place to begin would be to look toward the research on L2 classroom teaching and instructed SLA to seek principles that might apply to CALL.” (Chapelle, 2005, p.744). Considering this, in 2013 a small-scale action research (AR) project used CALL and current L2 listening research to design a self-access listening course for intermediate EFL students and determine if students’ listening skills improved (Spataro, 2014). The results of the AR were
quite satisfactory and in 2018 the listening course has been reviewed considering the effects of the action (Burns, 2009).

2. The self-access listening course

The listening course consists of 5 sessions designed in the virtual classroom (Moodle 3.1) of the course English Language I, a first year subject for undergraduate students doing their degrees in English Teaching, Translation and Research at the School of Languages, National University of Cordoba (UNC), Argentina. Except for session 5, the sessions include: 1- a welcoming message with objectives and description of the activities, 2- Listening Activity 1 which draws students’ attention to the topic of the session, 3- Listening Activity 2 with specific practice on the topic and 4- links to listening activities from other sections of the virtual classroom. The listening sessions 1-3 use graded/scripted audios as “students may learn best from listening to speech which, while not entirely authentic, is an approximation to the real thing, and is planned to take into account the learners’ level of ability and particular difficulties” (Ur, 1984, p.23). Sessions 4 and 5 use authentic audios to offer speech at its normal rate of delivery with its typical features of spoken discourse (Lynch, 2009). Adobe Illustrator and clker.com have been used for the labels and images (Figure 1).

The sessions focus on perception skills as they are part of the first stage in listening instruction and can help avoid comprehension problems caused by decoding mistakes (Cauldwell, 2002; Goh, 2014). Session 1 introduces minimal pairs to practice accurate aural perception (Ur, 1984) and the compensatory strategies “predicting” and “guessing”. For Activity 1, students listen to a telephone message from ello.org, choose between two minimal pairs and read an explanation of the confusing English sounds for Spanish speakers.
Activity 2 uses a joke from learnenglish.britishcouncil.org for students to choose the right word (Figure 2).

Session 2 starts with a game from ello.org which can be carried through if stressed words are properly heard. Students complete then the tapescript with the missing stressed words (Figure 3). For Activity 2, students read about stress in English and practice choosing the stressed words in an audio from esl-lab.com.

Session 3 introduces unstressed words with a free audio from onestopenglish.com (Figure 4). Students learn about unstressed words and listen to the shop conversation again to fill in the gapped tapescript with function words.
Session 4 deals with the main features of fast connected speech: redistribution, assimilation, reduction and elision (Field, 2008) with a segment of Paul McCartney Carpool Karaoke. Students read about these features and practice with a short BBC interview. Session 5 helps students revise what they have learned throughout the course with activities related to The Beatles.

3. Discussion

The methods of data collection (personal journals, Moodle scores, final questionnaire) used in the AR project in 2013 have helped improve the listening course in 2018. In their personal journals, students valued learning about English sounds often confused by Spanish speakers and, for this reason, more examples have been added to Session 1. The use of transcripts was valued by all the students in the journals and final questionnaire as transcripts help L2 listeners compare what they think they have heard with what has actually been said (Wilson, 2008). All the students expressed that Session 4 was the most difficult due to the use of authentic audios. This was also reflected in the sudden drop in the students’ average mark on Moodle showing how difficult the transition between scripted and authentic audios is and how perception problems arise when ESL/EFL students listen to “real” speech (Lynch, 2009; Field, 2008). The audios in Session 4 have been changed: the first part of Paul McCartney Carpool Karaoke has been chosen as students are familiar with the TV show and the speech rate is quite slow. Similarly, the BBC interview has been selected considering students’ cultural background and speech rate. To avoid the sudden transition from scripted to authentic audios, links to listening activities with authentic audios from other parts of the virtual classroom have been added to all the sessions. Session 5 has remained the same as students expressed that they really enjoyed it.

4. Conclusions

Different activities on Moodle that focus on specific words/chunks from motivating audios can help students improve perception. Future sessions should include activities that focus on spoken language (Lynch, 2009; Flowerdew and Miller, 2005) and useful cognitive and metacognitive listening strategies (Vandergrift and Goh, 2012). The self-access listening course is now available to the 600 students enrolled.
in the virtual classroom of English Language I showing that, by using L2 listening theories, CALL can aid the design and implementation of listening activities.

5. References


Gamifying teacher professional development through
Minecraft MOOC

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Abstract

EVO Minecraft MOOC is an ongoing community of practice (CoP) of language teaching practitioners. The moderators of the MOOC invite newcomers with zero through any level of expertise in Minecraft to join us every January-February for training and exploration of the potential of Minecraft for community formation and language development. Many participants continue throughout the year developing their expertise, growing the community, and preparing for the next session under the guidance of a dedicated core of teaching peers, many of whom have been interacting with each other online in Minecraft for since 2015. This short paper explains how the group was formed, how it functions, and what we have learned about gamifying learning by experiencing gamification ourselves when playing the game Minecraft online with one another. More importantly we reflect continually on how what we learn through our experience collaborating with each other in-world informs our approach to teaching and learning. This paper shares our insights and perspectives on this process and invites readers to join us online if they wish to learn hands-on and first-hand what gamification is and feels like in the course of participation in an enjoyable and compelling online gamified learning environment.

Keywords: social networking, CALL innovation, gamification, MOOCs

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1. Introduction

Minecraft is a game that has caught and sustained the attention of teachers wanting to introduce gamification into their classrooms (Dikkers, 2015). However, teachers face two hurdles: the complexity and depth of the game itself, and understanding how students will interact and communicate with each other in Minecraft while engaging in self-directed critical and collaborative learning. EVO Minecraft MOOC was formed to resolve these problems.

Electronic Village Online (EVO) is an annual professional development event established in 2001 under the auspices of TESOL CALL-IS. It has taken place each January-February ever since (Hanson-Smith & Bauer-Ramazani, 2004). EVO comprises a baker’s dozen of sessions proposed each year by language
teachers who develop their topics into training courses of interest to language teachers. Participation is free and open to anyone.

Since its formation as an EVO session in 2015, Minecraft MOOC has become an ongoing community of practice of language teaching practitioners gaining new members each year. This paper explains what teachers participating in EVO Minecraft MOOC learn about gamification through the experience of playing Minecraft, and what they learn about designing worlds within Minecraft that will meet their curriculum objectives and create an engaging and enjoyable task-based environment for learners.

2. **EVO Minecraft MOOC formation and function**

The author founded EVO Minecraft MOOC so that he himself could learn the game and develop the expertise to use it with students. The impetus was his collaboration with a Croatian colleague on an article in which she interviewed her 11-year old son on how he became fluent in English while engaging with other European players in Minecraft (Smolčec, Smolčec, & Stevens, 2014). Two teachers mentioned in the literature search for that article as using Minecraft in language learning, Jeff Kuhn and David Dodgson, joined us as co-moderators. Other teachers were attracted to the concept, including some who had considerable experience in the game and were able to help mentor the developing Minecraft literacy of others (Stevens, 2017).

Minecraft MOOC takes place primarily online in Minecraft. In order to attract new participants we renew our proposal each year to become an EVO session and invite people to join us at our Google+ Community (G+C). We also have a syllabus and a wiki at [http://missions4evomc.pbworks.com/](http://missions4evomc.pbworks.com/) to suggest a structure for the course.

Successful participants find that by entering the game, learning happens in a process that Ito et al (2010) characterize as “hanging out, messing around, and geeking out.” Even participants without much knowledge of Minecraft, apart from a vague interest in using it with their students, through persistence eventually become remarkably creative and capable of guiding other teachers and students into adapting the game to their diverse learning goals.

3. **Discussion**

By experiencing Minecraft ourselves, we learn hands-on how gamification works and might apply to our own contexts. We see through meaningful play (Kuhn, 2015) how students interact and communicate with each other not only in Minecraft (using its native text chat and speaking through Discord voice app) but in its wider participatory culture (Kuhn & Stevens, 2017).

Through collaboration on projects such as elaborate constructions and organizing treks to temples and excavating them for their loot, we engage in self-directed, spontaneous learning. Our experiences show us how Minecraft brings critical thinking, collaboration, problem solving, and language and communication skills to bear on a range of concepts including architecture, engineering, chemistry, mathematics, coding, history, and the list goes on and on.

There are many instances of how Minecraft is used in English language learning, including the work of Jeff Kuhn who invoked zombies in Minecraft to generate ideas for ESL students writing about disaster management (cited in Smolčec, et al, 2014), and David Dodgson’s experiences with Minecraft in Turkey and elsewhere in EFL contexts (Dodgson, 2017; see also Uusi-Mäkelä, 2015).

We have found that Minecraft is capable of reversing the normal student-teacher dichotomy whereby teachers traditionally are assumed to know more than their students. We have seen that when teachers bring their children with them into the game, they often become more proficient than their parents, and mentor other adult players as well. Thus a productive strategy of using Minecraft with younger students would be
to set up a play space for them and empower them to become the experts, even to the extent of showing the teacher how to use Minecraft to help them master the curriculum.

We reflect continually on how what we learn through our experience collaborating with each other in-world informs our approach to teaching and learning. Our G+C has been an ideal space for sharing our screenshots and videos from in-world, and conversations around all our topics of interest ranging from helping newcomers to showing each other our builds and projects. Lately we have discussed there how to replace our G+C when Google drops support for the platform in April, 2019, discussing alternatives such as Google Classroom and Moodle, so that loss of G+C doesn’t curtail our learning in the 2020 rendition of EVO Minecraft MOOC.

4. Conclusions

In our proposals, we invite teachers to join us who consider themselves to be teachers with a gaming problem, gamers with a teaching problem, or teachers of gamers with a learning problem. By this we mean to address teachers (1) who don’t normally play games but would like to understand how gamification would work in their teaching contexts; (2) who already play games and would like to adapt what they know to teaching their students, and (3) who see that their students already play games like Minecraft, and want to know how they might leverage this into their curriculum.

When asked by sceptics if Minecraft is in the curriculum, the reply should be that the curriculum is somewhere in Minecraft. We encourage our peers to join us so that together we can figure out how and where Minecraft can be utilized in anyone’s teaching context. We can be easily found through EVO, http://evosessions.pbworks.com/, or in a Google search on EVO Minecraft MOOC.

5. References


Silence as a challenge: How online language teachers deal with the void

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Abstract

Online language teachers are skilled in juggling numerous demands in terms of technical queries, L2 scaffolding needs and emotional or affective requirements of their learners. However, there are certain challenges that can interfere with a successful delivery of online language tutorials; prominent amongst them is the “wall of silence” or an unexpected breakdown in communication that makes teachers fear that they are talking into a void.

Although silences in face-to-face language classes have been researched to a certain extent over the past decades, online silences can have a different quality due to a lack of information available to the participants in online communication. Specifically in online language tutorials, a lack of feedback can have various reasons, from technical problems to a lack of L2 skills on the part of the learners, and a general reticence or shyness when speaking to virtual strangers.

This paper will provide an overview of different types of silences present in online environments and distinguish these in aspect and causes from silences in face-to-face classrooms. Data for this study comes from a range of sources, including classroom observation, eye-tracking experiments, and semi-structured and reflective interviews.

Keywords: Online language learning; teacher skills; online silence

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1. Introduction

The skills of online language teachers have been investigated and discussed in numerous studies (see e.g. Hampel & Stickler, 2005; Stickler & Hampel, 2015), showing that online tutorials demand different skills

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from face-to-face classrooms. A particular challenge threatening the success of online language learning is the silence meeting the online language teacher.

Silence in face-to-face language classrooms has been researched from different perspectives including: gender (Julé, 2003; 2004), socio-pragmatics, investigating different reasons that keep language learners silent (Jaworski, 1992; Jaworski & Sachdev, 1998); cultural perspectives, particularly focusing on the Asian language learner, e.g. King (2013) and Zhou (Zhou, Knoke, & Sakamoto, 2005); and a Finnish perspective (Carbaugh, Berry, & Nurmikari-Berry, 2006). A more general view on silence is provided by Harder (1980) who focuses on the deficiencies experienced by language learners, Granger (2004), who provides a psychoanalytic perspective, and Stickler and colleagues (Stickler, Batstone, Duensing, & Heins, 2007), who compare face-to-face with telephone tutorials at a predominantly distance teaching institution.

Where the medium changes, silences have different characteristics (Stickler et al., 2007); in online tutorials the lack of information available to the participants can make the silence feel like a “wall”. This silence - a perceived lack of feedback from interlocutors - can have various reasons, from technical problems to a lack of L2 skills on the part of the learners, and a general reticence or shyness when speaking to virtual strangers.

2. Sources used

The findings from this paper are based on a number of studies conducted over recent years. To gather information on language learners’ and teachers’ perceptions of online silences, the author together with colleagues has conducted observations of online language tutorials, eyetracking experiments, and interviews with experienced language teachers (see Shi, Stickler, & Lloyd, 2017; Stickler & Shi, 2015, 2017). Online classroom observations provided a preliminary impression of silences; eyetracking experiments confirmed that online silence can cause confusion on both parts; and in-depth interviews with experienced language teachers deepened the understanding of the meaning of online silences.

3. Findings and Discussion

Based on an analysis of different types of silences observed and mentioned by participants, the following list of online silences has been compiled:

**Purposeful silences:**
- Following instructions
- Confirmation check
- Comprehension check
- Announced change, e.g. Whiteboard move
- Use of different mode, e.g. textchat
- Waiting for / encouraging self-correction

**Technical silences:**
- Farewells – tutor waits silently for students to “leave room”
- Operational error: Tutor or Student forgets to switch off / on microphone
- Audio or connection problems

**Unexpected silences:**
- Who’s next? (turn-taking)
- Politeness – students are hesitant to correct (or interrupt) tutor
- Pragmatics / politeness
Purposeful silences are gaps in the online communication often planned specifically by the teacher to allow students to either catch up with the task, reflect on their learning (see Alerby & Elìdòttir, 2003), or conduct more language learning specific interventions, such as confirmation and comprehension checks, or an encouragement for self-correction. Typical for online language teaching are the silences caused by switching modes and tools, for example, the time needed by an online teacher to open a new whiteboard. Although these silences are categorised as “purposeful”, sometimes only the teacher and not the learners are aware of their purpose.

Unexpected silences can trigger a breakdown in conversation. Typical language teaching silences are caused by confusion about turn-taking or by a mismatch between the pragmatics or politeness conventions of different cultures. For example, for Chinese students it might appear polite not to interrupt or disturb the teacher.

Technical silences are a common occurrence in online tutorials, often originating in technical problems, such as interrupted internet connections, or failing audio equipment. However, there are also “technical silences” that can be a default option in online teaching, such as the silent phase at the end of an online tutorial when participants leave the online “classroom”.

Online silences have diverse qualities and are not always perceived as negative in a (language) classroom. If there is an overlap, a shared understanding of the purpose or quality of the silence, this can be helpful rather than a hindrance to online learning. The following table provides an overview of qualities for online silence, and presents the teacher and learner perspective separately, as well as the possible overlaps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality of silence</th>
<th>Teacher perspective</th>
<th>Overlap</th>
<th>Learner perspective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>Sound problem</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sound problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>User error</td>
<td></td>
<td>User error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>Didactic</td>
<td>Language adaptation</td>
<td>Low language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Giving room for answers</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cognitive overload</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pragmatic</td>
<td>Cultural divergence</td>
<td>Sense of time</td>
<td>Politeness (waiting for turn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>Use of alternative means / Emoticons</td>
<td>Explicit / implicit</td>
<td>Reticence Shyness Panic</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Conclusions

To improve language learning opportunities online, a better understanding of silence is needed as well as an increased acceptance of “silences” in their different qualities and causes. Technology can help to overcome the “Wall of Silence” and also the “Fence of Monolingualism” especially with an improved language teaching pedagogy.

5. References


CALL for less commonly taught languages – does it really make a difference?

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Abstract

Does CALL make an impact on the teaching and learning in the Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) context? The paper provides a brief overview of CALL in the context of LCTLs from five different continents: Asia (Hindustani), Australasia (Maori), Africa (Arabic), Americas (Nawat) and Europe (Irish). It reviews CALL and related literature to provide a brief synopsis of the language context and the CALL challenges and opportunities for each of these languages. In the context of languages with a lot of speakers (e.g. Arabic and Hindustani), CALL is yet to make a real different. There are several challenges to be overcome (e.g. writing system and dialect) but there is great potential for CALL. For languages with a smaller number of speakers (e.g. Irish, Maori, Nawat), CALL has had some impact and could potentially make a great difference. The paper concludes by providing some suggestions for the CALL community working with LCTLs. It outlines how models from other fields (e.g. the SHEILA model from learning analytics) can provide a use template for a holistic approach to CALL that maps the political context, identifies key stakeholders and desired behaviour changes, develops an engagement strategy, helps to analyse internal capacity to effect change and establishes monitoring frameworks. It suggests how Universal Design (i.e. making resources accessible and usable by all), User-Centred Design and a focus on motivation are key elements in ensuring that CALL does make a positive difference in the LCTL context.

Keywords: Less Commonly Taught Languages, Hindustani, Maori, Arabic, Nawat, Irish

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1. Introduction

This paper looks at CALL in the context of Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) and questions if CALL has made a difference or has the potential to make a different to teachers and learners of LCTLs. The term Less Commonly Taught Language refers to languages that tend to have fewer teachers and learners than the most commonly taught languages, especially English (Ward, 2018). There are over 6,500 languages in the world (Simons, 2017) and this paper takes a brief look at the CALL context for one language from each continent: Hindustani (Asia), Maori (Australasia), Arabic (Africa), Nawat (Americas) and Irish (Europe). There are two related research questions (1) has CALL made a difference and (2) can CALL make a difference in the LCTL learning context?
2. Method

Less Commonly Taught Languages are under-reported in the CALL literature (Sauro, 2016; Ward, 2018). The selected languages were chosen to reflect a variety of features including: speaker number (large, small), writing system (Latin-based, other), writing tradition (limited, well established), teacher and learner numbers (large, small). In the LCTL context, CALL can provide access to (scarce) resources, it can enable learners to interact with other learners and it can place the teaching and learning of the language on a more modern footing. Additional challenges include the availability of suitably qualified teachers, dealing with language standardisation issues, learner motivation and pedagogical issues (Ward, 2016).

3. Discussion

3.1. Hindustani CALL

Hindustani (which includes Hindi and Urdu) is an Indo-European language spoken by 697 million speakers. There are very few CALL research publications related to Hindustani. There are however many potential opportunities for Hindustani CALL (Khan, 2015) including the use of mobile technologies on the Indian sub-continent, the growing middle-class, both in India and in those with Hindustani heritage overseas and the fact that there are currently many L2 learners already in India as Hindi is part of the curriculum in many states in India. CALL does not appear to have made an impact yet in the Hindustani space, but it has the potential to do so with increasingly tech-savvy L2 learners.

3.2. Maori CALL

Maori is the most spoken indigenous language in Australasia with an estimated 280,000 speakers in New Zealand. General CALL challenges in the Maori (and other threatened/endangered language) context is that there is no communicative need to speak the language and there is a limited number of native speakers and teachers. Crow and Parsons (2015) and Greensill, Manuirirangi, and Whaanga (2017) and Vlugter et al., (2007) are some examples of CALL resources for Maori. New Zealand is a developed country where people are culturally aware of the importance of Maori. Maori is recognised as a world leader in language revitalisation and it could become one in CALL for LCTLs.

3.3. Arabic CALL

Arabic, an Afroasiatic language, is spoken by over 300 million speakers. The Arabic writing system can be challenging for some learners. Students may learn Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) while Arab speakers use their own local dialect rather than MSA. There are some CALL resources for Arabic – some of them assume the learner is motivated by religious reasons while others are developed by people without a background in language pedagogy. Examples of a CALL resources for Arabic include Cushion, S., & Hémard (2002) and Shaalan (2005). In theory, given the size of the language and the number of potential learners, CALL for Arabic could have a bigger impact that it has currently.

3.4. Nawat CALL

Nawat is an Uto-Aztecan language spoken in El Salvador. It is an endangered language and has less than 150, mainly elderly, native speakers. There is no L1 literate speaker, no communicative need and different orthographies. There are some basic CALL resources (e.g. Ward, 2001; King, 2018) available to learners. CALL has had an impact in the Nawat context – it has put Nawat online for the first time, brought interested parties together and acted as the genesis of current language maintenance activity. There are 3,000 pupils who have learnt some Nawat (using traditional methods) based on an initiative that started with CALL development. CALL can continue to make a difference in the Nawat context by contributing to language documentation and language awareness projects.

3.5. Irish CALL

Irish, an Indo-European language, is a well-documented language with around 20,000 daily speakers and over 700,000 learners as Irish is a compulsory subject in school. Irish has a complex socio-cultural role in Ireland with both positive and negative attitudes towards the (study of the) language. Irish has a complex
orthography (ref). Standard Irish is taught in school, but there are three different dialects which students could be exposed to during their study of the language. There are some CALL resources for Irish (e.g. Abair (Chiaráin & Chasaide, 2016), Irish Word Bricks (Purgina, Mozgovoy & Ward, 2016)), but their deployment in the education system has been limited. A recent MOOC for Irish (Irish 101 (Mhichil, Mac Lochlainn & Beirne, 2018)) has been very successful and demonstrates that there is a demand for high quality, holistic resources for Irish.

3.6. Suggestions for the LCTL CALL Community

An interesting framework to consider for CALL in the context of Less Commonly Taught Languages is the SHEILA model (SHEILA, 2018). This model was originally designed for learning analytics but it has many transferrable components to the CALL context. It looks at the actions, challenges and policy from various perspectives: political, stakeholder, behaviour, engagement, capacity and monitoring and learning frameworks. Combining a Universal Design and User-Centred design approaches and focussing on motivation can be helpful in the Less Commonly Taught Language CALL space.

4. Conclusions

CALL has had a limited impact in the Less Commonly Taught Language space. However, for smaller languages, particularly endangered languages, it can have a disproportionately positive impact (e.g. in the case of Nawat). This paper has only looked at five out of the world’s many languages, so obviously cannot reflect the CALL situation accurately for all of them. CALL has the potential to make a positive contribution to the learning environment for LCTLs, especially as CALL becomes more normalised (Bax (2003); Chambers and Bax (2006)).

5. References


Abstract

In Japan, thousands of university students undertake short-term study abroad programs around the world to learn the language and culture of other countries. These programs offer a variety of teacher centred pre-departure orientation sessions for students based on essential subjects such as how to overcome communication breakdowns with host family members, general etiquette in the community, and other high-anxiety situations in day-to-day dealings. However, Japanese university students studying abroad often return to report of their shock in relation to their experiences in the host country. This shock can on occasions prevent students from focusing on learning the language while in the host country and discourage them from wanting to continue their study on their return to Japan. This paper will present the initial results of a three-part study into the use of digital stories in study abroad orientation and outline how a move student centred pre-departure orientation using digital stories made by students can become an effective way to reduce the anxiety felt by students when studying abroad. The paper will highlight how advancement in mobile technology, specifically smartphones, has allowed for students to take on the role of teachers by providing first-hand accounts for individuals planning to take part in study abroad activities. This initial paper will show the results of a post study abroad survey in which 24 students from a university in western Japan, who did not view digital stories prior to their departure, saw the gap between their image and the reality of studying abroad.

Keywords: study abroad; Japanese university students; digital stories

1. Introduction

Studying abroad is one of the most rewarding yet stressful activities students can undertake. The most common form of studying abroad for Japanese students is short-term (MEXT, 2015), less than one month in duration, which gives students little chance to recover from the foreign language anxiety and culture shock that inevitably occurs as they try to not only study language, but also cope with homestay families, navigating public transport, adjusting to a change in diet, and developing a social network made up of people from many different countries. This study presents the initial stage of a three-part research project of how the anxiety of culture shock of Japanese short-term study abroad students can be reduced through viewing digital stories related to their country of destination in their orientation sessions and making digital stories their study abroad experience. Data was collected from undergraduate students at a university in western Japan via a post study abroad survey and semi structured interviews. Results indicate that current predeparture orientation sessions do not provide sufficient information to students about studying abroad and leave a gap between perception and reality. This paper will outline the gaps highlighted by students
and demonstrate how making a digital story could go some way in reducing this gap to provide a less anxious study abroad experience.

2. Method

2.1. Population

The population for this study consisted of 24 18 – 22-year-old ethnic Japanese undergraduate students from the College of Information Science and Engineering at a private university in western Japan. The students were all members of a college organized study abroad program which took place over five-weeks. Students had varying levels of overseas living and travel experience to English-speaking countries, and the TOEIC level of the students ranged from 400, the minimum to take part in the program, to 750.

2.2. Instrument

The instrument used included a post study abroad experience survey, asking if their expectations before they studied abroad were close to the reality experienced. Questions for this survey were developed based on 10 years study abroad experience of two professors at the university. Questions and answers were written in Japanese, the native language of the students, and translated to English for the purpose of this paper. In addition, five students took part in semi-structured interviews.

2.3 Digital stories

Students we required to make a three-minute digital story in small groups in relation to their classes, homestay life, most interesting and surprising experiences, and advice for future students. Students took photos and videos on their mobile phones during the five-week period and compiled them into a digital story upon their return to Japan.

3. Discussion

3.1 Study abroad in Japan

Since its peak in the early 2000s, the number of Japanese nationals studying abroad has been in steady decline (MEXT, 2015) and has only in recent years seen a mild upturn as seen in diagram 1. The latest initiative Tobitate (Leap for tomorrow) (MEXT, 2013), has an aim to double the number of Japanese university students studying abroad to 120,000 by 2020, which in reality may be difficult to achieve.

The most common form of studying abroad for Japanese students is short-term (MEXT, 2015), less than one month in duration (see Diagram 2), which gives students little chance to recover from the foreign language anxiety and culture shock that inevitably occurs as students try to not only study language, but also cope with homestay families, navigating public transport, adjusting to a change in diet, and developing a social network made up of people from many different countries. Evidence to this is given by Oberg’s Four Phases of Cultural Adjustment curve (Lee, 2006) (see Diagram 3). This suggests that short-term study abroad students are still on the downward phase of their honeymoon period when they finish their study. Failure to appropriately adjust to the new way of life of the country can often leave students unable to perform academically, and with a feeling of animosity towards the host country and study abroad in general.

3.2 Need for digital stories

The results of the post study abroad survey (Appendix 1) in this study suggest students were still in the honeymoon period and were generally satisfied with their study abroad experience. Even so, there are some areas that could be addressed through the use of digital stories. Specifically related to cultural aspects and daily life activities. Near to 67% of students reported that their impression of Australia changed in both positive and negative ways after studying abroad. Impressions related the aforementioned aspects of daily life such as public transport, communication, and food. Although many of these issues were addressed in the predeparture orientation, there is a noticeable gap between the image students had of Australia and the reality.
3.2 Digital story issues

Using Digital stories (Meadows, 2003) in predeparture orientation could go some way to reducing the gap between the perceptions and reality. In this study 10 digital stories were made by students who took photos and videos during their study abroad experiences as instructed by their teacher. The stories in this study do have the potential to close the gap for future study abroad students. However, issues with the current digital story format became obvious when viewing them. First, as this was a group activity all members of the group needed to work productively to complete the assignment. This did not always happen, and interviews revealed that this caused an additional level of stress. Secondly, the video and sound quality varied between group members. Smartphones have almost reached 100% saturation among Japanese university students (White, 2014), as such the video quality was less of a problem than the sound quality. Some students recorded the audio of their video in an environment with a lot of background noise or with a low-quality microphone. This made the audio difficult to listen to and took away from the effect of the video. Some other issues related to the balance between the spoken commentary and background music, and the English grammar used in the videos.

4. Conclusions

The first stage of this research has shown that there is a gap between expectations and reality, and thus a need for digital stories. To be able to answer the question of how the anxiety of culture shock of study abroad students can be reduced through digital stories will be addressed in the second stage of this research were the current 10 digital stories will be viewed by future study abroad participants in their pre-departure orientation, and in addition the students will develop improved digital stories of their own. From this, the researcher will observe just how viewing these stories in predeparture orientation reduces the perception and reality gap, and if this makes orientation more effective. Digital stories are not only a powerful language learning activity and a way for students to document their experiences but may provide a more effective means of using the limited time for study abroad orientation.

5. References


6. Appendix

6.1 Appendix 1

Post Study Abroad Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. How much did you accomplish your goal?</td>
<td>I no longer have to be ashamed of my English and my motivation to study English has increased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Did your impression of Australia change after the program?</td>
<td>Yes (16) No (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. For those who answered ‘yes’, what was the change?</td>
<td>Australia is as safe as Japan, Australia is a multicultural society, Australians go to bed early</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. For those who answered ‘no’, what was your pre-departure impression/image of Australia?</td>
<td>Many dangerous animals, carefree attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Describe your language lessons on Australia.</td>
<td>Language classes very difficult, different learning style to Japan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How were the exchange activities with the local students?</td>
<td>There were foreign students from various countries in my class, so I could learn about many different cultures, classroom attitude, commitment to learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. The duration was …</td>
<td>Appropriate (18), too long (1), too short (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The program cost was …</td>
<td>Appropriate (9), relatively expensive (12), relatively inexpensive (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. How was the accommodation?</td>
<td>It was great. They enthusiastically helped me with my homework. It was the lowest, I was feed different food from the other family members. They just wanted money. Too far from the university</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. What was your happiest experience?</td>
<td>Going out with friends on the weekends, surfing, bathing, talking to housemates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. What was your biggest trouble, if any?</td>
<td>Public transport, Communication with homestay/store clerks, Food, Insects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Do you want to study abroad again in the future?</td>
<td>Yes (22), No (0), No idea (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Write your advice, if any, for future participants.</td>
<td>Be careful on public transport. Bring insect repellent, Be careful of sharks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>