

Contemporary English Language Teaching and Research

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Edited by

Mariusz Marczak and Martin Hinton

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FOREWORD:
REFLECTIONS ON NON-NATIVE
LANGUAGE TEACHING

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The key questions which have always been the focus of attention in foreign language teaching and learning address problems of how to encourage and motivate learners to study more effectively and how to educate teachers to make this happen. The present volume reflects a selection of themes and topics which take up some of these issues, presented and discussed at the Sieradz English Teaching and Research Forum organized by the Foreign Language Teacher Training College in Sieradz in April 2014. Drawing on a range of new developments in linguistic theory and foreign language pedagogy, this volume brings together theoretical perspectives and new empirical studies in the field of foreign language teaching and foreign language teacher education in Poland.

My presentation at the conference (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 2014a) focused on the contribution of Cognitive Linguistics and language corpora to the analysis of English and Polish grammar and vocabulary and to the development of effective techniques of semantics- and grammar-awareness-raising with FL learners. The linguistic area discussed involved questions which arise with reference to time, temporality and time experience and their manifestation in language. These questions include a number of more specific issues. The first relates to the way the experience humans acquire and possess is organized in terms of a temporal framework and how this experience is expressed in the grammatical categories available in the languages they use. Another particular issue is how linguistic forms accommodate various types of time concepts and particularly temporal displacement, in which the actual temporal point of reference in a real context is different from that described or referred to in a linguistic utterance. The question of the nature of mental models

language users develop to grasp and convey the notion of time, particularly in terms of the ongoing debate on the actual (physical and ontological) and cognitive (conceptual) position and functions of time, especially with reference to space, is another vast research area with direct relevance to foreign language awareness raising. Finally, the investigation aimed at uncovering the processes of native and non-native time acquisition, which provides new insight into FLT methodology employed in the teaching of temporal categories in non-native contexts.

The basic conclusion from the reported study (see also Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 2014) clearly points to the character of language research methodology, which combines cognitive linguistic analysis and usage-based implications, inferred from the analysis of large corpus-based materials. Effective FLT methods and techniques on the other hand are shown to involve both *form-* and *meaning-focused* techniques to facilitate language awareness-raising through *grammar-discovery* tasks, as first labelled by Ellis and Gaies (1998). The authors convincingly argue that FLT learners internalize those linguistic properties that they are ready to learn and the learning process passes through a series of *transitional stages*, in which learners first *notice* a pattern (Schmidt 2010) and gradually acquire a system to, at least partly, monitor *its use*, which is precisely what is needed in competent communication.

The role and function of computerized language corpora, both national such as British National Corpus (BNC), Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA) or National Corpus of Polish (nkjp.pl), and learner collections of authentic language materials cannot be overestimated. Numerous publications (Granger et al. 2002) show a range of corpus-based approaches to interlanguage analysis, and the analysis presented at the conference (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 2014a) precisely identified the transitional stages in the process of learning English time-related concepts with Polish students as well as the direct pedagogical relevance of learner corpus work both in foreign language learning and teacher education.

The authors in the present volume seek to enlarge their research agenda and pedagogical practices in a two-way dynamic, by exploring how various parameters associated with the learners, their age, gender and individual personality traits as well as the typological specifics of the conceptual and linguistic systems they try to master, bear on the learning success and, in turn, how extending teacher education into new technological realms, encompassing the virtual space, with the use of online language assessment and online collaborative writing, might reconfigure teachers' teaching practices leading to greater didactic success.

The authors focus predominantly on the teaching of English as a

foreign language in Poland, where English language teaching needs significantly surpass those related to other foreign languages. Apart from cross—linguistic insight (e.g. emotion studies), the publication also offers a sample of resources in foreign language assessment, individual differences and technology. It constitutes an interesting reference, which covers reflections on learner language, new trends in teacher education and samples of applications in Computer-Assisted Language Teaching and Learning.

How are these developments to be treated in foreign language pedagogy? In older times students used to be considered learners merely of foreign language grammar and vocabulary, while in present times they are taught to be communicators. New approaches to language teaching involve the acquisition of meaningful communication patterns in the language, immersed in a relevant cultural context. The stimulation of verbal exchanges in terms of competently controlled grammar, lexis and discourse strategies, in the form of both classroom and online speaking and collaborative tasks, contributes to the development of the increased quality of all foreign language skills.

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INTRODUCTION

Most of the papers contained in this volume were presented at a conference in Sieradz, Poland, in the Spring of 2014; others were inspired by its theme and its aims. The Sieradz English Teaching And Research Forum was organised in order to provide an opportunity for four different groups to come together and discuss the teaching of English: researchers engaged in investigating the nature of language teaching and learning; teacher trainers charged with developing the next generation of educators; practising language teachers at work now in Polish schools, and students, many of whom will go on to teach in the future.

As organisers we were concerned that many practising teachers felt very distant from the research process and the theoretical concerns of academics. At the same time, we understood that it is essential for those of us engaged in research which studies and hopes to affect the classroom, to maintain contact with the reality of language teaching as it is conducted in schools from the nursery to university, in private schools and the toughest of state run institutions.

The presentations given on the day covered a very wide range of issues of interest to teachers and researchers alike, and the interaction between the two groups led to intense discussion and was, we believe, informative and stimulating for both groups. The topics covered, although extremely diverse, can be divided into two principal groups and that is the structure we have followed in this volume.

Part one contains papers taking, in the main, the perspective of the teacher and the process of teaching. There is, as one would expect in any contemporary discussion of such matters, quite an emphasis on the effect of developments in technology on the classroom and how the new opportunities offered by those developments can best be utilised for the good of language learners. In the first paper, Jarosław Krajka discusses an integral part of e-learning, telecollaboration. Telecollaboration treats learning as a social process and promotes communication between learners using a range of web-based platforms. Professor Krajka thoroughly explores the aims and the potential of such methods, as well as considering the drawbacks and possible difficulties, many of which have been eased by the advent of Web 2.0.

The theme of collaboration is continued by Przemysław Krakowian. His contribution introduces the notion of Communities of Practice, where individuals with a common purpose come together to discuss and solve outstanding problems. One such example is the Electronic Performance Support System hosted by the University of Łódź. Professor Krakowian provides a full description of the system and a practical guide to its use, and points out the variety of applications the tool has both in the assessment of oral production and the understanding of raters and rating systems.

Mariusz Marczak's paper concerns the concept of teaching writing skills in EFL courses through online collaboration tools. It demonstrates how to harness cloud computing technology in order to foster synchronous learner-learner collaboration online with a view to making learners benefit from mutual contribution to the writing process. The study discussed investigates the actual practices that students follow while writing collaboratively as well as their perceptions of this kind of work mode. The author rounds the paper up with a set of conclusions pertaining to the advantages of online collaborative writing.

The fourth article also deals with issues arising from the spread of information technology, but takes a different perspective. Katarzyna Papaja, Adam Pluszczyk and Artur Świątek constructed a questionnaire designed to assess the degree to which learners of English adapt their language when communicating via the web as opposed to traditional linguistic interactions. They look also at the effect computer-mediated communication has on the learning process, concluding that it may be of great help in learning vocabulary but is of less importance in the acquisition of grammar.

The remaining two papers in this section address more traditional methodological problems. Mark Weaver is an experienced teacher trainer and classroom assessor. His contribution looks at differences in teacher behaviour found when teaching groups of boys and groups of girls. The study he conducted in Polish school classrooms involved a comparison of elicitation techniques used by teachers when dealing with different genders and found substantial differences in the way teachers work with male and female learners. He concludes by discussing what attitudes lie behind these differences and how the techniques used affect learner outcomes.

Anna Świerczyńska describes a study she carried out using innovative informal methods of assessment. Her focus is on the assessment of reading skills, but the idea of employing non-traditional methods of assessments is relevant to all language skills. The approach she took sought to encourage

good behaviours in students and to involve them in the process of assessment. She notes that, despite some practical difficulties, this led to an increase in motivation to read among the participants and gave the teacher a better idea of the ability of the students.

Along with the advent of communication technology and all the opportunities it presents, perhaps the most important trend in English teaching research over recent years has been the increased interest in the attitudes, needs and abilities of the learner. Section two of this collection asks and seeks to answer a number of questions relating to the wishes and beliefs of learners; considers the needs of particular groups, such as the blind, and the challenges they face; and ends with a look at emotions and how they are differently expressed and understood in different language cultures, an issue of great importance to all teachers who work with students from around the world.

Dorota Lipińska's paper questions pre-conceptions about the aims of language learners by actually asking them what they see as their target in the area of pronunciation. Her study suggests that although we cannot take it for granted that all learners wish to achieve a native-like accent, most do and those who would prefer to move to a more neutral model of pronunciation teaching may be doing so against the wishes of their students.

The Individual Differences Myth is the suggestion raised by Zoltan Dornyei that the traditional concept of distinct individual differences operating more or less independently is no longer sustainable. Martin Hinton considers this viewpoint and looks at how researchers may respond to the challenge laid down by Dornyei. It is suggested that although Dornyei's ideas bring considerable problems for those studying individual differences, he cannot be ignored, and that with the right methodology, embracing the notion of interrelated differences in a state of flux, they can lead to a better understanding of how the individual functions and learns.

Monika Madej and Zuzanna Kiermasz have examined the reactions of a group of students to a particular methodology: in this case teaching vocabulary through the use of word clouds. They looked for correlations between the attitudes of students and an assessment of their intelligence type, based on the theory of multiple intelligences. They report some significant differences between the reception of the method by different intelligence types which should be borne in mind by teachers when making use of word clouds and similar techniques, and discuss a number of avenues for further research.

The contribution of Agnieszka Piskorska addresses the often neglected area of learners with specific impairments. She looks at blind learners and

how their differing experience of the world can impact on their ability to perform comprehension tasks in a foreign language, designed by and primarily for sighted people. As well as describing comprehension problems caused by gaps in knowledge and pragmatic competence, she also makes a number of practical suggestions which would make examination tasks fairer and less confusing for the blind.

The final chapter in the volume deals with language and emotion rather than teaching and learning per se. Paul Wilson's study looks at how emotions and their linguistic expression are influenced by socio-cultural factors, by examining the links between the understanding of apparently direct translations of emotion words and cultural differences, particularly the degree of individualism and collectivism in British and Polish society. The finding that English and Polish speakers have quite different associations to what is usually considered to be the same word is of great importance to language learners and teachers as both groups are happy to translate freely between languages, when, in fact, they ought to pay more attention to the subtle differences in the connotations of matching words between languages.

As editors, we sincerely hope and believe that the work collected in this volume will be of great interest to students and teachers alike, and will serve to further stimulate research into the many fascinating areas of the study of English Language Teaching. We would like to take this opportunity to thank everyone involved in producing this publication, in particular the contributors themselves and reviewers, dr Dorota Gonigroszek and dr Arkadiusz Rojczyk, without whose work no volume could have materialised.

Mariusz Marczak and Martin Hinton

PART ONE:
TECHNOLOGY AND TEACHING SKILLS

EXTENDING TEACHER TRAINING INTO THE VIRTUAL SPACE: TELECOLLABORATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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Foreign language teacher education is a process that is well-established in the research literature and usually quite clearly regulated by the legal acts of a particular country. Even though knowledge, skills and attitudes can be specified together with curriculum subjects and their length, there is still much room for innovation in terms of methods of work. One such cutting-edge option can be supplementing face-to-face instruction with an e-learning component.

The aim of the present paper is to explore the notion of telecollaboration and its application in foreign language teacher education. Definitions and models will be provided, together with possible drawbacks and steps for implementation. The discussion will end with a presentation of selected Telecollaboration 2.0 environments and activities.

1. Introduction

With the great ease of networking, increased access to the Internet and ubiquitous social networking platforms, it seems unquestionable that computer-mediated collaboration will play a great role not only in people's lives, but also in their learning processes. University education in general, and teacher training in particular, cannot be left aside in this respect, as the value of telecollaborative projects has already been proven at other levels of education both in Poland and in a number of other countries.

However, with great emphasis on boosting the learning process with innovative methods and classroom techniques evident in quite a lot of schools, university education has always stayed somewhat behind in this respect, with inadequate technological provisions and a lack of separate curricular foci for technology-assisted learning. Luckily, in recent years

the situation has started to gradually improve, with more and more institutions providing Eduroam mobile Internet access to students in all classrooms, setting up Learning Management Systems like Moodle to assist teaching courses or introducing electronic forms of assessment and feedback giving.

Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning, listed by Lund (2003) alongside other computer-based paradigms such as Computer-Assisted Instruction (CAI), Intelligent Tutoring Systems (ITS) and Logo-as-Latin, is an approach to knowledge building based on the socially oriented sciences and the idea of learning as a social process, stressing the role of the distributed nature of knowledge (Bouziane 2005). Its most widespread application is telecollaboration, which involves the use of computer learning networks for foreign language learning and teaching in institutionalised settings, where “internationally dispersed learners in parallel language classes” (Belz 2003, 2) use varied Internet communication tools to support social interaction, dialogue, debate and intercultural exchange (Vinagre, 2007). Thus, as Belz (2002) has it, in this kind of computer-supported learning environment pairs or groups of distantly-located students are embedded in varied sociocultural and institutional settings.

The purpose of the present paper is to reflect on the part telecollaboration can play in this landscape, showing in particular its possible application within the foreign language teacher training curriculum. After establishing definitions and theoretical aspects of Computer-Mediated Communication, collaborative learning environments will be described, with special attention devoted to pedagogical designs and activities.

2. Telecollaboration in University Education

2.1 Preliminary Considerations

On the simplest level, a telecollaborative project is made up of two or more groups from different partner institutions, who work online in varied modes (synchronously and asynchronously), learning environments (e.g., Learning Management Systems, videoblogs, Facebook groups), to achieve common instructional purposes. However, a quick review of a number of terms that appear in the literature calls for a much more systematic introduction to the way telecollaboration can be defined.

Depending on the viewpoint of the researcher, the process of online work can be given various labels with specific connotations. Thus, for Lamy and Goodfellow (2010), telecollaboration is an exchange that

always has to lead to a collaboratively created tangible product, excluding all those frameworks in which conceptual or attitudinal change in learners' minds, learning repertoires or outlooks is actually accomplished in the process. On the other hand, Dooly and O'Dowd (2013) call the process "online intercultural exchanges", stressing the fact that a collaborative project needs to help partners develop intercultural communicative competence, obviously, specially adapted to the digital medium in which it is taking place. As defined by Guth, Helm and O'Dowd (2012, 4), "Online Intercultural Exchange (OIE), also called foreign language telecollaboration, involves Internet-mediated intercultural engagement between classes of foreign language (FL) learners in geographically distant locations." Therefore, digital competence of online collaborators will always be one of the objectives of the project, however, while in the era of Internet 1.0 it was one of the major tenets of the project, it has been currently removed to the background by more important subject-matter objectives.

Many telecollaborative projects originate from the concept of tandem learning (Little 2001, 2003; Little, Ushioda 1998), in which a group of non-native students of a particular language was teamed up with native speakers of that language. In this way, the language gap that arises due to the different backgrounds of partners is bound to be beneficial for both parties—NNSs develop their target language proficiency by being placed in authentic interactions in the virtual space, while NSs become more aware of the elements of their mother tongue, especially in terms of formal aspects of the language. This concept has inspired reflections on how to design telecollaborative projects so that their participants, joined by shared professional interests (transversal interests, Guth et al. 2012), would find a natural desire to use the language and work on common products.

Another question that arises is the extent to which a telecollaborative exchange is focused on the learning process and achieving specific goals, and to what extent it is a social process of relationship forming, bonding, and trusting. While the two cannot be separated, it becomes more and more evident that in social networking projects the social sphere and individual relations will be more appreciated, while a telenetworking design will focus more on what the remote participants need to contribute to conclude the project. For instance, in their understanding of professional networking, Lamy and Zourou (2013) stress the concepts of reuse of materials, openness beyond the borders of the class and the added value stemming from dissemination of knowledge outside the network of the actual partners.

Communication, cooperation and collaboration are usually regarded as synonymous, without much consideration paid to what particular outcome these three processes culminate with. In terms of telecollaborative exchanges, as is the argument of An et al. (2008), they need to be clearly separated both in terms of instructional design and technology used. With communication as the aim of the project, as Lee et al. (2006) have it, the essence is message exchange and information delivery; thus, Computer-Mediated Communication tools are used to enable students to easily distribute information and resources to one another. Thus, in such a setup partners share locally produced computer artifacts, which are later used as prompts or stimuli for activities done by the partners in their face-to-face classes. Beatty and Nunan (2004), on the other hand, are strict about the necessity for a clear distinction between the two remaining processes. Cooperation requires that students work together, with each getting a part of a task to do, however, the aspect of negotiation of the outcome is not essential for successful task completion. Finally, as the finest and most sophisticated form of online work, and the one most difficult to arrive at, collaborative learning implies “working in a group of two or more to achieve a common goal, while respecting each individual’s contribution to the whole” (McInnerney and Robert 2004, 205; cited after An et al., 2008, 67). Still, the distinction between the two is not widely made, which means that many examples of activities and tasks labelled as cooperation fall under the above definition of collaboration.

This way or another, telecollaboration is a highly flexible concept, denoting a broad area of applications and a multitude of instructional designs. Instructors need to be aware of the fact that the extent to which remote partners share understanding of the concept may actually be one of the factors contributing to the successful outcome of the project.

2.2 The Rationale for Telecollaboration in Teacher Education

Computer-Mediated Communication, with telecollaboration as its specific form, has received a lot of research attention over the years, starting with early studies of email-based projects, through more sophisticated learning designs based on Web 2.0 tools to current projects based on social networks. Warschauer, Turbee and Roberts (1996) claim learner collaboration mediated by computer technology helps foster social relations in the classroom, stimulates greater student involvement and empowerment by sharing information, engaging in collaborative writing and holding electronic discussions. Beatty and Nunan (2004, 166) point out that collaboration manifests itself “as a willingness to listen to others”

ideas, suggestions and opinions so that they can be discussed and integrated into further actions, such as decisions about how to complete a task". In a similar vein, Eklund and Eklund (1996) add that the electronic collaborative classroom makes learners more involved in learning, "increasing motivation and providing a framework where they may place their work", thus having an effect on enhanced satisfaction and improved learning outcomes.

As regards the characteristics of the telecollaborative learning process, Berge and Collins (1993) pinpoint the removal of traditional barriers to participation due to greater convenience, place- and time-independence. For Schultz (2003; after An et al. 2008), participation in online intercultural exchanges helps improve socialisation skills and enhanced critical thinking (Jegade 2002; cited after An et al. 2008). Specifically in the context of foreign language teacher training, telecollaboration is credited with the following benefits:

- Increased exposure to training materials, by giving trainees access to subject-matter materials from the course curricula of both (or more) partners;
- Greater impact of instruction through deeper processing of input, with methodology-related knowledge, skills and attitudes coming into play in the process of negotiation of knowledge;
- Familiarity with diverse educational contexts increasing trainees' skills of evaluating and adapting language instruction to fit learners of different mother tongues, cultures, social backgrounds and learning styles;
- Preparation for multilingual and multicultural teaching, leading to greater employability;
- Effective integration of language development, methodology knowledge development and digital competence development;
- Enhanced interpersonal skills, with increased sensitivity, tolerance for diversity and openness to otherness.

In terms of university education, according to Guth et al. (2012), telecollaboration is a highly effective vehicle for the simultaneous and smooth development of both foreign language skills and intercultural competence at the academic level. Mastery of both of these areas, together with practical use of selected technologies, is a prerequisite for proper functioning in the knowledge society of today. Additionally, a telecollaborative project is described by Guth et al. (2012) as motivating, semi-authentic in nature, providing ample opportunities for spoken and

written language use and, most importantly, constituting an inexpensive form of quality contact with other cultures.

However, online collaboration can encounter some challenges, tensions and problems as well. The learning process can face steep learning curves and time investments with access requirements to be met in appropriately reliable hardware and software environments (Berge and Collins, 1993). Missing the immediacy of human presence with paralinguistic communications systems of face, hands and body, inadequate depth and detail of intonation, stress and tone of voice (if voice is present at all) failing to transmit, for instance, empathy and professional solidarity (Edge 2006) are some additional serious drawbacks of such instructional frameworks.

In her plenary lecture to the Telecollaboration in Foreign Language University Education conference organized as the culmination point of the INTENT project in Leon, Spain, in February 2014, Marie-Noelle Lamy points to the following challenges and tensions in telecollaboration, whose negative effects would have to be prevented or at least minimised in order for online intercultural exchanges to constitute a positive learning experience for university students:

- negative grammatical pragmatic transfer;
- sociopragmatic differences;
- age differences;
- differences in local learning values;
- institutional and professional misalignments;
- practical constraints;
- psycholinguistic pressures due to synchronicity;
- mismatches between teaching and assessment;
- teacher workload;
- political incompatibilities;
- tension-creating influences from the wider context of use.

As visible from the list above, some of the constraints refer to factors stemming from the very differences between the partners, their cultures, mother tongues, perception of teacher-student relations, willingness and openness towards other cultures. In fact, sociopragmatic differences, political incompatibilities or institutional and professional misalignments do not have to have such a harmful effect on the actual outcome of the project. On the contrary, once disparities in sociopragmatic, political, institutional or professional domains are isolated and acknowledged by coordinators from partner institutions, the actual design of the exchange

can exploit these differences as the chosen focus to be explored and pondered upon.

Other factors (practical constraints, mismatches between teaching and assessment or teacher workload) mentioned by Lamy (2014) are connected to the mediating technologies, where it is sometimes the case that teachers want to motivate their learners with the cutting-edge technologies they are not in full control of themselves. As a result, instructors' frustrations, excessive workload and occasional technology-related mishaps influence the way a collaborative project is perceived by all the parties involved. As a solution, it seems much more reasonable to pay much greater attention to the sophistication of the learning design, activities, tasks and products, rather than attempt to boost learners' motivation only with the technology used. Thus, careful selection of mediating technologies needs to take into account the actual daily usage by teachers, who need to be fully contextually-confident (Kessler, Plakans 2008) in particular operations in order to be in full management of language instruction happening in the virtual space.

2.3 Classification of Collaboration Tools

Computer-mediated collaboration can use an almost unlimited range of technologies, both in terms of materials production (such as word-processors, presentation software, audio/video/graphics editors, authoring tools), communication as well as online collaboration. In fact, any technology, aiming at content creation, communication or testing, can be successfully implemented into a collaborative project in one of its stages. In general, the requirement for interactive technologies to be classified as suitable for virtual teamwork is that they should allow teams to communicate, collaborate, and share knowledge and information resources with other team members and beyond (Lee et al. 2006).

Traditionally, technologies fall into asynchronous tools (e-mail, discussion boards, wikis, blogs, online word processors), where interaction is done with a delay, and synchronous tools (chat, audio/videoconferencing, MOOs, whiteboards), enabling creating the learning context and mediating social exchange at the very same moment. Another distinction is that into same time/same place, same time/different place, different time/same place, and different time/different place (Duarte and Snyder, 1999; cited after Lee et al. 2006), which brings into focus the fact that in telecollaborative projects at least some part of collaboration may take place in the classroom (same place), either real-time (same time) or asynchronously, out of class (different place).

Studies	Technologies
Coleman (1997)	<input type="checkbox"/> Synchronous (desktop and real-time data conferencing, electronic display, video conferencing and audio conferencing) <input type="checkbox"/> Asynchronous applications (e-mail, bulletin boards, non-real-time database sharing and conferencing, workflow applications)
Duarte and Snyder (1999)	<input type="checkbox"/> Same time, same place (residence meeting) <input type="checkbox"/> Same time, different place (audio conference, video conference) <input type="checkbox"/> Different time, same place (chat room, bulletin board) <input type="checkbox"/> Different time, different place (e-mailing, voice mail message)
Bonk, Medury and Reynolds (1994)	<input type="checkbox"/> Electronic mail and delayed messaging tools <input type="checkbox"/> Remote access/Delayed collaborative writing <input type="checkbox"/> Real-time dialoguing and idea generation tools <input type="checkbox"/> Real-time collaborative writing tools <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperative hypermedia
Chinowsky and Rojas (2003)	<input type="checkbox"/> Communication technology <input type="checkbox"/> Cooperation technology <input type="checkbox"/> Collaboration technology

Table 1.1

Most crucially, the taxonomy of Chinowsky and Rojas (2003) indicates a need to reflect on the reason why a particular technology is used to mediate learning, and what is achieved thanks to it. The distinction into communication, cooperation and collaboration, already established in the initial section of this paper, sets forth the pedagogical principles for the use of CMC in language education. Thus, to start with, communication technologies focus on message exchange and information delivery, enabling students to distribute information and resources. On the other hand, cooperation technologies, such as a forum-style discussion board or team file space, according to Lee et al. (2006, 21), “feature technical advances over communication technologies”, and their users focus on utilising information transmitted and develop ideas and solutions in response to team tasks. Finally, collaboration technologies offer multiple modes of delivery (e.g., graphic-textual in whiteboards or audio-textual in audio conferencing) and aim at providing real-life work situations and experiences, thus supporting “the emotional flow of teamwork process” (Lee et al. 2006, 21).

CMC tools, serving communication, cooperation and collaboration purposes, would not cater for all possible needs of partners in a telecollaborative process without user authoring of digital materials of various kinds (text, picture, audio file, video, multimedia presentation, self-study Java-script quiz). In quite a lot of instructional patterns much of telecollaboration involves the production of digital artifacts by telecollaborators in their classrooms, and then exchanging them with remote partners to stimulate discussion, response or further authoring. The materials can be created by:

- office applications: word processors, spreadsheets, presentation software, databases;
- web publishing tools: word processors, webpage editors, HTML editors, blogs, wikis;
- multimedia recorders: audio editors such as Audacity, <http://audacity.sourceforge.net>; video editors such as VideoGet, <http://nuclear-coffee.com/VideoGet> or Total Video Converter, <http://www.effectmatrix.com/total-video-converter/>;
- multimedia editors: Windows MovieMaker, image editors like GIMP, <http://www.gimp.org>; audio editors such as Audacity, <http://audacity.sourceforge.net>;
- multimedia self-study quiz making tools: HotPotatoes, <http://hotpot.uvic.ca>; Learning Apps, <https://learningapps.org/>.

The era of Collaboration 1.0 (for instance, early eTwinning) was marked by a prevalence for using separate production and communication technologies, which meant, for instance, preparation of films, PowerPoint presentations, audio postcards, and the like, and their exchange with partners via email, Moodle or Google Drive. As O'Dowd and Eberbach (2003) note, the use and combination of different communication and production tools can offer teachers and learners various advantages. Thus, for instance, videoconferencing enables students to see and speak to their partners in real time, thus making use of paralinguistic features and non-verbal communication, while MOO's or discussion boards provide unrestricted access to interaction transcripts, facilitating reflection and further study (O'Dowd and Eberbach, 2003). In this way, the selection of tools should not only take into account the characteristics of the specific task designed for a computer-mediated collaborative session, but also planned follow-up activities.

However, in the current understanding of telecollaboration more and more negotiation of meaning and material authoring actually takes place

online, reflecting the Read-Write nature of Web 2.0. Such characteristic features of Web 2.0 network as a platform, with connected devices (O'Reilly 2005), 'microcontent' pieces of data "saved, summarized, addressed, copied, quoted, built into new projects" (Alexander 2006), "architecture of participation", with software being updated as influenced by the more people use it (O'Reilly 2005), "open communication, decentralization of authority, [and] freedom to share and re-use" material, obviously influence the way telecollaboration in university settings is going to be undertaken. The evolution from Read-Web to Read-Write Web (Thompson 2007), with increased authoring opportunities, easy-to-use solutions enabling online publishing without much knowledge (Thompson 2007), folksonomy and much greater role of social networking (Alexander 2006), led to the emergence of new Collaboration 2.0 (office/text/multimedia/search 2.0) environments, with the listing of types seen below:

- blogs and wikis (Leuf, Cunningham 2001; Godwin-Jones 2003; Angeles 2004; Schwartz et al. 2004);
- online whiteboards, screen annotation software (Ericson 2007; Good 2008);
- online word-processors and presentations (Ericson 2007; Good 2008);
- audio/video/graphic conferencing and voice threaded discussions;
- virtual worlds (Sobkowiak 2010a, 2010b; Kruk 2014);
- Virtual Learning Environments (Krajka and Marczak 2013);
- project management tools, network presence monitoring tools, assessment, polling and voting tools;
- collaborative multimedia authoring: subtitle authoring (Krajka 2013), animation authoring, quiz authoring.

Out of the ones above, it is particularly the last group of tools, namely collaborative multimedia authoring services, which seem to display greatest potential for contemporary collaborative projects. Collaborating on different language versions of captions for the videos uploaded to DotSUB (<http://dotsub.com>), with the ability to publish a number of transcriptions or translations of the same video, and the ability to continue another user's unfinished subtitles, open up interesting opportunities for modern philology students. Similarly, collaborative quiz creation with such services as Quizlet (<http://quizlet.com>) helps student teachers gain a wider perspective on their own target language awareness and sensitivity to learner problems. Most importantly, collaborative authoring

environments foster student teachers' meta-cognitive skills, by facilitating self-assessment, peer-assessment, self- and peer-monitoring, peer feedback or directed attention.

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 Director: Luca Inconava
 Views: 1 591 (91 embedded)
 Posted by: stayhuman on 2013-04-25

STAY HUMAN - The Reading Movie
 www.thereadingmovie.tv

The movie, totally co-produced with over 1700 people's support, has included Extras exclusive interviews released from many personalities among which Stéphane Hessel, Noam Chomsky, Roger Waters, Norman Finkelstein, Ilan Pappé, Mairead Corrigan Maguire and more.
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Michelle Wayne ★ Top Commenter · Sydney Technical High School
 If I had a chance I would kill Finkelstein or the rebe from the cult of Nutrei Karta, not because I'm anti Jewish no because I'm ashamed that this kind of people are sick and should be locked up, nobody is mentioning what is Palestinians doing to Jews here! and condemning them, shame on this people, Zionism is Judaism! and this who deny it can go to Hell!
 Reply Like May 18, 2013 at 7:50pm

Fig. 1-1

Web 2.0 redefines communication technologies by enabling multimodal interaction in a variety of patterns. Apart from the characteristic features of standard conferencing tools, online whiteboards (also termed ‘screen annotation software’) add an important visual channel to the communication context. With the display space visible to all members of the class and flexibly managed by the teacher and/or students, they can be used to enhance the message and give an additional dimension to the instruction by using visual appeal. Displaying websites, pictures, drawing elements, writing straight on the whiteboard or highlighting parts of text, can all help to focus students' attention on the task and facilitate comprehension.

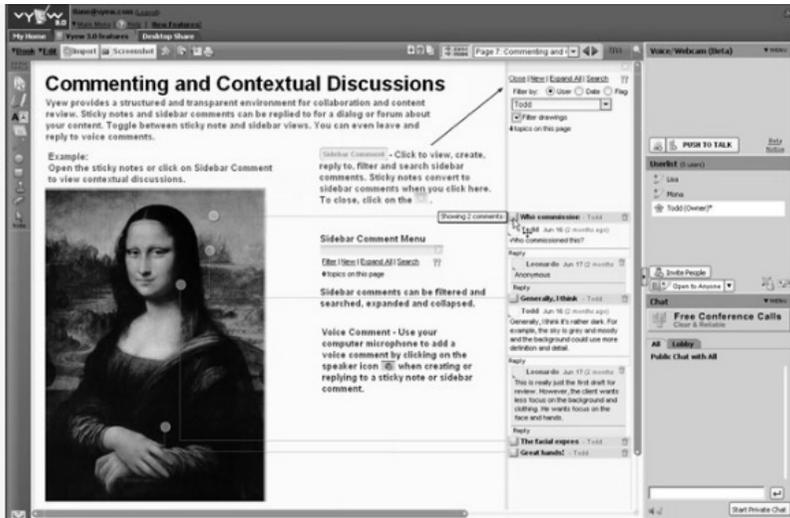


Fig. 2

Short-term collaborative activities, such as brainstorming, task feedback or peer correction, might be easily managed by such online whiteboarding tools as Groupboard (<http://www.groupboard.com>); Twiddla (<http://www.twiddla.com/>) or Vyew (<http://vyew.com>). The drawing capabilities (freehand, line, empty rectangle and ellipse, fill colour choice and line thickness), pointing and marking (real-time/laser pointer, arrow-pointer, highlighter-emphasiser, numbered marker, marker with preset symbols, spotlight), text addition and deletion (text tool, individual/global eraser), importing/exporting a picture/screenshot, saving/loading/hiding/displaying annotations, and interacting in text/audio with multiple users, all allow boosting productivity of classroom presentation and practice similarly to the stationary Interactive Whiteboard. On the other hand, online whiteboards provide equal interaction opportunities to all invited students, be it locally or remotely, which means that work on the display space can be truly collaborative and learner-centred.

2.4 Pedagogical Designs and Telecollaborative Activities

While the abundance of technologies potentially useful for telecollaborative projects in university settings may be highly appealing, it is more important, on the one hand, to reconcile different technologies into

a coherent pedagogical framework, and, on the other hand, to ensure actual collaboration with a thoughtful methodological design. As it is claimed by Lee et al. (2006), “the success of virtual teams depends on the balanced integration of technologies and pedagogical activities, and the decisions on the specific tools and their features to be exploited in the language classroom naturally influence the virtual team’s processes and performances” (par. 4). At the same time, Lamy (2014) warns against being overenthusiastic about the potential of cutting-edge technologies, instead advocating clear and sensible pedagogical thought behind the exchange syllabus. “There is no need to go into very much bells and whistles things” (Lamy, 2014), instead, the key is to make sure true collaboration, rather than student-responses to teacher-initiated forums, actually appears. It is necessary to emphasise the primary role of cognitive, pedagogical, language and intercultural objectives over computer objectives, as technology only creates conditions for the accomplishment of these types of aims, not constituting an aim itself. On the other hand, it is by getting to know the opportunities offered by contemporary ICT tools that one can formulate the above-mentioned aims in a way that will be appropriately challenging for learners.

Before the selection of tasks and activities can actually take place, the major decision to be taken is what particular model the exchange is going to follow. In its first dimension, the question arises on the cultures partners are supposed to come from. Thus, an online exchange can be monocultural, if participants from different parts of the country are teamed up together (e.g., students of English philology from different universities in Poland). An interesting variation on a monocultural exchange can be a project in which student teachers from a country could be coupled with their counterparts of Polish origin from some other country, e.g., young Polish Melbournians in Australia, though such partners might be very difficult to find. On the other hand, a bicultural exchange involves two partners of two different cultures, and the degree of distance between these may be taken into account when setting up the aims for the exchange. In the two teacher training projects summarized in Krajka (2014), Polish student teachers liaised with Turkish student teachers on the one hand and Slovenian teachers on the other. Thus, the selection of the culture partners are supposed to come from should not be done at random, on a ‘whoever volunteers’ basis, but rather be suited to the amount of collaboration and the depth of relationship expected. Finally, a multicultural project involves more than two partners from different countries. Greater exposure to diversity, on the positive side, may of course be compromised by unequal participation and problems with establishing proper bonds between partners.