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Edited by Ebru Melek Koç

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Introduction

I am delighted to introduce the second issue of the IAFOR Journal of Language Learning. In this issue, as in the first one, we again present a diverse selection of four articles, all of which demonstrate a clear contribution to knowledge in the field of language learning and provide potential springboards for further research.

In the first article**, Dr. Junko Winch** investigates whether Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the optimum language teaching approach in today's multicultural society regardless of cultural differences, and presents Hofstede *et al.*'s cultural taxonomy as the underlying theoretical framework of the study. Dr. Winch presents the Japanese teaching method (Japanisation) as an alternative teaching method to CLT, and explores any impacts on multicultural students in Japanese language teaching at a university in the South of England.

The second article by **Dr. Christine Lehay** is a qualitative case study and explores the language learning potential for advanced language learners afforded by open, task-based CALL. This study poses the question whether, and how, a collaborative and open CALL task designed to simulate an authentic context of language use can support advanced learners of German in the process of language learning.

Dr. Anna Gadd's study, funded by the Centre for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning of UWA, focuses on feedback in second language acquisition and aims to minimise same error repetition and increase progress in the learning of a foreign language. In this study, she presents a new model for providing feedback to learner errors and demonstrates how this method can effectively be used in different units of Italian as a second language to decrease the incidence of recurring errors.

In the last article**, Dr.Nguyen Duy Linh** and **Dr. Suksan Suppasetseree** focus on the development of an instructional design model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills in a university setting in Thailand. In this study, besides analysing different types of instructional design models, the authors adapt the instructional design model by Brahmawong and Vate-U-Lan (2009).

I hope that you find our second issue valuable, interesting and informative. I thank all the scholars who submitted their papers, and hope that the Journal will continue to attract submissions from a wide range of scholars in the future.

In conclusion, I would like to thank the Journal's outstanding editorial board and the anonymous reviewers for the time and effort that they put into our journal.

Ebru Melek KOÇ
Chief Editor

A Case Study of Japanese Language Teaching in a Multicultural Learning Environment

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Abstract

An increasing number of international students, whose teaching and learning practices are very different from that of the UK, is studying in the U.K. This study poses the question of whether Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is the most optimum language teaching approach in today's multicultural society regardless of cultural differences. The Japanese teaching method (Japanisation) was presented as an alternative teaching method to CLT, and the study investigates any impacts on multicultural students in Japanese language teaching at a university in the South of England.

The study was conducted for one semester using two classes in 2009/2010. Two teaching methods, Japanisation and CLT, were applied. The concept of Japanisation is drawn from the study of the Japanese car manufacturing industry and transferred to the language teaching context. Three tests provided quantitative data to generate data. The quantitative results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the two teaching methods regarding the attainment in the first two tests. However, Japanisation was associated with significantly higher results in the final test, compared with CLT.

The implication of this study is embedding elements of Japanisation and Japanese educational culture in the Japanese language teaching will possibly enhance students' learning of reading and written skills. Those who develop the teaching curriculum are encouraged at a strategic level to examine other educational cultures and teaching practices from non-Anglophone countries and assess how they may be combined with CLT to reflect new international characteristics of teaching and learning environments.

Keywords: culture, higher education, Japanese language teaching, multicultural

1. Introduction

Background of the Study

In a pilot study, less than half of the Japanese class was British and the remainder were Chinese, Egyptian, Latvian, Greek, French, Malaysian, Polish and Russian. The class was taught using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). However, it was unclear why CLT did not work well for all students as some non-British students appeared to show different reactions to the British students in response to CLT. The researcher found this problematic and this is the main reason for conducting the study. The issues of applying CLT to non-British students were not addressed in studying CLT and formulated the hypothesis that CLT may only be appropriate and effective for Anglophone students (Anglophone refers to USA, UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand within this paper). This study compares the efficacy of an Anglophone originated teaching approach (CLT) with a non-Anglophone teaching approach (Japanisation), applies them to two groups of multicultural students, evaluates the results and considers the implications of applying Anglophone originated teaching approach to the diverse cultural background of students from a cultural point of view.

The Issue under Consideration

The issue under consideration relates to the current language teaching approach and the educational climate within the UK. The language teachers teach students using CLT which originated from Anglophone countries. However, the current teaching and learning environment in the UK is multicultural, where students from different educational cultural backgrounds studying in the UK. The pilot study suggested a possible gap between the current language teaching approach (CLT) and the globalised language teaching and learning environment. In the present study, this gap was explored using Japanese teaching approach to see if Japanese teaching approaches could enhance the performance of the students who are the non-native speakers of Japanese.

Research Questions

This study addresses the two research questions (RQ) given below. RQ 2 has a further three sub-questions:

RQ1. What are the educational values associated with Japanese teaching and learning?
RQ2. Do Japanese teaching methods enhance students' learning when applied in a British language learning context?

The three further sub- research questions are:
– Do students in the Japanese language classes taught using CLT or Japanisation methods show any differences in the performance of reading and written tests and assignments?
– Do students show any preferences to any language teaching approaches influenced by their previous educational culture?
– How do students respond to being taught using Japanisation methods compared with being taught by CLT?

Structure of This Study

The next section discusses the framework of the study, which is followed by the methodology and results before the conclusion.

Theoretical Framework for Analysing Educational Culture

In order to understand the educational culture and the two teaching approaches (CLT and Japanisation), Hofstede *et al.*'s cultural taxonomy was used. Their cultural taxonomy was

chosen as the framework of this study. It is worth noting that the most recent GLOBE Cultural Taxonomy is still built on Hofsted *et al.*'s work (Lustig and Koester, 2010, p.112) and the use of their categorisation is relevant for this study.

Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov's (2010) identify culture in five dimensions: Power distance; individualism–collectivism; masculinity–femininity; uncertainty avoidance; and long-term–short-term. Firstly, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and individualism–collectivism dimensions are explained, after which the educational culture of CLT and Japanisation is explained. Each of these three dimensions consist of two opposing poles and this will help to position where Japan and the Anglophone countries stand among these dimensions.

Power Distance (PD) is defined as 'the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally' (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010, p. 61). According to Dimmock, 'many Asian societies are high PD cultures, while many Western societies have low PD values' (Dimmock, 2000, p. 47).

Individualist and collectivist are 'the interests of the individual prevail over the interests of the group' (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010, p. 91) and 'the interest of the group prevails over the interest of individual' (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010, p. 90) respectively. Generally speaking, Anglophone countries have an individualist society and Asian countries have a collectivist one (Dimmock, 2000).

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as 'the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations' (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010, p. 191). High Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) scoring nations try to avoid ambiguous situations, whereas low UAI scoring nations are not concerned about unknown situations. In general, Anglophone countries appear to be labelled as weak uncertainty avoidance countries whereas Asian countries appear to be labelled as strong uncertainty avoidance countries.

Although Hofstede *et al.*'s (2010) categorisation was used as a framework for characterisation, great caution is needed for generalization. There are variations in educational cultural preferences within British students brought up in Britain. Furthermore, even among students who were brought up in Britain, their educational cultural preferences vary depending on their heritage and whether or not they were brought up in a mono-cultural environment. Given that today's society consists of people with different heritages and preferences with globalisation, it is difficult to generalise the cultural preferences of a particular nationality or heritage.

Anglophone Approaches – CLT
CLT is a language teaching approach that has been used for more than four decades. It started in the late 1970s in Europe and gained momentum in the early 1980s. Since then it has taken hold and acquired the status of 'new dogma' (Hu, 2002, p. 94). Although CLT has evolved in its theory during the last four decades, the learning environment has changed considerably in the last four decades.

CLT adopts the following three of Hofstede *et al.*'s educational cultural dimensions: Small power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. Firstly, with regards to the power distance dimensions, CLT adopts small power distance as it takes 'less teacher-centered' (Brumfit, 1985, p. 7) and 'CLT is firmly opposed to teacher dominance in the classroom' (Hu, 2002, p. 95). Secondly, with regards to uncertainty avoidance dimensions, CLT adopts weak uncertainty avoidance as 'learners are not being constantly corrected. Errors are regarded with

greater tolerance,' (Littlewood, 1981, p. 94), and CLT 'avoid(s) linguistic correction entirely' (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979, p. 173). Thirdly, with regard to the individualism *versus* collectivism dimension, CLT adheres individualism as it focuses on the individual student.

Typical CLT used in this study. In the present study, the CLT class was achieved by exposing the sample students to a combination of small power distance, weak uncertainty avoidance, and individualism: The small power distance was established by creating student-centred class. Uncertainty avoidance was achieved by encouraging students' creativity and avoiding linguistic correction. Individualism was demonstrated through speaking pair work activities which use real life related information gap tasks as well as problem-solving tasks based on themes (e.g. time, shopping, etc.).

Japanese Approaches – Japanisation

'The term Japanisation came into vogue in the mid-1980s to describe attempts in other countries to make practical use of "Japanese" ideas and practices' (Price, 2006, p. 19). In fact, Japanisation is the term which is from the study of the Japanese car manufacturing industry in the 1980s, which was adapted to apply for a language teaching context in this study. Although it is a concept originated in the manufacturing industry, it has wider ramifications that go beyond the manufacturing industry. A significant relationship between schools and factories has been pointed out as early as the 1960s that 'schools can be viewed as organisations in some ways akin to factories' (Musgrave, 1968, p. 67). The possibility of application to the educational context as is also suggested that 'workers' behaviour is an extension of behaviour acquired at school' (Hofstede, 1991, p. 235). However, the concept of Japanisation seems to have been previously applied to organisational management and not to a teaching context.

One of the key words in Japanisation is Quality Control (QC) groups. QC groups are used to make use of all staff of very different experiences and skills over an extended period of time in order to improve quality. QC groups are also known as Han groups at school as Benjamin maintains: 'The values and interaction patterns fostered in Han groups in the classroom are among those carried over into adult situations' (Benjamin, 1997, p. 64).

Han groups are regular working groups used in the Japanese classrooms (Dimmock & Walker, 2002, p. 114; Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999, p. 59; Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996, p. 75). 'Each Han [group] includes five to eight children' (Benjamin, 1997, p. 53) and Han groups only 'change the groupings at the beginning of each term of the school year' (Benjamin, 1997, p. 53).

There are a few characteristic of Han groups. Firstly, Han groups are 'family-like' (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996, p. 88). Han groups 'only change the grouping at the beginning of each term' (Benjamin, 1997, p. 53) which resembles QC group's 'extended period of time'. Han groups are 'formal groups', which is defined as 'either more or less permanent with defined roles over a long period' (Brumfit, 1985, p. 72). In contrast, Anglophone group formations are 'factory-like' (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996, p. 88) and they are 'informal groups'. Informal groups are usually of an *ad hoc* formation and 'occur primarily for social purposes whenever people interact' (Brumfit, 1985, p. 72). Secondly, Han groups, 'comprises a mixture of different academic abilities' (Okano & Tsuchiya, 1999, p. 59), which resembled QC groups 'very different experience and skills'. In contrast, Anglophone group formations tend to form with those of similar academic abilities.

Typical Japanisation used in this study. The Japanisation class was achieved by exposing the sample students to a combination of large power distance, strong uncertainty avoidance,

and collectivism: Large power distance was established by creating a teacher-centred class where students played a passive role. The opportunity of speaking practice in pairs was hardly provided. Strong uncertainty avoidance culture was achieved by stressing on one correct answer and elimination of errors. Specifically, grammar exercises focusing on one correct answer was used. Collectivism was demonstrated through turn-taking and Han groups.

2.Methodology
This section discusses the details on participants, data collection procedure and data analysis.

2.1.Participants
The sample populations comprise a mixture of undergraduate and postgraduate students who were studying Stage 1 Japanese at a university in the South of England in 2009/2010. Students were randomly assigned. This study used two groups, Group 2 and 3 (total is 34 students). CLT was applied to Group 2 and Japanisation was applied to Group 3. The breakdown of the participants are: one Australian, eleven British, three British-Chinese, one British Indian, one Bulgarian, seven Chinese, one Egyptian, two Greek, one Hong Kong-Chinese, one Indonesian, one Korean, three Malaysian-Chinese and one New Zealand-Chinese.

2.2.Data collection procedures and analysis
While RQ1is answered using literature review, RQ 2 is investigated through the data generated by three tests, two types of questionnaire (Researcher Questionnaire and University Questionnaire) and observation. Therefore, this section explains the details on data collection and analysis which involved in RQ2 which has three further sub-questions. As for the first sub-question, three tests were used for data collection. To answer the second sub-question, two questionnaires were used. Lastly, observation was used to answer the third sub-question.

The first sub-question: Three tests. In order to answer the first sub-question, three tests were used for data collection, that is, Assignment 1 which was administered on 6/11/2009, Week 6), Assignment 2 which was administered 9/12/2009, Week 9, and the Reading and Written Test which was administered on 23/01/2010, Week 12.

In analysing the data, descriptive statistics for the mean, Standard Deviation (SD), minimum and maximum score, skewness and kurtosis of Groups 2 and 3 were compared using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). For the statistical analysis, a *t*-test was used to compare the two groups for three sets of data, namely, Assignment 1, Assignment 2 and the Reading and Written Test results. The *t*-test demonstrates whether the mean values in each group are statistically significantly different from each other. The skewness and kurtosis of the data are examined to ensure their suitability for parametric tests '(e.g. *t*-tests and analysis of variance)' (Pallant, 2010, p. 213). For all tests, the level of confidence is set at 0.05.

The second sub-question: Questionnaires. In order to answer the second sub-question, two questionnaires (Researcher questionnaire and the University questionnaire) were administered and collected during the class on 19/01/2010 at Week 10. Two versions of the questionnaires were prepared to reflect the two different teaching methods experienced by each group: One was answered by Group 3 who experienced Japanisation and the other by Group 2, who experienced CLT. However, the majority of questions were duplicated for both groups. The format of the questionnaire mostly consisted of closed questions with some open-ended questions, and the respondents were asked to tick the appropriate box. Questions asked about educational culture and Japanisation, and questions related to educational culture are based on Hofstede *et al*'s (2010) uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and collectivism-individualism.

There were nine statements about uncertainty avoidance, power distance and collectivism-individualism, and students were asked to tick the boxes for the answers most relevant to them.

In analyzing the Researcher Questionnaire, the students were grouped by ethnicity and compared in each group in depth. This enabled the examination of which end of the spectrum the student prefers by ethnicity. Two analyses were conducted based on the following ethnicity:

Analysis i): The Chinese and British students' preferences in both CLT and Japanisation classes. The Chinese and British students were highlighted in particular in this study as Dimmock and Walker (2005) claim that they have contrasting perceptions and expectations in teaching and learning regarding good teachers and good students.
> Analysis ii): Preferences for the other nationalities in both CLT and Japanisation classes.

On the other hand, students' comments in the University questionnaire were analysed around turn-taking, the Han group and collectivism

The third sub-question: Observation. In order to answer the third sub-question, observations were carried out for two semesters (Semester 1 and 2) from October 2008 to May 2009. Observational notes were recorded which are the researcher's diary entries on the four occasions (Week 3, Week 5, Week 6 and Week 8) in the duration of this study. Week 8 is a reflection of the four weeks' observation. Observational notes were taken during every class by the researcher to monitor two following points in students' behavioural changes: Firstly, if they change their behaviour as a result of the use of the *Han* group, Japanisation; secondly, if the behaviour of the non-British students show any similarity to those of British students.

Reliability
The Part-time Programme of the Modern Languages Department at the University stipulates that students undertake the assessment tasks by two main assessment schemes: 'heavily based on home assignments' and 'timed and supervised assessment tasks' (Modern languages Part-time Programme, 2009, p. 7).

The former consists of two pieces of assessed home assignments weighted at 10% each (20% of the total) that are submitted on certain deadlines (submission in week 6 and week 9 of 12, respectively). For simplicity, these were referred to as Assignment 1 and Assignment 2 in this study.

The timed and supervised assessment task, known as the Reading and Written Test, is normally assessed on a Saturday by invigilators and consists of one, timed, task-based written examination lasting 90 minutes weighted at 40% (Teaching and Assessment Guide, 2009/2010, pp. 7–8). The Reading and Written Test is required to be inspected and approved by either the Part-time Programme Coordinator or the Deputy Director of the Centre for Language Study before the exam is administered. Scoring of the Reading and Written tests for the three groups (Groups 1, 2 and 3) in this study was done consistently by one teacher. Reading and Written tests was a blind scoring test using students' ID numbers instead of students' names (exception applied for Assignments 1 and 2). On this basis, the Reading and Written test itself and scores obtained can be considered more reliable than Assignments 1 and 2.

3. Results
This section presents the results of RQ1 and RQ2.

RQ1: What are the educational values associated with Japanese teaching and learning?
RQ 1 asked what the educational values associated with Japanese teaching and learning is. The Han group is a pedagogical value used in this study as an influence of collectivist educational culture. Turn-taking is another preferred pedagogy of collectivist cultures. In the empirical study, Han group is combined with other characteristics of Japanese teaching and learning, that is, strong uncertainty avoidance and large power distance: Preference for one correct answer, error elimination and control of errors are the preferred pedagogy of strong uncertainty avoidance cultures; teacher-centred class is the main preferred pedagogy of large power distance cultures.

RQ2: Do Japanese teaching methods enhance students' learning when applied in a British language learning context?
RQ 2 has following further three sub-questions whose results are presented
under the three headings below:

1. **Do students in the Japanese language classes taught using CLT and Japanisation methods show any differences in the performance of the Reading and Written Tests and Assignments?**

This sub-question was investigated through the three tests (Assignments 1, 2 and Reading and Written Tests) between the two groups. There was no statistically significant difference in the first two Assignments. However, there was a statistically significant difference in the Reading and Written Test, where the Japanisation class obtained higher average marks (the mean score of Group 3 was 6.97 points higher than that of Group 2) than the CLT class. [Group 2 ($M =$ 68.95, $SD = 7.98$); Group 3 [$M = 75.92$, $SD = 7.69$; t (29) = –2.40, $p = 0.02$]. The difference between the mean scores of the two groups for the Reading and Written test was very large (eta squared = 0.17) (Pallant, p. 209). Furthermore, the distribution of kurtosis of Group 3 (Japanisation) was almost twice as that of Group 2 (CLT), meaning that the marks in Group 3 were more clustered around the average than the marks in Group 2. Since Japanisation aims teaching around the average students, this may have been one of the factors contributing to the observed distribution of Group 3 where more students in Reading and Written tests were clustered around the average.

2. **Do students show any preferences to any language teaching approaches influenced by their previous educational culture?**

The results of the Researcher Questionnaire showed that the majority of students showed preference to the Anglophone originated language teaching approach, CLT, than Japanisation regardless of their previous educational culture. Some international students' preference for CLT was not reflected on their previous educational culture. It seems that their preference for CLT may be modified by the British university learning environment where they are currently studying. International students who were brought up outside the UK seemed to conform to the British educational culture in which they were currently studying, as 'a framework of cultural expectations about learning will probably be modified or supplemented in relation to the expectation of teachers and students in the host culture' (Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 9).

3. **How do students respond to being taught by Japanisation?**

The results of the questionnaires showed students' two reactions in response to Japanisation: either rejection or acceptance. The university questionnaire results showed that students who

could not accept the different educational culture conveyed their opinion by low university quantitative rating, critical comments, and wishing to change to the CLT class. The observations confirmed that students showed difficulty in understanding the notion of the Han group in both observation and students' comments in the questionnaires. Three out of four observational notes showed that the Han group did not function at all. However, the last observational notes (Week 8) indicated Group 3 which experienced Japanisation seemed 'more united as a group than Group 2'.

4. Conclusion

Teaching and the learning environment has become more multicultural compared to forty years ago when language classrooms contained significantly fewer international students at the inception of CLT. CLT places an emphasis on individuals which is ideal for Anglophone educational culture. However, the universal effectiveness and applicability of the Anglophone originated CLT is questioned due to the current globalised educational climate. It may be a 'conflict' (Hu, 2002, p. 102) or be 'incompatible' (Hu, 2002, p. 102) with some students, and thus may not offer a universal optimum language-teaching theory. In contrast, Japanisation focuses teaching on the majority students. However, this approach may not necessarily meet the higher and lower end of student's requirements, either. If CLT were incorporated with the teaching approaches from non-Anglophone countries, students' diverse preferences and expectations from both ends of the three dimensions of culture could be captured.

This study contributes not only teaching practitioners who teach in the current multicultural learning environment to be sensitive to the international students' different educational cultural expectations and requirements in teaching and learning. It is hoped that this study contributes in some ways to the development of one new teaching theory which integrates non-Anglophone countries' teaching and learning approaches reflecting the new multicultural teaching and learning environments.

Implications

The implications of the study have two emerging themes. The first implication raises the question of whether CLT is universally effective for all language students regardless of their educational cultural background. Meeting the students' requirement by one teaching method was difficult. The data collected in this study also suggest that using Japanisation only or CLT only did not work well for every student in both groups, which may be a consequence of cultural-cognitive differences between Asian and Western learners (Dimmock and Walker, 2005, p. 109). This could be explained by the consequence of cultural cognitive differences between Asians and Western learners (Dimmock and Walker, 2005, p. 109). Previous studies describe the cultural inappropriateness of CLT as follows: 'a teaching or learning approach that is taken for granted and regarded as universal and common sense by people from one culture may be seen as idiosyncratic and ineffective in the eyes of people from a different culture' (Gu and Schweisfurth, 2006, p. 75). Sonaiya (2002) also points out that 'while shared human values may make certain methods (or certain aspects of specific methods) universally applicable, this should not always be assumed to be the case' (p. 107).

The second implication of the study concerns whether teaching should be focused on the minority of the high-ability and low-ability students or the majority of students who operate at an average level. According to Stevenson and Stiger (1994), individualist educational culture produces 'educationally advantaged minority and disadvantaged majority' (p. 223). CLT is an ideal teaching method for educational culture which prioritises one-to-one interaction and paying attention to the needs of individual students. However, paying attention to individual

student's needs may not necessarily meet the needs of all students as a class or the majority students. CLT has been claimed to be associated with the enhanced students' communicative skills. The findings of this study suggested that the students in the CLT class struggled to read and write in Japanese, which became apparent when they took the Reading and Written Test. Reviewing what CLT has brought to today's students, perhaps the area of grammar, reading and writing need more attention in using this method.

Limitations

Quantitative data cannot answer the second and third sub-question which relate to students' perceptions and feelings. Therefore, questionnaires which provide qualitative data and observation were used along with student observation. The questionnaire was primarily used in answering the second sub-question which provided quantitative and qualitative data. The questionnaire adopted multiple type questions and these options may have limited students' other answers. However, a full understanding of students' perceptions and feelings may not necessarily be gained from the questionnaire. Observation was used to compensate for this potential limitation. Observational data were used to answer the third sub-question. However, it should be noted that the opportunity to observe students might not happen at the right time and the right place during the research within the assigned timescale. Moreover, the interpretation of the observational data might be culturally biased and the use of qualitative methods always embraces possibilities in obtaining a unanimous interpretation.

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Studying language learning opportunities afforded by a collaborative CALL task

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Abstract

This research study explores the learning potential of a computer-assisted language learning (CALL) activity. Research suggests that the dual emphasis on content development and language accuracy, as well as the complexity of L2 production in natural settings, can potentially create cognitive overload. This study poses the question whether, and how, a collaborative and open CALL task designed to simulate an authentic context of language use can support advanced learners in the process of language learning. The originality of this study lies in the fact that it is a qualitative study in which data was collected and analysed using screen-capturing software. The learner language output generated by the task was studied for evidence of episodes in which the focus was on language form (defined by Swain as language-related episodes), as such episodes are considered by output theory to be windows into language learning processes. The results showed that students engaged in interaction about language form, and that by seeking help from their peers and from online dictionaries they were able to increase the accuracy of their language. There is evidence of self-correction, hypothesis testing and metalinguistic talk in the data. Collaborative proof-reading was particularly successful in improving L2 accuracy.

Keywords: SLA in open CALL task, output theory, advanced language learners, methodology in CALL research

1. Introduction

Academic papers which deal with computer-assisted language learning (CALL) are frequently critical of a lack in focus in two areas: second language acquisition theory (Coleman, 2005; Smith, 2008) and how students engage with the technology, what they actually do when completing CALL tasks (Chun, 2013; Smith, 2008). The present study explores how a group of advanced learners of German as an L2 engaged with a collaborative open CALL task and what kinds of language learning opportunities it offered.

The paper begins with a discussion of the theoretical framework for the project, which outlines relevant insights from second language acquisition research and introduces terminology which will be used in the presentation of the research. Some methodological difficulties associated with researching advanced language learning are also recognised, and the use of screen-capturing software which served as the data collection and data analysis tool is explained.

Second language acquisition (SLA) research investigates how people acquire a language other than their mother tongue and what conditions can support this process. Both the process and the product or outcome of learning another language are explored, and both natural and instructed contexts of learning are examined. In the context of this article the issue of whether the L2 is the learners' second or another subsequent language is not problematized (for a discussion of this see Block, 2003), nor is it relevant here to make a distinction between (conscious) learning and (subconscious) acquisition of the second language[i] (Krashen, 1985). In this article, the terms L2 acquisition and L2 learning are used interchangeably (Blake, 2008).

It is generally accepted that SLA requires rich but comprehensible L2 input ($i + 1$, Krashen, 1985), and that there is a connection between complexity of input and complexity of output (Collentine, 2013). Another important condition for successful SLA is opportunities to use the language for interaction and negotiation (Long, 1996). A sociocultural perspective on SLA extends this input-interaction-output model with the notion that L2 learning, like other "higher forms of human mental activity" (Lantolf, 2000, p. 80), is mediated through social interaction, private speech, or by artifacts (ibid). In other words, language learning involves learning through the language as well as about the language, and these processes are "complementary and mutually supportive aspects of learning a language" Matthiessen (2006, p. 33). L2 learning viewed as a sociocultural activity therefore goes beyond acquiring a formal language system (Wertsch, 2006). It is facilitated by social interaction with others and requires L2 input at a level which stretches the learner beyond their comfort zone, but remains in their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). It is assumed that interaction and negotiation with another interlocutor (possibly a more competent one, such as a teacher or native speaker) pushes the learner to communicate and engage with any difficulties posed by the input. In this process opportunities for L2 learning are created. Such a view of language learning is shared by students themselves: Fernandez Dobao and Blum's (2013) study on learner perceptions towards collaborative writing reports that 54 out 55 students view working in pairs as a positive strategy for L2 writing.

A study by Storch (1999) showed that pair work can improve grammatical accuracy in student L2 output. However this quantitative study was based on very small numbers of participants and only analysed the product of the student output, rather than the process leading to it. It was found that students working in pairs took nearly double the time to complete tasks compared

to students working alone, and that the resulting output showed greater accuracy. This was interpreted as evidence that student output improved when they worked collaboratively.

Engaging in interaction as a learning strategy may also help to explain the learning process itself because it externalises and makes visible some of the cognitive processes involved. Long and Robinson (1998) point out that when interacting in an L2 the speakers are primarily focusing on the communication of meaning, but from time to time they will shift to a focus on form. This is particularly true when the interaction is taking place in a learning context such as a classroom. Such focusing on language form is seen to be beneficial for language learning itself (Chapelle, 2001), as well as providing a means of understanding language learning processes (Swain, 2006) since it offers a window into the cognitive processes involved.

Specifically, output theory (Swain, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995) identifies three observable behaviours or functions of output as potential windows into the learning processes that support SLA. According to Swain (1995), these windows are characterized by incidents in which the learners either (a) notice a gap between what they want to express and what they are capable to, or (b) test out a hypothesis regarding an L2 form (whereby the hypothesis is represented in the output itself), or (c) when the learner reflects on language through the language (metalinguistic function).

Swain's initial theoretical framework was later developed to incorporate phenomena which she named 'verbalization', 'collaborative dialogue' (Swain, 2000), language-related episodes (Swain & Lapkin, 2001) and 'languaging' (Swain, 2006). These changes of terminology reflect a developing understanding and refinement of the hypothesized L2 learning processes. Swain's later understanding is increasingly influenced by the sociocultural approach to SLA, in particular by the notion that language learning cannot be captured through an "information-processing perspective" alone, but needs a broadening of perspective "to one in which all social activity forms a part of the learning environment" (Swain, 2000, p. 99). The fluid quality of language learning is expressed in the term "languaging" which conveys "an action – a dynamic, never-ending process of using language to make meaning" (Swain, 2006).

As outlined above, this approach concentrates on defining second language learning as a process rather than focusing purely on the end product, the manifested evidence of what has been learned. It seeks to understand "what learners *actually do*, not what the researcher assumes instruction and task demands will lead learners to focus on" (Swain, 1998, p. 80; emphasis in the original). Research into language output therefore needs to describe findings which relate to situations in which language may be acquired, rather than concentrating only on finished outcomes and results (Shehadeh, 2002).

2. Methodology
Studying language learning processes in advanced language learners can present several methodological challenges. It is recognised that "the nature of advancedness itself […] differs from other acquisitional levels" (Byrnes, 2006, p. 23) and this fact, together with the methodological problems associated with developing effective research frameworks for advanced language learners, is reflected in Byrnes' observation that advanced L2 levels are underrepresented in SLA studies (Byrnes, 2006).

Quantitative research frameworks have been used to study beginner to intermediate L2

learners, for example using pre- and post-treatment tests to establish whether L2 learning has actually taken place. Swain, Brooks, and Tocalli-Beller (2002) review several such studies. However in the case of advanced language learners it is more problematic to attribute L2 output directly to specific interventions, due to the number of uncontrollable variables (which increase with the learners' advanced proficiency levels and also relate to the level of openness of the task).

CALL has established itself as a research field in the sense of Block's definition (2003, p. 11) which includes "publications and academic programmes of study", but is still a relatively young discipline and has not yet developed an 'established' research methodology (Colpaert, 2013; Hubbard, 1996), particularly for dealing with the study of advanced SLA. A further dilemma of doing research into communication tasks which involve multimedia[ii] was commented on by Plass and Jones who highlight that the "study of language acquisition during natural communication does not readily allow for the use of rigorous quantitative designs". They suggest that "researchers must either conduct studies of a more experimental nature in less authentic settings, or employ research methodologies that are more appropriate to the study of language acquisition in situ" (Plass & Jones, 2005, pp. 477-478).

Taking these comments into account, a qualitative case study approach was chosen for the present study, which employed screen-capturing software for data collection and data analysis. The study's main aim was to investigate the language learning potential of an open CALL task for advanced learners. The task itself was primarily a meaning focused activity which involved processing authentic language. Engaging in the various activities required the students to modify and develop their use of the L2. The approach is similar to the one used in genre-based curricula (Crane, 2006), and also required the students to demonstrate higher order skills such as summarising. The task output was analysed for evidence of 'languaging' (Swain, 2006), as defined above, which would show how the task generated opportunities for the students to focus on aspects of the language itself (focus on form) within the interaction and negotiation required to complete the task successfully.

The specific research questions to be investigated were as follows:

1) To what extent can advanced language learners acquire L2 in a collaborative and open CALL task?

2) Can the L2 learning potential of such tasks be evidenced?

2.1 Participants

Ten students participated in the study, of whom seven were majoring in International Business and studying German as a minor subject. They were all in their final year of their BA course at a British university. The other three participants joined the class through the route of the institution-wide language programme, which is open to all university students[iii]. Six students were female and four male. Eight students were L1 speakers of English, with a further two L1 speakers of French and Russian. The project lasted for four weeks, with one two-hour class each week. The students worked in pairs in a computer room. They chose their own partners. Each pair had access to two computers during the whole class time.

The participants were all advanced learners of German. Advanced learner level is defined here as B2 to C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for

Languages (CEFRL). The learning outcomes specified for the language class of the final year of the BA course can be described as C1 level. The BA students would have entered university with an A-level pass in German and had studied the language at university for a further 2 years, as well as spending one year in Germany. The project described here took place during their final year at university, after their return from the year abroad. By this stage it would be assumed that students had successfully reached level B2.

Foreign language competence at level B2 describes the learner to be able to "understand the main ideas of complex text [...], including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation." Furthermore, students should be able to "produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options. (CEFRL, 2011, p. 24)

2.2   The Task

The four-week task required the students to develop an outline of a marketing strategy for a product of their choice, to be launched in the target language country. This involved researching the internet for specific information and summarizing or synthesizing it in L2. Once the students had decided on 'their product', they were expected to work with authentic German texts using the internet as a resource. While this approach is considered to be problematic for learners with lower levels of L2 proficiency, since subject-specific texts may be overwhelming if the learner is not provided with some form of scaffolding (Donaldson & Haggstrom, 2006; Fischer, 2007; Skehan, 2003), at level B2 students are expected to be able to deal with such activities. A task which involved skim reading, extracting and using specific information to produce a marketing strategy was therefore considered appropriate and relevant to their interests. In order to limit the cognitive load, the task was divided into different input and output phases, with initial gathering of information (input) leading to the evaluation of its usefulness and incorporation into a presentation and report (output).

The five student pairs each worked on different aspects relating to the collaborative production of an outline for the marketing strategy. Collaboration is seen here as a "joint response to the problem to be solved, [which] requires constant negotiation of procedures and relevant strategies for meaning making on a group level" (Lund, 2013, p. 80). Key characteristics of the task were its student-centeredness (the students were responsible for all the decisions relating to the product, target group, marketing approach etc.), the use of authentic internet-based texts as the main source of information, and the opportunities to use the L2 to interact and negotiate with other students, both orally and via emails, as they worked collaboratively towards a successful outcome. The task was designed to combine the students' subject-specific knowledge and practice of the foreign language they were studying, within a 'natural' setting.

The language skills to be demonstrated (especially in reading and writing) were matched to the CEFRL. At level B2, students' expected ability to write reports and essays is described to include a systematically developed argument, based on the synthesis and evaluation of different ideas (CEFRL, 2011, p. 62).

In order to achieve the overall objective of developing an outline of a marketing strategy, some groups undertook sub-tasks, acting as researchers and suppliers of relevant information (summarizing, synthesizing information) under the direction of a lead group who made the main business decisions. In this way everyone worked collaboratively

towards a common goal, while also exploiting opportunities to produce L2 output.

2.3   Data collection tool

Data was collected using screen-capturing software (Camtasia), which also recorded sound in the vicinity of the computer. This software records on-screen activities visually, film-like, not in the form of text or code. The researcher can observe everything that happens on the screen, such as all the mouse movements, the processes of typing and deleting text, the websites accessed by the learner, and their switching between websites and applications, while at the same time listening to the students' recorded interaction and comments.

Using screen-capturing software to investigate a collaborative CALL task has been little exploited up to the present time (examples of exceptions are Lai & Zhao, 2006; Smith, 2008). The software offers different types of multimodal data, including aural, visual and text-based. This data is best represented in form of tables which can indicate the turn-taking, the interaction between the student and the computer (for example the use of online dictionaries and internet searches) and the language produced by the students, including false attempts which are subsequently amended or deleted (see for example table 1). This on-screen activity can be related to student talk, i.e., off-screen oral discussions between students which are simultaneously recorded by the software (see for example table 2).

2.4   Data collection procedure

At the start of each class students activated the screen-capturing software. At the end of each class, the recordings were downloaded and burnt on DVDs. All the student participants had given consent for their work to be recorded and for the data to be used anonymously. The software intermittently activated popup windows which reminded the students that the recording was ongoing.

Overall, 54 hours of screen footage and sound were recorded. Other collected data included the emails which were exchanged between the groups, and their individually written reports and oral presentations to the class.

The first two weeks of the project practised primarily the students' receptive language skills and higher order cognitive skills. In the last two weeks the focus was predominantly on their productive skills, with the last two weeks used to deliver oral presentations of the groups' findings and individually written summaries. Development of the higher order skills specified in the B2 descriptor of the CEFRL was evidenced in the processes by which the students developed the task content.   For example, they researched web pages for information which could be relevant to developing their marketing strategy. They filtered information through gist reading, considered the importance of various types of texts (word-based, statistical, etc.) and wrote short summaries of the information they considered important.   Representing the screen action in the form of tables, complemented by the student talk, made visible the students' thoughts and concerns as they were completing the task.   For example, a decision about the relevance of a text would be dependent on its comprehension. When the cursor movement points towards a particular word and the off-screen student voice asks their partner 'what does that mean?' the viewer can clearly see what the questioner is referring to. Alternatively, a student pair may be discussing the accurate use of a language structure. The method of data collection adopted in this study can facilitate insights into cognitive processes similar to 'think aloud protocols'.

This article concentrates on examples relating to SLA processes, in particular self-directed

focus on form, and various forms of collaboration between partners, rather than the higher order skills referred to above.

2.5 Data analysis

The B2 level descriptor of the CEFRL (above) alludes to the methodological difficulties SLA research may encounter when investigating the outcome of acquisition. How can it be established that a particular treatment leads to the result or outcome for which students are tested at the end of the treatment? Unlike beginner and intermediate L2 learners, advanced learners are already familiar with most of the grammatical and structural features of the L2. With regard to language form, it is therefore problematic to attempt to establish causality between the advanced learner being exposed to particular forms during a particular period and their subsequent L2 output, in other words to test whether language forms have been internalized and can be correctly applied in other contexts. At the advanced level, students need opportunities to practise and expand their knowledge of the L2 within the context of more advanced skills and natural language settings, for examples by dealing with language use in a variety of genres (Crane, 2006) and within authentic texts.

The method of data analysis applied in this study is directly linked to the method of data collection, since the screen-capturing software is instrumental in both. As alluded to above, the recordings of screen movements and the transcripts of the oral interaction between partners constituted the basis for analysing the process by which the students' pairs interacted and negotiated to complete the task, thereby generating L2 output.

In order to answer the research question whether this kind of CALL task can support L2 learning, the data was investigated for evidence of SLA opportunities. A two-fold approach was used. Firstly, grounded theory (GT) methods were applied for the initial data analysis, which interrogate data with questions aimed at understanding the data within its own context. Such questions ask 'what is going on?' (Charmaz, 2004), 'what are the persons' main concerns?' (Glaser & Holton, 2004). Continuously interrogating the data in this way allows categories and associated properties to emerge, which enable the cross-referencing of on-screen actions, student talk, and features in the written documents. In GT, the term 'category' refers to a concept of a higher level of abstraction than that of a 'property'. Properties are lower level abstractions of concepts (Glaser, 1992) which emerge from the category. For example, properties which emerge from the category *Focus on Form* can include *lexis, formal and informal address, grammar, use of online dictionaries and spell checkers* etc. Properties associated with a category can then be used to analyse incidents in the data which exemplify the category. Incidents which represent the category "focus on form" in the current data may be identified as evidence that the learner is pushing their L2 output to a higher level and developing their interlanguage. These instances in the data can be interpreted as language learning opportunities.

In other words, output theory (Swain, 1995, 2000), language-related episodes (Swain, 2001), students' verbalization and their collaborative dialogue (Swain, 2000) were used as "diagnostic tools" in order to investigate the potential for SLA.

Below, examples are given which represent such encountered language–related episodes.

3. Results

The data analysis showed evidence of what Swain (2006) calls 'languaging', situations in which students were actively engaging with language form, considering how to express their

meaning appropriately and correctly. These moments of considering language form are fleeting and cannot be recognized just by looking at written language output in, for example, emails or written reports. The latter represent the finished result, but do not reveal details about the process of text production.

Examples of "languaging" found in this study, which are analysed below, are categorised under three headings: (1) self-directed focus on form and self-correction or self-repair, (2) various forms of collaboration between the partners in a group, such as asking for confirmation or providing a translation, and (3) examples of peer correction and peer proof-reading.

There is some overlap between the different categories chosen and some of the examples given here could be listed under more than one heading. For example, point 3.2.1 (asking for confirmation) can represent self-directed focus on form (grammar) and can serve as an example for collaboration between partners.

3.1. Self-directed focus on form and self-repair
The following are two examples of 'focus on form', which occurred while the students were drafting written texts.

3.1.1. Composing an email
In the first example, Claudia[iv] is taking steps to deal with the session on her own as her partner is absent. She writes to the lead group and asks to be reminded of what she needs to do. In turn 1, she explains why she does not have access to the record of the previous week's work which she should continue this week: Her partner is absent, and the work record is in her partner's email box. This leaves her lost, or "confused", a term she looks up in an electronic dictionary after abandoning a false start with the uncompleted word "ain". Using the dictionary, she actively chooses the translation she considers most suitable, "verwirrt", which is the third option in the list of translations (turn 2). She continues writing, incorrectly using the infinitive of the verb "sollen" with the 1st person pronoun "ich". Recognising that she has made a conjugation error, she deletes the infinitive ending of the verb and the pronoun (turn 3) before completing the question correctly (turn 4). She then wants to ask the leading group to remind her of what she needs to do, but she does not know how to express this. She looks up the verb "remind" in the dictionary, checks the various translations and examples given (this process is visible to the researcher via her on-screen cursor movements) and eventually settles on an incorrect translation (turns 6 + 7), *an *mir erinnern* (can you remember me) instead of *mich an etwas erinnern* (can you remind me).

Table 1: Composing an email

turn	Claudia week 2, 11:23-13:12 screen	false attempts	dictionary use
1	Es tut mir leid Bill und Anna, aber Dorothy ist heute krank und letztes Woche haben wir ihre email benutzt. Also, ich bin ~~ain~~	deletes: ain	enlarges dictionary from bottom bar; checks "confused", uses in text: verwirrt
2	ganz verwirrt		verwirrt was the 3rd option in the translation list

3	was soll~~en~~ ~~ich~~	deletes: en deletes: ich	
4	was soll ich antworten. ~~Can~~ ~~knn~~	deletes: can deletes: knn	
5	Kannst du mir		goes to dictionary, checks: "remind"; changes text to
6	Konnen sie an mir ~~du~~ erinnern?	deletes du	
7	Konnen sie an mir erinnern?		
8	Vielen Dank Claudia		
	Sends email (13:12): Es tut mir leid Bill und Anna, aber Dorothy ist heute krank und letztes Woche haben wir ihre email benutzt. Also, ich bin ganz verwirrt was soll ich antworten. Konnen sie an mir erinnern? Vielen Dank Claudia*	I am sorry Bill and Anna, but Dorothy is ill today and we used her email last week. Well, I am confused what I should answer. Can you remember me? (She probably means: remind me) Many thanks Claudia	

This example shows how Claudia deals with a problem of language form by herself, how she succeeds in overcoming the problem to some extent and can self-repair. She can make informed decisions about the translation choices offered and does not simply use the first option. However, the email version she sends still includes errors, some of which represent low level proficiency, e.g., ignoring the capitalization rules in written German and issues of word order. This observation is considered further in the discussion section below.

3.1.2. Thinking about spelling (Umlaut)
The following example illustrates self-directed focus on form while composing a text for a powerpoint presentation. Fred considers whether the word *beantwortet* may need an Umlaut; he inserts an –e- after –o- (turn 2), and draws attention to this move by saying "Hier" to his partner; but then without waiting for his partner to respond, he decides that the Umlaut is not necessary and deletes the –e- again, declaring "Nein" as he does so.

Table 2: beantwortet (Fred week 3, 51:50)

turn		*student talk*	*screen*
1	Ellie	Just write: Unsere Fragen waren nicht beantwortet [Our questions were not answered]	Unsere Fragen waren nicht beantw**or**tet
2	Fred	Hier … [Here…] (refers to Umlaut in beantw**oe**rtet) – Nein [No] (he deletes the -e- immediately again)	Inserted e to beantw**oe**rtet beantw**or**tet

3. 2. Collaboration
The examples below refer to sequences of collaborative construction of text. The class was divided into 5 student pairs, each of whom was preparing their class presentation during this session.

3.2.1 Asking for confirmation with focus on grammar
When a learner becomes aware of a gap between what they want to express and what they are able to express confidently, they often turn to their partner for support. The following exemplifies this. Fred is creating a presentation slide showing the initial research questions that his team set out to answer during the project. He copies and pastes the questions from their notes of previous sessions. He copies "Unseren Fragen" (our questions) and pastes this into the slide's headline box. In turn 1 he considers the grammatical case, should it be dative (*unseren*) or nominative (*unsere*)? He appears to have noticed that the form is incorrect, but asks his partner for confirmation. She confirms that the nominative case is required and he deletes the dative marker.

Table 3: Case: "unsere Fragen" (Fred week 3, 44:06)

turn		*student talk*	*screen*
1	Fred	Is it unser**e** Fragen [our questions] oder [or] unser**en**? Unser**e**? – oder [or] unser**en** – Fragen [questions]?	Unser**en** Fragen
2	Ellie	unser**e**	
3	Fred	unser**e**	Deletes -n
4	Ellie	Ohne –n [without –n]	Unser**e** Fragen

3.2.2. Partner provides translation
Fred suggests that he and his partner should compose the conclusion together, but he cannot recall the German term for 'conclusion'. His partner, Ellie, provides him with the translation which he repeats and simultaneously inserts into the text.

Table 4: translation (Fred week 3, 51:30)

turn		*Talk*	*screen*
1	Fred	Also jetzt koennen wir zusammen ein conclusion machen [so now we can do the conclusion together]	
2	Ellie	Ja, ok	
3	Fred	Conclusion	
4	Ellie	Zusammenfassung [conclusion]	
5	Fred	Zusammenfasssung […]	Zusammenfasssung

The partners in this dyad work fast and productively together and seem to complement each other with the various skills they bring to the task. Ellie is more confident in using the German language, while Fred types fast (he is the scribe for their powerpoint presentation) and often leads on content issues relating to business concepts.

3.3 Proof-reading as teamwork and peer correction
After completion of the first draft of the presentation, Fred and Ellie proofread the slides together.

The first draft text on a slide to be revised reads:

first draft	English translation	after revision (Table 5)
Was ist die struktur fuer ihr Expansion Plan? Das heist, wollen Sie "organically" expandieren, also Wollen Sie selbst in den Markt eindringen und alles selbst vorbereiten.	[What is the structure for your expansion plan? I.e., do you want to expand 'organically', so Do you want to enter the market yourself and prepare everything yourself?]	Was ist die **S**truktur fuer **unseren** Expansion**s**plan? Das hei**ss**t, wollen Sie "organically" expandieren also **w**ollen sie selbst in den Markt eindringen und alles selbst vorbereiten?

Working on the draft text of the slide (left-hand column above), Fred and Ellie amend the L2 forms in dialogue with one another (see transcript below, Table 5). Fred reads the text aloud and comments at the same time (turn 1). He recognizes that the noun needs to be capitalized, according to the German spelling convention, so he corrects the S of "struktur" to a capital letter. Ellie spots that there is a pronoun case error and changes *ihr* to *ihren* (turn 2). Fred suggests changing the possessive pronoun from the 3rd person plural to the 1st person plural (turn 3), but repeats the case error (turn 3+5) which Ellie corrects again in turn 6. In turn 7, Fred repeats the correct form and amends this on the slide too. Elli highlights the spelling mistake in "Expansion Plan", i.e., the missing –s- which should link the two nouns (turn 8). Fred misunderstands Ellie at first who wants to say that Expansion**s**plan is one word with a linking –s- in between. He inserts 2 times the letter –s, at the end of each of the nouns. Between turns 8 and 12 they communicate in 'shorthand' about the spelling of this noun. The spoken communication would be meaningless here, unless the computer screen is part of the communication model. This phenomenon in which the computer screen is a constituent 3rd part of the communication between 2 interlocutors has previously been referred to as triadic interaction (van Lier, 2004) or triangular communication (Leahy, 2004). Since both interlocutors can see the spelling on the screen, their shorthand communication makes sense and Fred successfully corrects the noun in turn 11. Between turns 12 and 14 Ellie highlights the misspelling of "heist" and Fred amends it. In turn 15, Fred suggests another change on the content level, to insert the term customer, but they both agree that this would not be necessary.

Ellie then points towards an error (turn 17) where the spelling convention is not adhered to. Fred instantly corrects this.

Table 5: Draft revision (1:04:53 - 1:05:58)

turn		*talk*	*screen*
1	Fred	Hier: Was ist die –Struktur - ist gross	Was ist die **s**truktur fuer **ihr** Expansion Plan? (He inserts capital **S**) Was ist die **S**truktur fuer ihr Expansion Plan?
2	Ellie	fuer Ihr**en**	
3	Fred	Fuer unsere – Sollen wir – cause, das war so – ihre Email	
4	Ellie	Ja	

5	Fred	unsere	Was ist die **S**truktur fuer **unsere** Expansion Plan?
6	Ellie	unseren	
7	Fred	unseren – das heisst	unsere**n**
8	Ellie	Expansion**s**, **–s** together, without	Was ist die **S**truktur fuer **unseren** Expansion**s** Plan**s**?
9	Fred	Ah – without gross	Expansion**s** **p**lan**s**
10	Ellie	Ja – und nicht Plan**s,** just plan you do not have many plans – Expansionsplan – together	
11	Fred	together	Was ist die **S**truktur fuer **unseren** Expansion**sp**lan?
12	Ellie	Zusammen - das heisst	Das heist, wollen Sie "organically" expandieren also Wollen sie selbst in den Markt eindringen und alles selbst vorbereiten? …
13	Fred	We have to change it to	
14	Ellie	Double ss	hei**ss**t
15	Fred	Ja, shall we change it to customers?	
15	Ellie	No, dies war die Frage warum	
16	Fred	OK, yeahyeah	
17	Ellie	Wollen sie organically expandieren Nicht mit capital	Cursor next to Wollen
18	Fred		Changes W to w: wollen

After the proof-reading exercise in teamwork which took them 1 minute and 5 seconds, the text was changed to:

> Was ist die **S**truktur fuer **unseren** Expansion**sp**lan? Das hei**ss**t, wollen Sie "organically" expandieren also **w**ollen sie selbst in den Markt eindringen und alles selbst vorbereiten?

In the next sentence which follows the dialogue above, a similar structure to the last error is used in which the question word appears with a capital letter while it is preceded by a conjunction ("Oder, **W**ollen Sie eine Deutsche Firma suchen …"). Fred recognized the repeat error, i.e., capital -W in "Wollen" and changes it to lower key. This incident of self-repair could be seen as either a window into learning taking place or simply a heightened awareness of or concentration on spelling conventions, because of the close temporal proximity to a similar error in the previous sentence.

4. Discussion

The results of this study show that when students focused on language form they were able to correct their own L2 output. When uncertain about specific structures or forms, they were able to employ strategies to overcome their perceived weaknesses, for example by using an

electronic dictionary or consulting a peer. Difficulties were solved collaboratively (Leahy, 2004). Proof-reading in a team was effective, and led to a higher degree of accuracy than individually produced output. However, this process did not overcome all the errors that were produced, as some errors were overlooked by the students. This finding supports similar findings in studies which did not necessarily include CALL, such as Storch's (1999) study about the positive influence that collaborative pair work can have on L2 accuracy in the traditional classroom. Storch (1999, p. 370) found that "collaboration and the metatalk it generated led to an improvement in the grammatical accuracy of the texts produced". However, that study also found that the overall linguistic complexity was lower in the texts produced collaboratively and the positive effect on accuracy did not affect all grammatical items equally.

In the present study, the level of L2 accuracy was low. This may be explained partly by the task framework and partly by what is known about the progression of L2 learning in general. It may be argued that working on a content-focused task affected the students' ability to concentrate on accuracy and led to cognitive overload (compare with Skehan, 1996, 2003; Robinson, 2001). This interpretation seems to be supported by the finding that language (results point 3.3) was corrected successfully when the partners were concentrating on proof-reading only. From this it could be concluded that separating tasks into two stages, and separating focus on language from focus on content, may be beneficial for L2 output. However, such an interpretation could be questioned in the light of Collentine's study (2013) which concluded that the linguistic complexity in learner output is affected by information-rich input, rather than primarily by linguistically complex input.

Cognitive overload can be triggered by the competing demands of content and language accuracy (Skehan, 2003). However another factor contributing to cognitive overload is the complexity of L2 output in a natural setting. The more advanced the L2 proficiency, the more complex becomes the communication, drawing on more and more L2 features in order to express the intended meaning or content.

Comparing the cognitive demands of L2 output between advanced learners and beginner learners shows the different quality of that demand on them. Beginner learners are introduced to new language features which are then practised discreetly, advanced learners are likely to have encountered most L2 features and structures already which they then have to successfully combine in their output. They may have shown mastery of these features when they were practised discreetly, as indicated in the simplified L2 learning cycle shown in figure 1. For example, following the introduction of a verb form in a traditional grammar class, the student might practise that form in relative content-free activities, e.g., by completing gap-filling tasks, and thereby maintain the focus and attention on the particular form. However, free composition and meaningful communication puts additional cognitive demands on learners of all levels, compared to L2 output which is controlled and designed to practise a limited number of L2 features. As the study results show, learners composing free text can encounter difficulties in recalling and applying their L2 knowledge in relation to, for example compound nouns, grammatical cases and spelling conventions (figure 2). The more natural and authentic the setting, the greater is the potential for L2 inaccuracies.
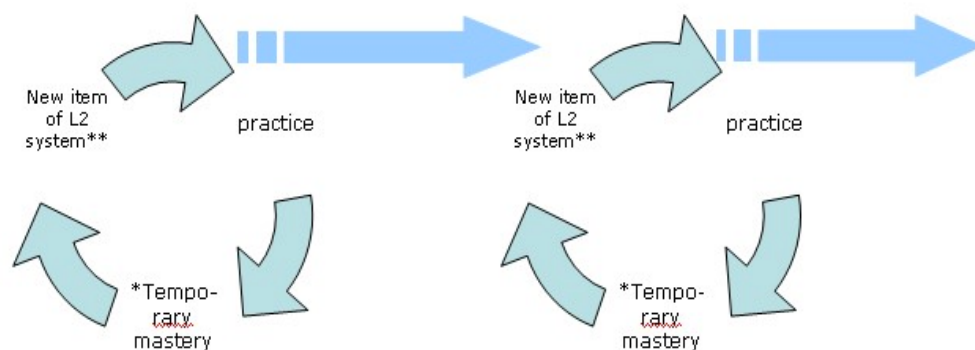
Figure 1: Simplified L2 learning cycle
*Temporary mastery refers to mastery as evidenced in the accurate use in controlled tests with limited and selective demand on the L2 production, e.g., cloze tests.
** New item of L2 system can refer to any part of the language system, e.g., structure, including word order, grammar, and vocabulary.

Advanced level learners "seek to enhance […] language capacities toward academic levels of performance" (Byrnes, 2006, p. 2). In other words there is an expectation that they can communicate at a high level of proficiency about complex content. The challenge for advanced learners lies therefore in the activation of high-level L2 proficiency in naturalistic situations, encompassing all their previously acquired L2 knowledge (figure 2). This goal requires the ability to manage complex communication skills, and is far more demanding than simply practising isolated structures in L2 exercises or doing scaffolded text composition. Advanced SLA tasks need to be designed accordingly to give learners the opportunity to practise L2 in authentic real-world settings (Chapelle, 2001). Even though such holistic and content-based tasks increase the cognitive demand on the learner, the associated problems with L2 accuracy can be addressed in various ways. Working with peers can lead to improved accuracy (Leahy, 2004; Storch, 1999). External incentives to produce higher accuracy could be introduced by, for instance, linking the task to a graded assessment or widening the audience beyond the boundaries, for example through the publication on a web page.
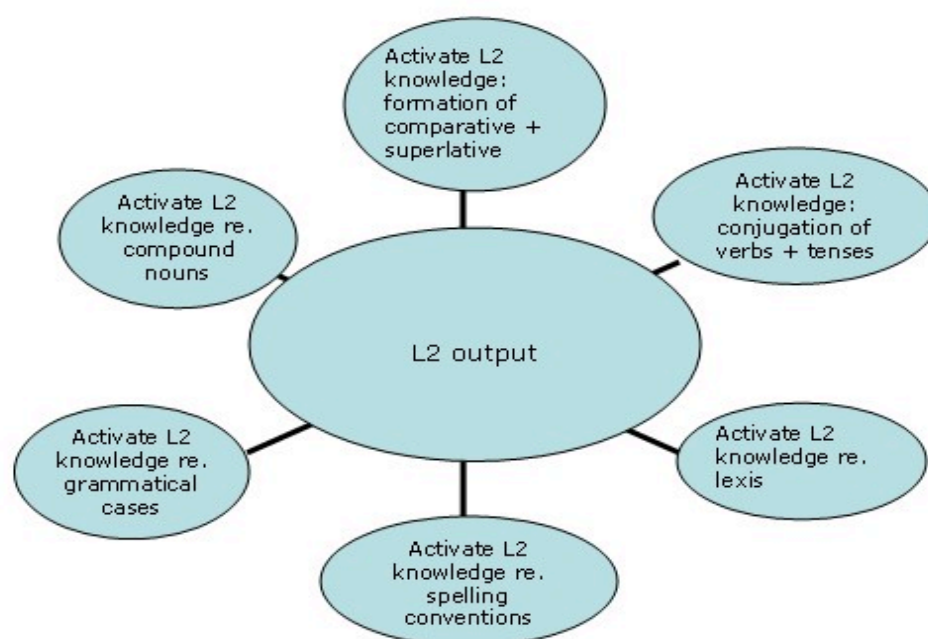
Figure 2: Activating prior L2 knowledge
In free text productions, learners have to activate their knowledge in relation to a multitude of L2 phenomena, which include lexis, structures, and grammar. The higher the proficiency level, the more specific knowledge about forms (symbolized above in satellites) needs to be quickly integrated into output (represented by the central circle).

The research design proved useful for generating insights into student behaviour. It enabled the researcher to see in detail actions undertaken in order to complete the task, and in particular to examine the production and construction of L2 output. Differences in data interpretation, depending on whether data is purely text-based or includes visual elements as generated through screen-capturing software, has been highlighted in other research, albeit with different foci. For example, Lai & Zhao (2006) compared face-to-face interaction with online chat with a view to exploring potential differences in noticing a gap (as a pre-requisite of SLA). Their findings suggest that the extra time afforded by the online chat mode facilitated self-repair. A study by Smith (2008) looked at self-repair in chat logs compared with video files relating to those chat logs, and found significantly more incidents of self-repair in the data generated with screen-capturing software. He concludes that "relying on printed chat logs alone when analyzing SCMC [synchronous computer-mediated communication] data is a very tenuous undertaking" (Smith, 2008, p. 98). It should be noted that both of these studies were conducted in a quantitative research framework which did not generate detailed descriptions of the text production processes.

The study discussed here differs in fundamental ways from those referred to above. Here, students completed a complex task based on their own research which involved creating the outline of a marketing strategy. On the content level, the task was embedded in academic context which was relevant to the students and was therefore more complex and challenging than the spot-the-difference picture task (Lai & Zhao, 2006) and jigsaw task (Smith, 2008) used by the other researchers. Secondly, students worked collaboratively in class, and engaged in a combination of synchronous face-to-face discussion and computer-mediated written L2 output.

5. Conclusion

The aim of this study was to explore the language learning potential for advanced language learners afforded by open, task-based CALL. While it was recognised from the outset that an open-task framework hinders the prediction of specific language use and therefore the testing of the same, the study shows various incidents of language-related episodes which are involved in the process of L2 learning. Analysis of the collected data suggests that advanced language learners can acquire L2 in a collaborative and open CALL task. The findings show that students were able to resolve some of the difficulties they encountered by working collaboratively. Collaborative text construction followed by proof-reading helped to overcome difficulties such as uncertainty regarding grammatical cases (result point 3.2.1), and spelling (result point 3.1.2), the formation of compound nouns (result point 3.3), and vocabulary (results point 3.2.2). These findings support the researcher's decision to design a task in which learner activity was embedded in a sociocultural collaborative framework.

The methodology applied to the study proved useful. Concentrating on the process character of L2 output gave an insight into students' decisions while creating output and thereby a window into their learning process. The use of screen-capturing software to record the students' talk and their on-screen activity while working on the task, facilitated close observation of the process of language production and enabled language-related episodes such as self-correction or self-repair to be evidenced. The data revealed the steps taken by students towards activation and (and possibly internalization) of previously studied features of L2. It also gave insights into challenges that the learners had to deal with, in particular the cognitive demands when several L2 features need to be activated simultaneously in order to compose text. It is argued that this form of CALL activity provides a collaborative and naturalistic environment in which individual learners can be stretched and can gain confidence in using the L2.

While qualitative studies like this one cannot make claims of transferability, the findings support similar research undertaken in different settings and with less challenging tasks. The particular significance of the research discussed here lies in the combining of an open CALL task for advanced L2 learners, with the use of screen-capturing software for data collection and data analysis, and the application of a qualitative research approach using grounded theory and output theory.

More qualitative studies of advanced learners are needed in order to develop a broader picture of the learning strategies students employ in the CALL environment. With a view to future task design, one potential area of interest is whether self-directed and peer-directed focus on form shows a preference for one aspect of language over another, for example a focus on lexis rather than grammar.

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Notes

[i] See Block (2003) and Mitchell & Myles (2004) for a discussion of the terminology.

[ii] Students had the opportunity to access any internet material as research sources, including multimedia, and were not restricted to written texts.

[iii] Due to small numbers of advanced foreign language learners, institution-wide language classes and those of bespoke courses like this BA business language course are frequently merged, as was done in this case.

[iv] All names were changed in order to protect the student identity.

Minimising Same Error Repetition and Maximising Progress in SLA: An Integrated Method

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Abstract

Alderson teaches us that, "progress should be the aim of all learning". With the purpose of ensuring progress and enhancing first year students' learning of Italian as a second language, research into feedback and repair was undertaken at The University of Western Australia.

The research – funded by the UWA Centre for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning – was inspired by the Italian 1403, 2013 teaching cohort. 1403 is an upper-intermediate level of Italian in which students, despite their good knowledge of the language, kept repeating the same errors. Students also claimed to be overwhelmed by the myriads of corrections they received in different forms, which translated into little to no definitive repair.

While corrective practices have been studied for a few decades now and there is a substantial body of research on feedback and repair in second language acquisition (Chaudron, 1998; Bangert-Drowns et. All, 1991; Kluger and DeNisi, 1996; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster and Mori, 2006), not much is known about the effect of isolated purposeful feedback on recurring errors.

The integrated method which was tested in different units of Italian between 2013 and 2015 aims to enhance students' learning by giving students targeted formative feedback on recurring errors in order to maximise definitive repair and, subsequently, progress in learning Italian.

Keywords: second language acquisition, targeted formative feedback, recurring errors, repair

1. Introduction

Alderson teaches us that, "progress should be the aim of all learning" (Alderson,2005: 1). It should also be the aim of all teaching, and the aim of all teaching and learning-based research. It is with this concept in mind that I approached research on the curriculum development of different units of Italian at The University of Western Australia between 2013 and 2015. My research, funded by the Centre for the Advancement of Teaching and Learning of UWA,[1] focuses on feedback in second language acquisition and aims to mimimise same error repetition and increase progress in the learning of a foreign language.

In recent years the teaching of Italian as a second language in tertiary education has been revolutionised, both in Australia and around the world. Higher education has been re-evaluated in the light of a new cohort of students, and particularly in terms of the content and delivery of tertiary courses. This brought to the implementation of New Courses and Broadening Units, which drastically changed the nature of the teaching of Italian, as well as other foreign languages, in Australia. The impact of the changing environment brought about a necessary revision of the syllabuses and methods to be used (Brown and Caruso,2013 39).

It is in light of all these changes in the student cohort, unit programmes and approaches to foreign language teaching, that my research on feedback in SLA can be situated. The research was inspired by the cohort in which my teaching took place in 2013: a first-year intermediate unit of Italian, Italian 1403. Students of 1403 had a more than satisfactory level of Italian. However, they carried over some errors from their previous learning experience in high school or in their Italian-descent families. In order for the students to repair the errors they carried over, it was vital to find a method which would identify problematic areas to ensure progress in their learning of Italian. Students in 1403 also complained that, in their previous learning experience, they had been "bombarded" with corrections. In many cases, this translated into poor retention and unrepaired errors which would be carried through in students' production in L2. In other words, the higher the number of corrections they received, and the more difficult it was to reach definitive repair.

The method I studied and tested in different units of Italian at the University of Western Australia aims to enhance learning through the use of isolated targeted feedback on recurring errors. The purpose of this work is to demonstrate how the method can effectively be used in units of foreign language to decrease the incidence of recurring errors.

Brief Literature Review

This section explores how notions of error, feedback and repair evolved across the history of second language teaching and learning and how they are understood in the present work. It then focuses on the most recent studies on error type and feedback type used in the foreign language classroom, which have been used as a starting point for the Italian 1402, 2015 case study.

While corrective practices have been studied for many decades now and a substantial body of research on feedback and repair in second language acquisition is available to researchers and practitioners in the field (Hendrickson, 1978; Chaudron, 1998; Bangert-Drowns et. all, 1991; Kluger and DeNisi, 1996; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster and Mori, 2006; Harmer, 2007; Ortega, 2009), not much is known about the effect of isolated targeted feedback on recurring errors.

Before we move any further into the description of the type of feedback used in the context of this research, it is imperative to define three concepts: 'error', 'feedback' and 'repair'. As far as 'error' goes, Pawlak claims that, "there is no agreement among specialists as to how the notion of error itself should be defined, and the definitions that have been put forward over the years and adopted as a point of reference in the analyses of learners' inaccurate production are far from satisfactory." (Pawlak, 3)

This demonstrates that, errors in second language acquisition have been puzzling specialists for many generations, as also testified by the high number of investigations put forward by specialists with diverse views and often reaching opposite conclusions. (Rizzardi & Barsi, 2006) Most specialists agree that errors are a vital part of second language classrooms and "a crucial part of the learning process". (Harmer, 2007, 137) From a practical point of view, teachers in the foreign language classroom have always had to come up against students' errors and mistakes.[2] As Pawlak puts it, "practitioners […] are often at a loss as to whether and how to react to errors made by their students". (Pawlak, 2014, 2), and have had to give feedback on those errors, whether recurring or not.

According to Chaudron (1984) errors are linguistic forms or linguistic content which is different differs from native speaker norms or facts. The difference between non-native and native production seems to be the axis this definition revolves around, as it occurs in many following definitions, see Lennon's definition for example:

Linguistic form or combination of forms, which, in the same context and under similar conditions of production, would, in all likelihood, not be produced by the speakers' native speaker counterparts (Lennon 1991, 182)

Both definitions revolve around native speaker's production and both of them lack precise criteria of definition of the reason why and how an error differs from the correct production.

Another definition at the centre of an ongoing debate in the discipline is that of feedback.

Error treatment, or feedback, has been the subject of a number of studies in the last few decades, starting with Hendrickson's (1978, 389) and Chaudron (1980). Not surprisingly, as pointed out by Lyster and Ranta (1997) the questions identified by Hendrickson in 1978 still echo in recent publications demonstrating that, when it comes to error correction or feedback, we are still grasping in the dark. The questions around error feedback are:

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[2] The object of this work is to analyse the incidence of recurring errors with the purpose of reaching definitive repair. Hence, only the errors which return systematically in a student's production will be considered. For this reason, mistakes, as casual occurrences which demonstrate a failure to utilize a system correctly and can easily be self-repaired (Brown 1994, 205) will not be analysed in the present work. For an analysis of this distinction see Corder, 1967.

- Should teachers correct errors?
- When should teachers correct them?
- Which errors should be corrected?
- How should teachers correct?
- Finally, who should correct?

Canadian scholars Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster and Mori (2006) propose a classification of feedback types and analyse their efficacy in French immersion courses. This classification and the results achieved have been taken into account in this study, especially when giving oral feedback during tutorials.[3]

Two of these questions are particularly interesting in the light of recurring errors:

- Should teachers correct errors?
- Which errors should be corrected?

While I do agree with most practitioners and scholars in the field of SLA claiming that errors should definitely be corrected,[4] I also agree with my students when they tell me they feel "bombarded" with corrections. Overwhelming students with corrections is not productive and can, in fact, inhibit a student's spontaneous production, both oral and written. When overwhelmed with error feedback, students may respond by speaking or writing less for fear of making more errors. (Guenette 2012). That was my own experience when learning foreign languages as an undergraduate. Throughout the years of foreign language learning and then foreign language teaching, I have made a strong opinion on error feedback in SLA and that is that feedback is useless unless it translates into repair. On top of that, when we overwhelm students with corrective feedback, it is highly unlikely that they will repair all of the errors we bring their attention to.

While the term "repair" is often used interchangeably with "correction" in SLA (Hall 2007, 2), it is understood here as definitive extirpation of an error from a student's production, reached through teacher's feedback and student's individual study. Hence the term "correction" will be used as a synonym for feedback, to describe actions taken by teachers to help learners modify their target language production (Hall 2007, 2), while the term repair will refer to the definitive correction of an error in SLA.

One way of avoiding to overwhelm students (when giving corrective feedback) I propose here, is to only give explicit feedback on the recurring errors, rather than on all of the errors made by a student. In written production, this can be achieved by marking all of the errors in a paper or a test, as it is done conventionally, but only drawing a student's attention to their recurring error, rather than "bombarding" them with feedback. In the context of online texts, this can be achieved by returning online tests in class and giving oral feedback only on the recurring error of each student. Of course, in order to identify recurring errors for each and every student, extensive research on students' production needs to be carried out beforehand.

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[3] Lyster and Ranta's and Lyster and Mori's works focus on oral feedback in class. Despite the present study deals mostly with feedback on written production, their results and the concept of 'learner uptake' have been taken into account when giving feedback in class and will be used as reference for a future case study.

[4] Pawlak (2014, 3-6) reminds us that error feedback is a common thread which runs through the history of language teaching methods. No matter what method a scholar belongs to, the emphasis on giving feedback on errors is there.

If we agree that errors should be corrected, one type that should definitely be corrected is recurring errors due to their being an impediment to progress in language learning. Corrective practices should aim for a definitive repair of recurring errors, for a definitive extirpation of the recurring error. Knowing that aiming to eradicate all errors in a student's production is a utopic concept, we should at least aim for a definitive repair of their recurring errors.

Case Study

As previously mentioned, the inception of this methodology for the repair of recurring errors in SLA dates back to 2013, within the curriculum development of unit Italian 1403. However, for the purposes of this work, I will focus on the 2015 case study: Italian Studies 2, Summer Session, an intensive course which took place during the summer months.

The UWA Italian 1402 unit outline describes the unit as a continuation of:

> the introduction to Italian language and culture provided in ITAL1401 Italian Studies 1. Students learn to speak, understand, read and write Italian and study aspects of contemporary Italian culture in Italy and in countries of Italian migration. The unit leads to ITAL2403 Italian Studies 3.

The unit took place outside of semester along 6 weeks, rather than the traditional 13 weeks. There were 2 three-hour tutorials and 1 two-hour tutorial per week, for a total of 8 hours weekly.

The Summer Session of 1402 was chosen to be integrated in this study specifically for the purpose to test my method against an intensive course not taught in the usual 13 weeks of semester.

In the summer of 2015, the unit was coordinated by Dr Simon Tebbit and taught by Dr Fausto Butta and myself. Due to the time-consuming nature of my method, I chose to concentrate on the group of students who belonged to the group I taught. 14 students participated in the study and agreed for me to use their data.[5]

The following academic objectives and outcomes are listed in the unit outline:

- extend elementary skills acquired in ITAL1401 Italian Studies 1, in reading, writing, listening and speaking in the Italian language;
- develop further awareness of intercultural issues using Italian as an example;
- continue developing independent learning skills and develop strategies to achieve this aim;
- continue developing interpersonal communication skills in spoken and written Italian and English;
- develop awareness of the structures and use of the English language.

> Students will have:

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[5] This survey has been approved by the UWA Human Ethics Committee RA/4/1/7390. The purpose of this survey is to collect information on the feedback given in the Italian unit, Italian 1402. Participation is voluntary and anonymous.

- attained basic user competency in Italian;
– the ability to understand and respond in Italian at a basic user level;
– attained written competency at a basic user level;
– the ability to understand simple texts on more difficult topics than treated in ITAL1401 Italian Studies 1;
– furthered their interpersonal communication skills including the ability to work effectively in pairs and small groups;
– attained a fair amount of understanding of intercultural issues relating to Italian culture by reading and analysing simple texts in their cultural context;
– further developed formal and independent learning skills;
– further developed awareness of the English language; and
– attained a standard equivalent to Level A1 of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

As far as the assessment of 1402 is concerned, the below table summarises the weighting for all assignments included in the unit.

Assessment Details	Date	Marks
3 Class Tests	1. Week 2 – Thu 15 January 2. Week 4 - Thu 29 January 3. Week 6 - Thu 12 February	30
Listening Comprehensions	10 listening comprehensions (ongoing)	10
Online Activities	3 Assignments 1. Un Viaggio in Aereo – Wed 14 January 2. Personaggi Famosi – Wed 28 January 3. Cercasi lavoro - Wed 11 February	10
Conversazione	Week 5 – Wed 4 February	10
Written examination (two hours)	Formal examination period	30
Contribution and participation	During semester	10

Table 1 - 1402 assessment

As you can see, the unit features a number of online activities and online listening comprehension quizzes, to enhance students' participation outside of the classroom environment and taking advantage of the more free time students have during the summer months, when semester is off.

In order to gather as much data on students' production as I possibly could, both oral and written production were analysed. Specifically, students' production in the 1402 group was tested:

- in class during lessons;
- in their in-class tests.

The in-class tests were planned to diagnose students' progress at the end of each fortnight of teaching. The first one served the purpose of identifying recurring errors and comparing errors appearing here to errors in oral production in class. The second and third tests served the purpose of assessing whether definitive repair of the recurring weaknesses previously identified had been reached or not.

2.Methodology

The purpose of this study is to enhance students' learning by giving them targeted formative feedback on recurring errors in order to minimise error repetition, maximise definitive repair and, ultimately, progress in second language learning. The method consists in an analysis of students' written and oral production with the purpose of identifying recurring patterns. Students are then given targeted formative feedback on their recurring errors to reach repair by the end of the course.

As previously mentioned, Test 1 was used to identify students' recurring errors. The errors students made in Test 1 were compared to those made in oral production in class. Subsequently, errors made in Tests 2 and 3 were compared to Test 1 to check if the identified areas were repaired and the purpose of this study reached.

All of the students received their Test 1 marked conventionally. They also received isolated targeted feedback on their recurring error, both in oral and written form. A small number of students did not receive any targeted feedback on their recurring error after Test 1 because:

• they did not make any errors in the test;
• they made many errors but they did not show any recurring patterns.

These categories identify two types of students on opposite poles of the scores scale: the first type scored extremely high scores consistently over the course, while the second type scored consistently low scores from the beginning to the end of the course.

According to the method, written tests are marked conventionally. However, students' attention is drawn exclusively to the recurring error, both graphically and with an oral comment the tutor gives on the test, as shown in the below picture.

Figure 1

As you can see, the written paper is marked conventionally but the student's attention is drawn exclusively to their recurring error, in the above case the endings of verbs in –are in the future tense. This is a common mistake for learners of Italian: differently from what occurs in other tenses, where –are verbs present forms with the letter –a in the suffix - such as in the imperfect indicative "pass<u>avo</u>, pass<u>avi</u>, pass<u>ava</u>, passav<u>amo</u>, passav<u>ate</u>, passav<u>ano</u>" - in the future tense, -are verbs take an –e and conjugate like –ere verbs: "passerò, passerai, passerà, passeremo, passerete, passeranno". (Marin & Magnelli, 2013; Kinder & Savini, 2004)

The only error on the paper which is commented graphically and orally when tests are returned is the recurring error, in the hopes that the student focuses on that particular error and makes a conscious effort to repair it.

As we shall see, most of the recurring errors found in Test 1 are grammatical errors, similar to the one above, with the exception of a small number of students who needed to work more consistently on their vocabulary. When the recurring error is grammatical, in addition to signaling such error, a further explanation of the rule is given to the student together with extra exercises and tips to conquer their error.

Research on the effect of timing in the foreign language classroom (Rolin-Ianziti, 2006) made me comprehend the benefits of immediate feedback, which I provided my students with in class, right after they made their recurring errors.

In order to enhance students' intake and following on the achievements of studies carried through by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster and Mori (2006), prompts were preferred to explicit corrections in the classroom. These "withhold correct forms […] and offer learners an opportunity for self-repair by generating their own modified response. […] By prompting, a teacher provides cues for learners to draw on their own resources to self-repair". (Lyster and Mori, 2006, 272)

Assessment description

In order to analyse students' results in Tests 1, 2 and 3 objectively, we must briefly describe these tests beforehand.

Test 1 included some topics which were taught in Italian 1401 and then revised in the first two weeks of 1402, as well as a small number of new topics. As far as the verbal syntax is concerned, the following tenses were included in the test: *passato prossimo*, *indicativo imperfetto*, *futuro semplice*. The *passato prossimo* was in the syllabus of 1401 and put here as revision. All of these tenses were tested via multiple-choice and conjugating exercises. As for vocabulary, Test 1 included a brief composition exercise on the relatively easy topic of hobbies and pastimes, a topic the students had both done in 1401 and revised in the first two weeks of 1402. Finally, the test comprised a multiple-choice exercise on the adjectives *quello* (that) and *bello* (beautiful) and their inflections.

The level of difficulty of Test 2 was objectively higher than Test 1: students were required to write more and they had a smaller number of guided exercises. The verbal syntax included: *passato prossimo*, *indicativo imperfetto*, *futuro semplice*, *indicativo presente,* and *reflexive verbs in passato prossimo*. The direct object pronouns *lo*, *la*, *le*, *l',* and the pronouns *Ci* and *Ne* were also assessed in this test, as well as new vocabulary on shopping, revision of the time and cultural aspects of life in Italy. Students were also required to be able to express their opinions and react to events using common expressions in Italian.

Test 3 contained a summary of all verbal tenses seen so far in the course, including the *imperative* (both positive and negative) and the *present conditional* – which were part of the last two weeks of teaching – direct and indirect object pronouns, *ci* and *ne*, as well as new topics of conversation, such as directions. Test 3 included a wider range of topics and exercises in preparation for the final exam, including some translation exercises. Test 3 is objectively more difficult than Test 2 and 1, as it is customary for final assignments in language teaching, which tend to be a summary of the entire course.

Another factor contributed to making Test 3 more difficult than the previous tests: no matter how hard we try to divide a language into topics and sections to suit the nature of academic assessment, topics seen and tested in previous tests will always return in following tests, making subsequent testing potentially more and more difficult. In the case of Test 3, this was planned as a preparation for the final exam.

Data Analysis

After describing the assessment used for the case study, we can move on to the data analysis. Below is a table summarizing students' progress from Test 1 to Test 3. Let us remember, once again, that these tests are increasingly more difficult. It is likely, then, but not certain, of course, that most students would score higher in Test 1 than they do in Test 3.

Student	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
1402-1	37.5	38.3	51.4
1402-2	87.5	85.0	94.2
1402-3	85.0	80.0	85.7
1402-4	100.0	78.3	97.1
1402-5	65.0	58.3	71.4
1402-6	50.0	40.0	45.7
1402-7	62.5	58.3	75.7
1402-8	85.0	88.3	88.5
1402-9	97.5	88.3	85.7
1402-10	75.0	65.0	81.4
1402-11	87.5	88.3	90.0
1402-12	85.0	93.3	87.1
1402-13	67.5	55.0	64.2
1402-14	62.5	65.0	61.4

Table 2 - Data analysis

Contrarily to the predictions, 11 students out of 14 – hence 78.5% of the student cohort – scored higher in Test 3 compared to Test 2 (and 2 students scored gradually higher from Test 1 to Test 3). Now, while achieving higher scores does not necessarily mean that these students have repaired their recurring errors, it surely is an indication of their progress in learning Italian. The 78.5 percentage of higher scores in Test 3 testifies a greater grasp on the language at the end of the course, in which the feedback method could have played an important role.

A percentage which is more indicative of the efficacy of the method is the one obtained after the final analysis on recurring errors and thus after checking if each and every student had repaired their recurring errors. The final analysis revealed that 75.7% of the students did repair their recurring errors. The two percentages differ for obvious reasons: even though some students corrected their recurring error, they may have made other mistakes and scored lower than in previous tests, something likely to happen in an intensive course, where new topics are explained every day and where there is less time to digest new information.

If we exclude the students who did not manifest a recurring error, only 10.7% of the cohort did not repair the error that had been signaled to them. Hence, 89.2% of students who made a recurring error did indeed repair such error. Among the students who did not repair are students who scored

some of the lowest scores in the group and showed early on in the course that they had difficulties with foreign language learning in general. One student was away for part of the course and took their Tests 2 and 3 on the same day, without the possibility of getting any feedback between one test and the following.

Table 3 - Summary

As Table 3 shows, most of the recurring errors that were repaired are grammatical errors, similar to the error in Picture 1. Student number 1402-8, for example, showed both in class in the first few weeks and in Test 1 a tendency to conjugate –are verbs as –ere verbs in the imperfect indicative: "*andavemo" for "andavamo" or "*giocavemo" for "giocavamo". The student showed proof of repair of such tendency in Test 2, where he spelled "aiutavamo" correctly.

Some other students (1402-04 and 1402-05) added unrequired accents to the imperfect tense ("*aiutavò" instead of "aiutavo"), showing confusion between such tense and the future tense, which were explained across the same fortnight and perhaps showing the limitations of an intensive course with a too dense verbal syntax programme. One of the students corrected the tendency in the following tests, the other did not.

Student	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3
1402-01	Many different errors, vocab	Many different errors, vocab	Repaired
1402-02	No recurring errors	No recurring errors	Direct and indirect object pronouns
1402-03	No recurring errors	Tenses confusion	Repaired
1402-04	No errors (100%)	Accent on imperfect	Repaired
1402-05	Many different errors	Accent on imperfect	No
1402-06	Many different errors	Conjugations	Repaired
1402-07	Imperfect endings	Repaired	Repaired
1402-08	Imperfect indicative	Repaired	Repaired
1402-09	No recurring errors	No recurring errors	No recurring
1402-10	No recurring errors	Tenses confusion	Repaired
1402-11	Future endings 3rd p.p.	Repaired	Repaired
1402-12	Vocabulary expansion	Meaning errors decrease	Repaired
1402-13	No recurring errors	Vocabulary expansion	Repaired
1402-14	Future, tenses confusion	Repaired future, no tenses	Repaired, No

On the other hand, some students who did not show difficulties learning the ambitious verbal syntax syllabus, showed issues with learning the vocabulary and were accordingly shown different vocabulary-building techniques. Student number 1402-12, for instance, made numerous errors that showed a lack of knowledge of the meaning of many words in Test 1 and 2. They were accordingly shown some techniques to build their vocabulary and a close eye was kept on their vocabulary in class. Despite scoring slightly lower in Test 3 (93.3% in Test 2 and 87.1% in Test 3), the student demonstrated, in both tests, to have worked on vocabulary expansion and successfully increased their Italian vocabulary.

Conclusions

From the very inception of this feedback method in 2013, I was under the impression that it was going to be more useful with grammatical errors than with other types of errors. The students who were given vocabulary-learning tips as a response to their poor show of vocabulary assimilation, then did increase their vocabulary in the final tests. Hence, they did show that they corrected their weaknesses. Nonetheless, my initial impression was confirmed by students' response to the survey completed at the end of the course. As you can see from Table 4 (below), when asked, "Where do you think the feedback helped you most?" none of them responded "expanding vocabulary"; whereas 46% of them said the method helped "correcting grammar errors". A very positive result comes from the 54% who claimed the feedback method helped with their "overall performance in Italian".
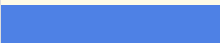
#	Answer		Response	%
1	Correcting grammar errors		6	46%
2	Expanding vocabulary		0	0%
3	Overall performance in Italian		7	54%
	Total		13	100%

Table 4 – Where do you think the feedback helped you most?

Vocabulary is indeed an area where I would like to perfect the method, so that it could become as helpful as it has proven to be in other areas, even though some of the students' comments do show that they felt the method helped also with vocabulary expansion, as one student said: "The feedback […] helped with my grammar, my vocabulary and my Italian in general". This comment emphasises an impact which goes beyond the mere correction of grammatical errors.

Text Response
Feedback is **always helpful**, however I found that **feedback tailored to the areas** where I struggled the most was **much more constructive**
I found it very helpful because it was **specific feedback** which is something I generally **don't receive in other units**.
It was great, although as an engineering student, **I can see how a similar approach would be amazing to use to improve teaching in engineering.**
It was very useful and Anna did an extremely good job. **I wish I had this type of help in all of my units** and I thoroughly enjoyed this unit because of the support we were all given.
The feedback provided was **extremely useful**. It helped with my **grammar**, my **vocabulary** and my **Italian in general**! I would **recommend to invest** in this type of feedback in other units of Italian, it really made the difference for me.
Yes, after one of the first tests I kept on making a similar mistake, for the next test I designated a bit of time to fix it and I did not have any problems from then on.
Yes, I thought the feedback was **very helpful**. It definitely **directed my focus** toward areas I needed to improve on, which **improved my understanding overall**.
Yes I am really enjoy it.

Table 5 – Did you enjoy this type of feedback?

Other comments underline the helpfulness, constructiveness, and usefulness of my method ("Feedback is always helpful, however I found that feedback tailored to the areas where I struggled the most was much more constructive"; "I found it very useful because it was specific feedback"; "the feedback provided was extremely useful"; "I thought the feedback was very helpful"). Some of these comments also show the students' comprehension of the work conducted in class, its specificity and novelty: "I found it very useful because it was specific feedback which is something I generally don't receive in other units". Others encourage for the method to be invested in and used in other disciplines: "as an engineering student, I can see how a similar approach would be amazing to use to improve teaching in engineering"; "I would recommend to invest in this type of feedback in other units of Italian, it really made the difference for me"; "I wish I had this type of help in all of my units and I thoroughly enjoyed this unit because of the support we were all given".

I am overwhelmed by the positive comments and feedback from the students of Italian 1402 and extremely satisfied with the results obtained in this case study. I plan to further test my method in the near future, perhaps including a new formula to be adapted to online testing. Adding recordings of oral feedback and being able to include them in a more thorough analysis, along the lines of what already achieved in studies by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster and Mori (2006), testing my method against a larger cohort and perhaps other languages, are ambitions for the future that I would definitely consider in order to perfect the method.

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The Development of an Instructional Design Model on Facebook Based Collaborative Learning to Enhance EFL Students' Writing Skills

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Abstract

Writing is one of the essential skills that EFL students, specifically in Thailand, need to achieve while their learning English during tertiary education. However, Thai EFL students have few chances to practice writing skills while learning. This study was conducted to develop an instructional design model for assisting students in learning collaboratively using Facebook groups to enhance their English writing skills at the beginning stage of their university education. In this study, collaborative learning and writing, the theory of instructional design, and five previous instructional design models were analyzed, and synthesized. In addition, the seven steps model for designing an instructional model by Brahmawong and Vate-U-Lan (2009) was adapted to develop the instructional design model. Experts in the fields of technology and English Language Teaching then evaluated the model. The results of the study showed that the elements of the FBCL Model was satisfactory and appropriate for giving EFL writing instruction in Facebook groups. The FBCL Model may also be beneficial in providing an instructional framework to EFL writing instructors and instructional designers.

Keywords: EFL writing skills, Facebook-based collaborative learning, instructional model, instructional systems design.

1. Introduction

Writing is a basic and primary tool for communicating with people from all over the world (Torwong 2003). Moreover, writing skills are essential in communicating with people from other countries with a variety of purposes (Tribble 1996); and writing is a tool reflecting students' understanding of English (Kitchakarn 2012). In addition, it is not easy to acquire this skill; therefore students need training and practice to gain English writing skills. And special attention needs to be paid to Thai students of English who have limitations in their English learning abilities, and need suitable and effective techniques or activities for developing their writing skills (Kitchakarn 2012). The English proficiency level of Thai learners was ranked low among the English learners in Asia (ETS, 2010) and among the other English learners in ASEAN (EF, 2012).

Students at Suranaree University of Technology (SUT) hardly have opportunities to practice their English writing skills during classroom instruction. Their low English proficiency level (Chongapirattanakul 1999) might result from their limited exposure to an English speaking environment, ineffective English teaching methods, and the low English achievement level amongst the majority of English language teachers (Wannaruk, 2008, Khamkhien, 2010; Simpson 2011; Poonpon, 2011; Ministry of Education, 2006). Thai students learn English in a very traditional lecture teaching style; therefore, they have minimal chance to use English and participate into the learning. Most students at SUT have a low knowledge of essential vocabulary in reading textbooks in English (Ward, 2000; Saitakham, 2010), but hardly have opportunities to develop writing skills in the English classroom since their English learning in the class paid more attention to communication skills such as listening and speaking. SUT students, thus, need to have more chances to practice English outside the classroom since teachers do not have sufficient time to cover or explain details from the textbook with the purpose of improving their English knowledge and skills, especially their writing skills.

Technology is an inevitable tool for teaching and learning languages in many educational institutions and schools. Rapid developments in telecommunications technology, especially the Internet, have increased interest in distance education in all educational settings (Miller & Honeyman, 1993). Among a number of popular social media sites, Facebook has become the most popular one with more than billion active users around the globe (Facebook, 2015). Facebook is also regarded as an educational tool for university students (Bumgarner, 2007; Mason, 2006) and with eighty percent of students who use social networking sites as a useful tool for their study (Lepi, 2013). With these advantages that Facebook brings to Facebook users, Facebook seems to be an effective and useful tool for students to improve language learning, esp. to improve writing skills (Yunus & Salehi, 2012).

In searching for an interesting and effective way to assist students in their EFL learning, the researcher incorporated activities such as posting comments as a social interaction activity with an online learning course in Facebook groups as a collaborative learning method. Facebook groups are, thus, expected to be a good online learning environment for Thai students to learn EFL writing skills in particular and EFL in general with group mates independently and collaboratively. Together with the integration of ASEAN Economic Community in 2015, ASEAN citizens need to use English to work or collaborate (in learning and working) with other ASEAN citizens.

The General English program at SUT consists of five courses concentrating on English for communication, specifically Listening, Speaking, and Reading, writing skills are not given any attention, including on the examinations. Therefore, students have little to no chances to

practice English language writing skills. The study to develop an instructional design model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills was conducted with the expectation of giving light to EFL teaching of writing for the English 1 course. The first year university students who take English 1, the first English course at SUT, are new to university life and they need to practice their English language skills in order to have a stronger background for the four remaining English courses at SUT. The expectation is that they will be more interested in joining a course using the assistance of technology enhancement for the online course, which is implemented in conjunction with classroom instruction. Furthermore, they are expected to be more independent in their study not only after this course but also in their lifelong learning.

Few research studies have been conducted to construct instructional design models using Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills and to provide Thai writing instructors with knowledge about an instructional design model on how to employ Facebook on writing instruction. The present study could provide more opportunities for students to practice writing skills via technology in order to enhance EFL students writing skills which have largely been ignored, allowing more practice in their English language learning process. In addition, the study was carried out to attract students' participation into a new learning platform which was more convenient for students allowing them to practice writing with their group members synchronically and asynchronically. Therefore, the research study was set up to develop an instructional model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills with the purpose to answer the following research question

> *What are the components and logical steps of developing an instructional model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills?*

2. Review of Related Literature
2.1 Instructional Design
Instructional Design (also called Instructional Systems Design (ISD)) is the framework in which teachers will carry out the planned teaching and learning steps in a lesson (Richards & Lockart, 1994). Instructional design can be said to be a system of procedures specifying the planning, design, development, implementation and evaluation of effective and efficient instruction in a variety of educational environments. The specifications of instructional design process are both functional and attractive to learners. Moreover, Gustafson and Branch (2002) also believe that the procedures within instructional design can lead to a clear approach that is more effective, efficient, and relevant to instruction.

2.2 Instructional Design Models
With the primary functions in the process of instructional design models, a great number of instructional design models have been developed for various educational settings. "Many models exist, ranging from simple to complex. All provide step-by-step guidance for developing instruction" was pointed out by Suppasetseree (2005). In this study, some related instructional design models; including the ADDIE Model (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation), Dick and Carey Model, Kemp Model, SREO Model (Suppasetseree's Remedial English Online), and the OTIL Model (Online Instructional Model for Task-based Interactive Listening) are presented as follows.

The ADDIE Model, which is the most basic and applicable is a generic and systematic instructional systems design model (Reiser and Dempsey 2007). Among five core elements (Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation) of the model, analysis is

the most crucial element in the ID process (Sugie 2012). There are more than 100 different Instructional Systems Development (ISD) models, but almost all are based on the generic ADDIE Model (Kruse 2011). However, according to Molenda (2003), the original reference of the source for the ADDIE Model is invisible and he seems to be satisfied with his conclusion that

> *"the ADDIE Model is merely a colloquial term used to describe a systematic approach to instructional development, virtually synonymous with instructional systems development (ISD). The label seems not to have a single author, but rather to have evolved informally through oral tradition. There is no original, fully elaborated model, just an umbrella term that refers to a family of models that share a common underlying structure".(p.34)*

Figure 2.1The elements of Instructional Design (ADDIE) (Gustafson and Branch 2002)

2.3 Dick and Carey Model

Dick and Carey Model (2005) is another well-known and influential instructional design model. Dick, Carey, and Carey (2005) consider this model as a systems approach because components of the system (i.e. teacher, learners, instructional materials and the learning environment) are important to the success of students' learning and are integrated to each other. They have an input and an output within each component of the process.
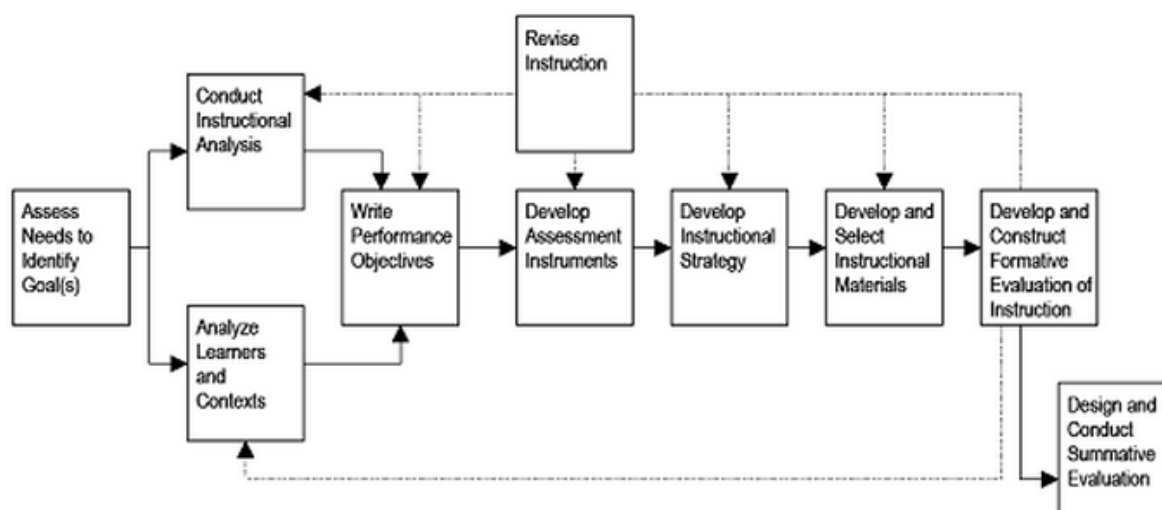

Figure 2.2 Dick and Carey Systems Approach Model (Dick, Carey et al. 2005)

2.4 Kemp Model

The Kemp Model is a comprehensive instructional design plan. This model describes the holistic approach to instructional design that considers all factors in the environment. The Kemp Model, which is extremely flexible, focuses on content analysis and appeals to classroom-based instructors. According to Morrison, Ross et al. (2010), this model has nine core elements to instructional design:
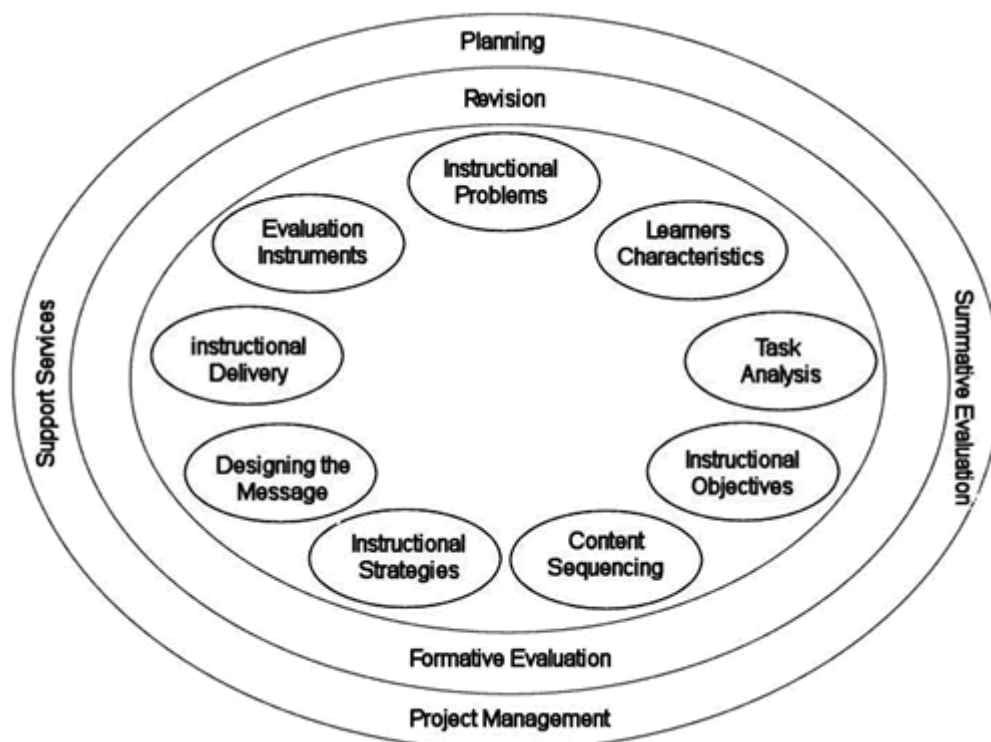

Figure 2.3 The Elements of Kemp Model (Morrison et al., 2004)

2.5 SREO Model

The SREO Model or Suppasetseree's Remedial English Online (SREO) was designed by Suppasetseree in 2005. It is an Internet based instructional system for teaching Remedial English to first year students at Suranaree University of Technology. According to Suppasetseree (2005), the SREO Model was developed from many instructional designers, such as Dick and Carey, the Kemp Model, Klausmeier and Ripple Model, Gerlach and Ely Model. The SREO Model comprised six major steps and 16 sub-steps.
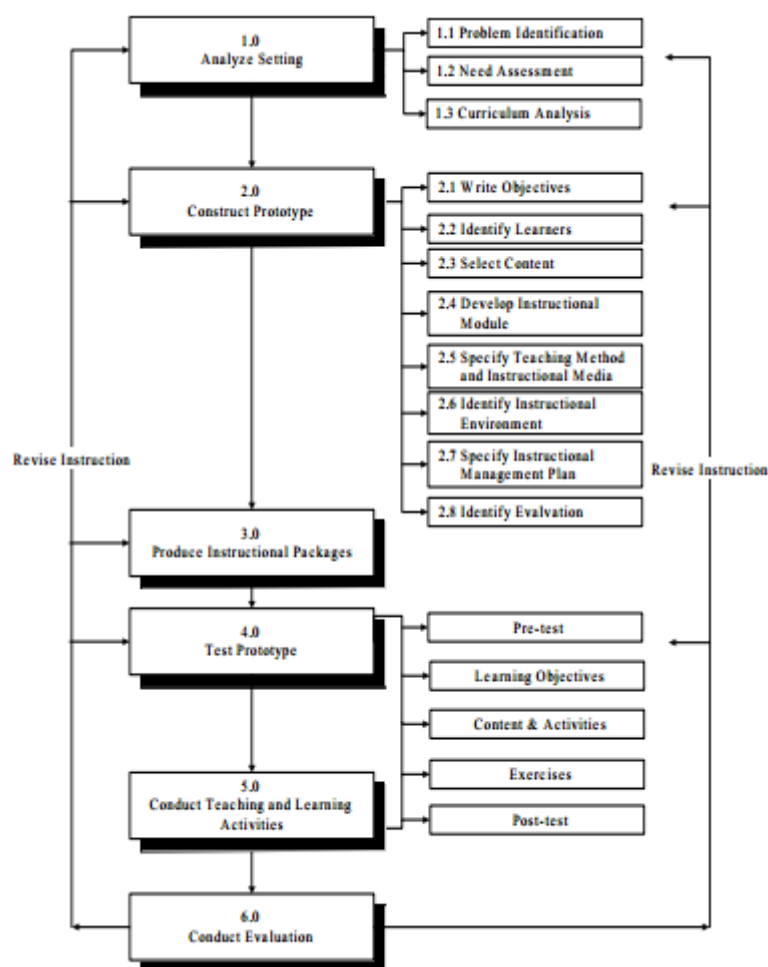
Figure 2.4 SREO Model (Suppasetseree, 2005, p.108)

2.6 OTIL Model

The OTIL Model is short for the online instructional model for task-based interactive listening for EFL learners. This model is a set of problem-solving procedures which specify six phases and seventeen steps in the process.
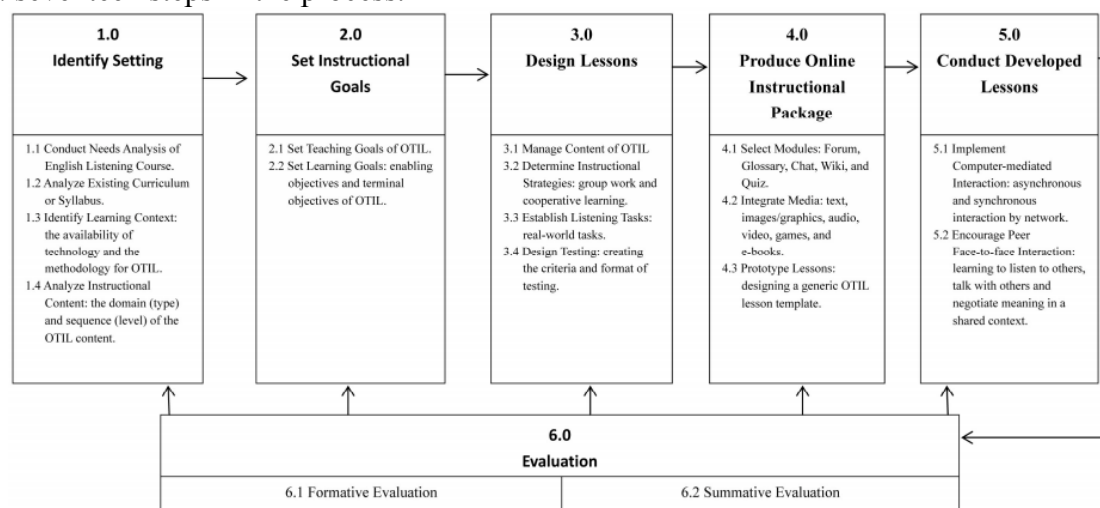

Figure 2.5 The Instructional Model for Online Task-based Interactive Listening (OTIL Model) for EFL Learners (Tian, 2012, p. 153)

The ADDIE Model is a fundamental and simplified instructional systems design model. Most of the instructional design models are based on this generic ADDIE Model (Kruse, 2011). All the five core elements of the ADDIE model are present in the Dick and Carey model but they use different terminology (Gustafson & Branch, 2002). The Dick and Carey Model is a systems-oriented instructional design while the Kemp Model is a classroom-based model that considers all factors in the environment. The first three models are based on traditional classrooms whereas the SREO and OTIL models are two online models for language teaching. The SREO Model is an Internet-based instructional design focusing on interactivity or interaction involving learners with the content. Moreover, the OTIL Model has online instructions and a systematic orientation that applies interactive listening teaching with a task-based approach.

These models have contributed to the world of instructional design processes, but they have several limitations for designers/ instructors in the development of models. The ADDIE Model provides guidelines for the instructional designer in creating instruction. The ADDIE and Dick and Carey Model are two generic models that do not have details for the steps of each stage. Consequently, instructional designers have to decide themselves how much detail is needed for each stage. However, the Kemp Model is a classroom-oriented model which can get output from a few hours of instruction (The Herridge Group 2004). The components of this model are independent of each other. Therefore, with the limits of few or no additional resources to develop instruction, much of the content is in the heads of the facilitator, not in the hands of the learner. In addition, all three models can be applicable to print-based instruction (The Herridge Group 2004) but the SREO and OTIL Models are the Internet-based instructional systems design (Suppasetseree 2005, Tian 2012). However, the last two Internet-based models focused on Remedial English and listening skills only, respectively; therefore the instructional design model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL writing skills was developed in this study.

From synthesis and its limitations, some elements in each model were adapted to construct the model for this study since it is hard for the researcher to determine the appropriate model amongst the five instructional models being applied in the present study. Therefore, this study was conducted to develop an appropriate instructional design model on Facebook-based collaborative learning to enhance EFL writing skills for Thai undergraduate students. The orientation of this model is Facebook-based instruction, using comment-posting, discussions with group mates and their teacher.

3. Research Methodology
There are two stages in the process of developing the instructional design model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL writing skills. In the first stage, the five previously described instructional design models were analyzed and synthesized. The seven-step model by Brahmawong and Vate-U-Lan (2009) were used to build an instructional model, providing the framework for building the instructional design model on FBCL, the description of each step of the FBCL model was carried out to develop the FBCL model. In the second stage, the evaluation form of the FBCL model to enhance EFL writing skills was sent to the experts in the field of Instructional Design and English Language Teaching for their evaluation. The criteria from Suppasetseree (2005) were adopted to evaluate the efficiency of the FBCL model.

3.1 Development of the FBCL model
During the first stage, the five previously described instructional models (ADDIE, Kemp, Dick and Carey, SREO, and OTIL model) were analyzed and synthesized to design the instructional

design model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills. The FBCL model was developed following the seven steps in developing the model by Brahmawong and Vate-U-Lan (2009).

Below are the seven steps used in developing an instructional design model for this study.

> **Step I**: Review of related body of knowledge through documentary research (DR), interviews, field visits, and Internet searches on the R&D Prototype;
>
> **Step II**: Conduct a survey of need assessment on the R&D Prototype (First Survey);
>
> **Step III**: Develop the Conceptual Framework of the R&D Prototype;
>
> **Step IV**: Survey of Experts' Opinions through questionnaires, Delphi Technique, or a focus group (Second Survey);
>
> **Step V**: Develop the first draft of the R&D Prototype making use of the knowledge and information crystallized from Step 1, 2, and 3
>
> **Step VI**: Seek Experts' Verification of the Prototype or Conduct Developmental Testing of the R&D Prototype: Tryout and Trial Run
>
> **Step VII**: Revise and Finalize the R&D Prototype
>
> (Brahmawong, 1999, cited in Brahmawong & Vate-U-Lan, 2009)

Based on the research purpose and research questions, the review of related literature, and the seven steps used to develop the instructional design model on FBCL, the research conceptual framework for the study and the seven steps used to develop the FBCL Model follow.
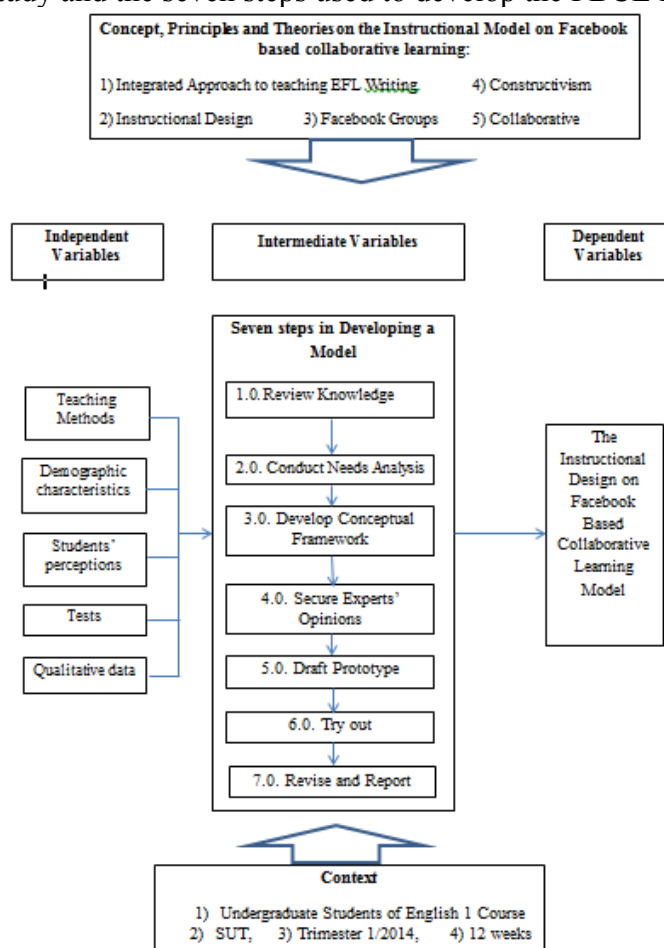

Figure 3.1. Research Conceptual Framework for the FBCL Model

In this research conceptual framework, integrated approaches of teaching writing, constructivism, collaborative learning and writing, instructional design, and Facebook groups were applied in developing the FBCL Model. The foundational concepts, theories, principles

were synthesized and examined to have independent and dependent variables for the study. All writing skill teaching methods, demographic characteristics, students' perceptions, pretests and posttests, and qualitative data were manipulated under the context and immediate variables that affected the FBCL Model.

3.2 Evaluation of the FBCL Model

In the second stage of the study, the evaluation form was designed by the researcher. The description of the FBCL model and the evaluation form were sent to three experts in the field of Instructional Design and English Language Teaching for their evaluation (see Appendix A.). The form has two parts. The first part used a five-point scale (5=very strongly agree, 4= strongly agree, 3= agree, 2=slightly agree, and 1=least agree). The second part was an open-ended question about the participants' ideas and comments on the model. Then, the model was revised according to the experts' evaluation and suggestions.

To evaluate the efficiency of the FBCL model, the data obtained from the evaluation form of the FBCL model were calculated for arithmetic means. These means indicate the experts' judgment on the efficiency of the FBCL model. The criteria of means which were adopted from Suppasetseree (2005) was from a range divided by the number of levels created. This was (5-1)/3 = 1.33 for each level the means added up to 1.33. The following criteria in Table 3.2 were used for interpretation.

Table 3.2 The Criterion of the Efficiency of the FBCL Model

Means	Interpretation
1.00 – 2.33	The FBCL model is least appropriate
2.34 – 3.67	The FBCL model is appropriate
3.68 – 5.00	The FBCL model is very appropriate

4. Results
4.1 Results from the Evaluation Form of the FBCL Model

The description of the FBCL instructional model, and an evaluation form were sent to three experts in the field of Instructional Design and English Language Teaching, the collected data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Table 3.2 showed the level of appropriateness of the FBCL Instructional model for the enhancement of EFL writing skills. Arithmetic means from the data were calculated from a five-point rating scale questionnaire (5 = very strongly agree, 4 = strongly agree, 3 = agree, 2 = slightly agree, 1 = least agree). If the mean score from the evaluation form results are from 1.00 to 2.33, it shows that the FBCL Instructional model is least appropriate. If the mean score is from 2.34 to 3.67, it shows that the FBCL Instructional model is appropriate. If the mean scores from 3.68 to 5.00, it shows that the FBCL Instructional model is very appropriate. The results of the experts' evaluation are shown in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Result of Expert's Evaluation on the Development of the Instructional Model on FBCL Model to enhance EFL Writing Skills

No.	Item	Mean	SD
1	Step 1 Analyze Setting is appropriate	4.67	.577
2	Step 2 Set Instructional Goals is appropriate	4.67	.577
3	Step 3 Design Lessons is appropriate	4.33	.577
4	Step 4 Produce Instructional Packages is appropriate	4.33	.577
5	Step 5 Conduct Teaching and Learning Activities is appropriate	4.33	.577
6	Step 6 Conduct Evaluation and Revision of Writing Instruction is appropriate	4.67	.577
7	The steps in the FBCL model are clear and easy to implement.	4.33	.577
8	Each element of the FBCL model has appropriate connection.	4.67	.577
9	The FBCL model can help student-student interaction.	4.33	.577
10	The FBCL model has sufficient capability of being effective in teaching FBCL lessons to enhance EFL writing skills.	4.33	.577
	Total	**4.47**	**.577**

The findings from the evaluation revealed that all three experts agreed and approved on overall that the whole model was very appropriate ($\bar{X}$ = 4.47, SD=.577), according to the criterion of the efficiency of the FBCL Instructional model described on Table 3.2. Specifically, the items 1, 2, 6, and 8 received higher mean scores ($\bar{X}$ = 4.67, SD=.577) whereas the other items received slightly lower mean score values ($\bar{X}$ = 4.33, SD= .577) including items 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, and 10. The findings of the evaluation indicated that all three experts agreed that 1) Each step of the FBCL Instructional model is appropriate, clear and easy to implement; 2) Each element of the FBCL Instructional model is appropriately connected; 3) The FBCL Instructional model can help student-student interaction; and 4) The FBCL Instructional model is sufficiently capable of being effective in developing FBCL lessons to enhance EFL writing skills.

The results also indicated a positive answer to the first research question of this study "What are the components and logical steps of developing an instructional model on Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL students' writing skills?"

4.2 Results of the Development of an Instructional Design Model on Facebook Based Collaborative Learning to Enhance EFL Students' Writing Skills

The FBCL Instructional Model is an online instructional design for enhancing EFL writing skills. It uses on learner-centered teaching model which learners can construct their EFL skills by doing and practicing individually and with their group-mates. The FBCL Instructional Model was designed and constructed by the researcher after reviewing, analyzing, and synthesizing the 5 instructional design models, namely ADDIE Model, Kemp Model, Dick and Carey Model, SREO Model, and OTIL Model. After receiving the evaluation results from the experts, the FBCL Instructional Model was approved as very appropriate in terms of the components and logical steps, and it was revised accordingly. The description of the FBCL Instructional Model was developed with 6 major steps and 15 sub-steps in the process. The sub-steps of each step of the FBCL Instructional Model are described as follows.
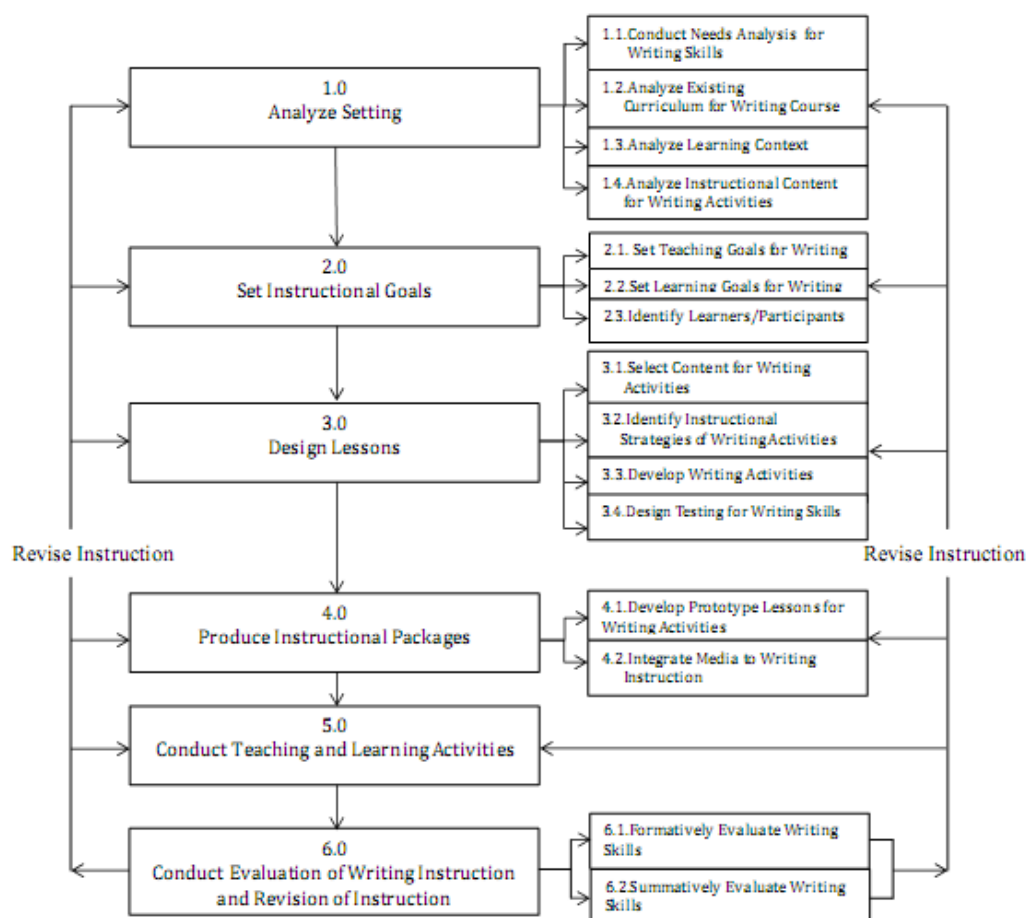
Figure 3.3 The Instructional Design Model on Facebook-Based Collaborative Learning to enhance EFL writing skills (The FBCL Instructional Model)

Step 1.0 Analyze Setting

This is the foundation step for the instructional design model and it can provide crucial information that fulfills all other steps of the entire design process for the instructional model using Facebook based collaborative learning to enhance EFL writing skills.

1.1 Analyze Existing Curriculum for a Writing Course

The existing curriculum or syllabus was analyzed. Moreover, the requirements of the course syllabus were summarized and synthesized when this supplementary writing course for first year SUT students was developed to help them practice their English skills thoroughly.

1.2 Analyze Learning Context

The availability of technology and the methodology for FBCL lessons was identified to establish the minimum requirements of the technical facilities including computers (with speakers, microphones, headsets) and the Internet. In this supplementary writing course, students can utilize their computer, laptop, tablet, or any mobile devices that have an Internet browser or Facebook application to participate. For the instructional structure, the instructor should search for the appropriate teaching methodology for teaching and learning with Facebook-based collaborative learning lessons. In addition, the appropriate allocation of time during the course is also considered.

1.3 Analyze Instructional Content for Writing Activities

The type (domain) and level (sequence) of the instructional content were analyzed. Specific lesson objectives, instructional strategies and assessment methods for use in the instructional steps needed to be established for this course.

Step 2.0 Set Instructional Goals
After various analyses of background information in the development of the FBCL Model, the expected student achievements at the completion of the instruction was identified. The instructional goals should be clear, concise, thorough, and manageable.

2.1 Set Teaching Goals for Writing

What the instructor plans to teach, what the instructor is going to include in this writing course, and how the instructor includes the content of the lessons and chooses the appropriate teaching techniques for students were identified for the teaching goals.

2.2 Set Learning Goals for Writing

What the instructor expects learners to achieve is set to be appropriate for the students' learning context. Learning goals involve enabling objectives (performance, condition, standards) and terminal objectives.

2.3 Identify Learners or Participants

The learners or participants of the course need to be determined to know the required skills the learners will need in order to join the writing instruction. The learners need to have computers and Internet skills, especially be Facebook users.

Step 3.0 Design Lessons
From the findings of previous analyses, the instructor needs to plan how to achieve the instructional goals, pays attention to the effectiveness of the writing lesson elements and design criteria for assessment.

3.1 Select Content for Writing Activities

Authentic materials found from textbooks, the Internet, or other media were required to support the writing instruction and the learners.

3.2 Identify Instructional Strategies for Writing Activities

The appropriate instructional strategies to maximize the learning effectiveness were determined based on learning objectives. Online writing activities through which students learn both working with peers and individually were focused in the FBCL lessons based on the nature of the writing and the features of writing instruction. The topics and design include real world activities including watching videos, listening to talks, reading newspapers/ short articles, peers discussion, brainstorming, peer feedback, and revising their writing journals, all of which are very important for the instructor to outline in the FBCL lessons.

3.3 Develop Writing Activities

Learners' target communicative goals or pedagogic tasks, the audience, and what students write were included in developing the writing activities needed to be clear, precise and specific. The length, scope and purpose of the exercises before writing were defined (Hyland, 2003). The three components of the real world writing activities include correctness of form, appropriateness of style, and unity of theme and topic. For the level of first year English 1 students at SUT, the controlled writing activities with guided questions were the key element in the writing process.

3.4 Design Testing for Writing Skills

Learning goals and performance measures should be taken into consideration during the design of tests. In this sub-step, the format and criteria of testing as well as different types of testing should be taken into consideration. In creating the writing tests, the following were considered: proficiency to achievement, norm-referenced to criterion-referenced, direct to indirect,

discrete-point to integrative, normative to summative assessment. The pre-test and post-test were designed for the study.

Step 4.0 Produce Instructional Package

In this major step, the technologies and media were utilized to deliver the lessons based on an analysis of learning context.

4.1 Develop Prototype Lessons for Writing Activities

The generic Facebook based collaborative learning lesson template for the instruction included all aspects of each lesson and was designed by prototyping. The prototype was evaluated in a formative way to check whether it served the instructional goals.

4.2 Integrate Media to Writing Instruction

The media contents were integrated into the instruction to add value and effectively support the learning activities.

Step 5.0 Conduct Teaching and Learning Activities

In this step, the lessons were provided in an interactive and effective way. Learner-centered learning of controlled writing activities, including guided questions and online interaction were the focus on the learning process. Teacher-students and student-student interactions were encouraged in the teaching process as well. Students were expected to write their comments on the discussion board or discuss with their peers via comments in Facebook groups synchronously and asynchronously.

Step 6.0 Conduct Evaluation and Revision of Writing Instruction

It is essential to evaluate the learning processes and outcomes. The instruction is not complete until it shows that students can reach the instructional goals.

6.1 Formative Evaluation of Writing Skills

The results of formative evaluation during the development of the FBCL Instructional model were used to establish the suitability of objectives, contents, learning methods, materials, and the delivery of the writing course.

6.2 Summative Evaluation of Writing Skills

Summative evaluation was conducted at the end of the writing instruction. Data from the post-test are collected to evaluate the effectiveness of the instruction.

6.3 Revision of Instruction

Revision is a continual process. Whenever an instructor finds parts in the instruction that were hard or unclear for students, revision is done immediately to adjust the lessons.

5. Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to develop an instructional design model on Facebook (FBCL Instructional Model) to enhance EFL university students' writing skills for English 1 at SUT. The model was developed in 6 major steps and 15 sub-steps and was evaluated by three experts in the field of Instructional Design and English Language Teaching. From the results of experts' evaluation, all elements of the model are very appropriate with a mean score which was well within the "very appropriate" level. As a whole, this results from the fact that the FBCL Instructional Model was carefully designed and developed on the fundamental principles and characteristics of Instructional Design. In addition, the model was also based on the insightful analysis and the synthesis of Brahmawong's Seven-Step Model for research and development with the five instructional design models including the fundamental design model, systems-oriented model, classroom-oriented model to Internet-based model, online instructional model. Moreover, the model applied two main learning theories: constructivism and collaborative learning in enhancing EFL students' writing skills. Therefore, the elements of the FBCL instructional model were clear and easy to implement in the development of the FBCL lessons for enhancement of EFL students' writing skills.

In addition to the appropriateness of the FBCL Instructional Model, the three main categories including the appropriate connectedness of the elements, student-student interaction, and sufficient capability in the successful development of the FBCL lessons were rated for appropriateness by the three experts. The three main components were strong points of the FBCL Instructional Model. First, each element of the FBCL Instructional Model was appropriately connected. This was because the FBCL Instructional Model was developed and designed as a systematic process of the design, development, implementation, and evaluation of instruction   (Dick, Carey, & Carey, 2005; Reiser & Dempsey, 2007) and a step by step system to evaluate students' needs, the design and development of training materials, and the effectiveness of the training intervention (Kruse, 2011). All of the components of the model are properly allied with each other and the quality of the instructional design is high (Martin, 2011). Therefore, as expected, the elements of the FBCL instructional model were evaluated and approved by three experts indicating that they were appropriately connected.

Second, the FBCL Instructional Model could help student-student interaction. This distinctive point of the FBCL model was due to the fact that the FBCL model was based on the constructivism and collaborative learning principles. From the constructivist learning theory, learners can work together and support each other to pursue their learning goals and tackle problem-solving activities (Wilson, 1996). In their learning community, they can share their ideas with others and explain or defend themselves because this view is learner-centered (Confrey,1990; Brooks and Brooks 1993; Fosnot,1996; Applefield et al., 2001). Furthermore, in collaborative learning, learners can use social interaction as a means to construct their own knowledge through active participation (Dennen, 2000).

Third, the FBCL Instructional Model had sufficient capability for being effective in developing FBCL lessons to enhance EFL writing skills. This results from the three strong points previously mentioned. The elements of the FBCL model were appropriate for implementation into the FBCL lessons, connected appropriately with each other leading to a systematic process of learning. In addition, the FBCL Instructional Model was developed from the two main learning theories that could support learners in constructing their own knowledge through the means of social interaction with their group members/ peers. According to the principles of collaborative learning, learner interactions during their group work support their understanding, and the relationship between social interactions and increased understanding through learning experiences should be conscious (Panitz,1999). Moreover, Mulligan and Garofalo (2011) confirm that collaborative writing activities can promote learner interaction which assist their self-confidence and decrease their anxiety when working alone. Through their interactions with each other, learners can maximize their own learning or each other's learning. The learners could be active or independent learners in practicing and improving their EFL writing skills via Facebook.

The results from the evaluation by the three experts on the FBCL Instructional Model were consistent with those of numerous previous studies. The FBCL Instructional model was regarded as a system-oriented model which concentrates on learner-centeredness and online learning such as Suppasetseree's (2005) SREO Model, Dennis' (2011) BOLA Package, and Tian's (2012) OTIL Model. Additionally, all of these instructional models paid more attention to learner-centeredness, which helps learners become more autonomous or independent in their learning. They participate and interact with each other in the group; have discussions with each other to create something new during collaborative learning (John et al., 1998; Kaye, 1992; Laffey et al., 1998). The FBCL Instructional Model also encourages learners to learn online synchronously or asynchronously.

To sum up, the FBCL Instructional Model was developed in compliance with the principles of instructional design and Brahmawong's Seven-Step Model for research and development, together with the analyses and syntheses of five previous instructional models. The three experts prudently evaluated every major step and sub-step used in designing and developing the FBCL Instructional Model. Responding to the experts' comments, the instructional model was revised and approved as having appropriate connection among major steps and sub-steps of the FBCL Instructional Model. The FBCL Instructional Model was also approved to be appropriate in analyzing the setting, the instructional goals, and conducting evaluation and revision of writing instructions. Also approved was the integration of the Facebook group use with collaborative writing.

6. Implications
This study also conveys some pedagogical implications. First, in the process of designing the online instructional model to enhance student's collaborative learning, the instructional designer should pay much attention to the existing learning problems of the institutions. After the problems of the institutions have been solved and found, the designer can find the effective instructional interventions. Then, the designers can set up clear objectives to develop the instructional model. Another point that designers need to take into consideration is the availability and compatibility of the instructional platform with the instructional design. It can be known that in the present study, Facebook group was used as the main platform that supports and assists student's collaboration in group writing activity.

7. Conclusion
The present study was conducted in order to probably contribute to a significant change for perspectives of EFL teachers and learners, particularly Thai instructors and Thai learners of teaching and learning English writing. This study additionally provides knowledge of an instructional design model for writing instructors on how to use Facebook groups in teaching writing in the classroom. The findings of the study revealed that the FBCL Instructional Model was satisfactory and appropriate for teaching EFL writing skills online to undergraduate students. The FBCL Instructional Model brings broad changes from classroom based teaching approach in teaching EFL writing skills to online teaching and the interaction between teachers and students. Students could join the course and practice it anytime and anywhere through FBCL. It is hopeful that this study offers the practical solutions for the development of an English course to enhance EFL student's writing skills; and the FBCL Model could serve as the instructional design model for EFL writing teachers and instructional designers.

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APPENDIX A

List of Experts

Name	Field and Position
Prof. Dr. Chaiyong Brahmawong	Senior Professor, Vice President for Ubiquitous Education, International Borderless Education College, Bangkokthonburi University, Thailand.
Dr. Peerasak Sinyothin	Dean of Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand A lecturer at Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand.
Dr. Suksan Supasetseree	Unit Supervisor of the Foreign Languages Resource Unit (FLRU), Suranaree University of Technology A lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand.

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