The SNS-based E-mentoring and Development of Computational Thinking for Undergraduate Students in an Online Course

Yeonju Jang¹, Seongyune Choi¹, Seonghun Kim² and Hyeoncheol Kim^{3*}

¹Dept. of Computer Science and Engineering, The Graduate School of Korea University, Republic of Korea // ²Dept. of Education, Gachon University, Republic of Korea // ³Dept. of Computer Science and Engineering, Korea University, Republic of Korea // spring0425@korea.ac.kr // csyun213@korea.ac.kr // ryankim@gachon.ac.kr // harrykim@korea.ac.kr

*Corresponding author

ABSTRACT: Given the importance of digital technology in daily life, computational thinking (CT) has become a necessary skill for everyone, not just for computer scientists. For CT development, students need to receive appropriate social learning support. However, instructors find it difficult to provide such support to many students in online courses. This study aimed to examine the effectiveness of e-mentoring via social network services (SNS) in developing students' CT during large-scale online courses. A total of 327 undergraduate students volunteered to participate in this study, which included 16 weeks of lectures aimed at developing CT. The effects of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development, the influences of each e-mentoring activity on CT development, and gender differences were analyzed using data on participants' CT assistance scores and their utilization of e-mentoring activities. The findings indicated that SNS-based e-mentoring was effective in developing the CT of undergraduate students' engagement in a large-scale online course. The most influential ementoring activities for students' CT development were informational and technical support in a group and informational support in a private environment. Female students benefited more from SNS-based e-mentoring than male students, and they also engaged in more types of e-mentoring activities than male students. Participation in SNS-based e-mentoring was found to lower the gap in CT between students with and without prior learning experience. Our study findings can be used by educational institutions and instructors when designing courses for students' CT development in large-scale online courses or when developing strategies to close the gender gap in CT ability.

Keywords: Computational thinking, e-Mentoring, Social Network Service (SNS), Gender difference, Computational thinking and prior learning experience

1. Introduction

Ever since its mention by Wing (2006), the interest in "computer thinking (CT)" has been growing steadily. Wing (2006) described CT as a "fundamental skill for everyone, not just for computer scientists" (p. 33). People now live in a world where digital technologies are used in various fields such as health care and education (Jung et al., 2022; Jang et al., 2022b; Choi et al., 2022). In a world where digital technology is critical for performing essential daily tasks, individuals must have the skills necessary to both understand critically the technological systems they use and solve problems when things go wrong (Czerkawski, 2015). Consequently, numerous studies on CT education have been conducted across a range of subjects, from K–12 (Angeli et al., 2016; Li et al., 2022) to higher education (Lyon & Magana, 2020; Jocius et al., 2021).

In CT development, problem-based or project-based learning strategies have been primarily used (Hsu et al., 2018), and instructor–student interaction is crucial for the learning process (Kwame Boateng, 2020). Through interactions with students, instructors can positively influence students' CT development by providing just-in-time instructions, role modeling, and other social learning support (Gong et al., 2020; Lye & Koh, 2014).

However, developing students' CT through active interactions between instructors and students is more difficult in large online than in small face-to-face classes. It is difficult for instructors and students to interact actively online (Drange et al., 2015), but it is even more difficult for instructors to interact with multiple students when there are many students to manage.

E-mentoring can be a solution to this problem. E-mentoring refers to a pairwise relationship between a more experienced individual (mentor) and a less experienced individual (mentee), primarily through electronic communication. E-mentoring can provide mentees with informational, psychosocial, and instrumental benefits (Single & Single, 2005), as well as alleviate the problem of lack of interaction between instructors and learners online (Dahalan et al., 2012). For e-mentoring to be effective, users should be comfortable using the mentoring tool (Sánchez et al., 2014). Additionally, when synchronous tools capable of real-time dialogue are used, the

effect of e-mentoring is enhanced by making communication more comfortable (Jacobs et al., 2015; Tanis & Barker, 2017). Therefore, it is important to select an appropriate e-mentoring tool to maximize its effect (Chong et al., 2020).

In this study, Social Networking Sites (SNS) were used to help students develop CT through e-mentoring in large-scale online classes. As SNS has become more common in daily life, attempts to use SNS for education have emerged (Lee & Kim, 2016; Rutten et al., 2016; Son et al., 2016). The advantage of using SNS for education is that users are already familiar with it, can readily share various data, and can interact in real time (Sánchez et al., 2014).

Several previous studies have tried to develop students' CT using e-mentoring or SNS. However, there are some research gaps with regard to how e-mentoring using SNS in large online courses affects CT. First, there are studies on how e-mentoring improves CT (Dlab et al., 2019); however, studies on how e-mentoring activities affect CT enhancement are lacking. In addition, there is a limitation that the e-mentoring process proceeded asynchronously as e-mail was used as a tool for mentoring. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct additional research on the effects of real-time e-mentoring via SNS on CT development. Second, a study that developed CT using SNS (Tsutsui & Takada, 2018) was conducted in an offline class with a small number of students. Consequently, the impact of using SNS for e-mentoring in large online courses needs to be investigated further. Third, one study used SNS for e-mentoring (Lee & Mehta, 2015), but it is unclear whether this helps students develop CT in large online courses. Finally, to the best of our knowledge, no research has been conducted to determine whether the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development differs depending on the gender or prior learning experience of students. Gender gaps in CT education are frequently mentioned (Angeli & Giannakos, 2020; Bati, 2022). Analyzing gender differences in the method or effect of using SNS-based ementoring in courses for CT development can provide insight into how to reduce the gender gap when designing CT education classes in the future. However, it is well known that when programming practice is included in a CT development course, students' prior learning experiences have a significant impact on their learning success (Bergersen & Gustafsson, 2011; Lau & Yuen, 2011; Jegede, 2009). Therefore, analyzing whether there is a difference in the effect of CT development through SNS-based e-mentoring based on prior learning experiences can be used as a reference when designing an e-mentoring program in the future while taking students' educational backgrounds into account. Consequently, we designed and conducted research on the following questions.

- RQ 1: Is SNS-based e-mentoring useful for college students' CT development?
- RQ 2: Which e-mentoring activities influence CT development?
- RQ 3: Is there a gender difference in the effects of SNS-based e-mentoring and e-mentoring activities?
- RQ 4: Is there a difference in the CT enhancement effect of SNS-based e-mentoring considering prior learning experience? Is there an interaction effect between prior learning experience and SNS-based e-mentoring?

To answer the research questions and accomplish our research goals, we investigated the effect of SNS-based ementoring on the CT development of college students in this study. An informatics course was conducted for 16 weeks with the goal of developing CT for students, and SNS-based e-mentoring was also conducted during this period. Data on students' CT abilities and their utilization of e-mentoring were collected during this process. Through data analysis, the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development, the effect of e-mentoring activities on CT development, and gender differences were investigated.

2. Literature review

2.1. Computational thinking

Although numerous attempts have been made to integrate CT into various fields of education, there are various opinions on its definition. Wing (2006) described CT as "solving problems, designing systems, and understanding human behavior, by drawing on the concepts fundamental to computer science" (p. 33). Following that, she clarified CT as "the thought processes involved in formulating problems and their solutions so that the solutions are represented in a form that can be effectively carried out by an information-processing agent" (Wing, 2011, p. 20).

Aho (2012) defined CT as "the thought processes involved in formulating problems so their solutions can be represented as computational steps and algorithms" (p. 832) The Royal Society (2012) described CT as "the

process of recognizing aspects of computation in the world that surrounds us and applying tools and techniques from Computer Science to understand and reason about both natural and artificial systems and processes" (p. 29). Meanwhile, CT has been also defined as "reformulating a seemingly difficult problem into one we know how to solve, perhaps by reducing, embedding, transforming, or simulating" (Wing, 2006, p. 33).

Although there is currently no universally accepted definition of CT, researchers have come to accept that it is a thought process that incorporates elements of abstraction, generalization, decomposition, algorithmic thinking, and debugging (Angeli et al., 2016). Abstraction is the ability to strip away features or attributes from an object or entity to reduce it to a set of fundamental characteristics (Wing, 2011). While abstraction reduces complexity by concealing unessential details, generalization reduces complexity by substituting a single construct for multiple entities that perform similar functions (Thalheim, 2000). Abstraction and generalization are frequently used in combination, with abstracts generalized via parameterization to increase utility. Decomposition is the ability to reduce complex problems to their simplest components (National Research Council, 2010). Algorithmic thinking is a problem-solving skill that entails formulating a problem solution step-by-step (Selby, 2014). Debugging is the ability to identify when actions do not correspond to instructions and correct errors (Selby, 2014).

Table 1 shows the elements of CT as these have been discussed and defined in this section. This conceptual framework was referenced by Angeli et al. (2016). Accordingly, this conceptual framework was adopted for designing an informatics curriculum for undergraduate students to develop CT.

Table 1. The elements of CT			
Element	Definition		
Abstraction (AB)	The ability to determine which data about an entity/object to retain and which to discard (Wing, 2011).		
Generalization (GN)	The ability to formulate a solution in generic terms for it to be applicable to a variety of problems (Selby, 2014).		
Decomposition (DC)	The ability to decompose a complex problem into smaller, more manageable components (National Research Council, 2010; Wing, 2011).		
Algorithms (AL)	The ability to create a step-by-step sequence of operations/actions for resolving a problem (Selby, 2014).		
Debugging (DB)	The ability to identify, eliminate, and correct errors (Selby, 2014).		

2.2. E-mentoring

With the advancement of technology, especially the improvement of electronic communication, the concept of mentoring has been developed without face-to-face elements (Risquez, 2008; Single & Single, 2005). Single and Muller (2001) defined e-mentoring as a relationship or pairwise relationship that occurs naturally within the program, established between a more experienced individual (the mentor) and a less experienced individual (the mentee), mainly using electronic communication. Methods such as e-mail, threaded discussions through learning management systems (LMSs) and SNSs can be used for e-mentoring (Rowland, 2012).

According to Single and Single (2005), e-mentoring has informational, psychosocial, and instrumental benefits. Informational benefits refer to the exchange of knowledge and subject matter beneficial to a newcomer. Psychosocial benefits refer to mentees gaining self-esteem, confidence, and encouragement to take risks as a result of effective mentoring relationships. Instrumental benefits refer to relationships that provide mentees with opportunities for increased visibility and advancement. Instrumental benefit can also be defined in terms of behaviors targeted toward facilitating the mentee's goal attainment (Eby et al., 2013), or practical contributions (Gafni-Lachter et al., 2021). A previous study reported that students felt confused, anxious, and frustrated because of the lack of prompt feedback from instructors and vague instructions on websites (Hara & Kling, 2001). E-mentoring can alleviate this problem because students (mentees) and their mentors can interact regardless of location through email, chat rooms, bulletin boards, forums, and discussions (Dahalan et al., 2012). Several studies have shown that e-mentoring can help improve student performance (de Janasz & Godshalk, 2013; Jacobs et al., 2015).

E-mentoring has also been applied to the development of CT in students. For example, Kahraman and Abdullah (2016) used an online forum and e-mail-based communication tool to conduct e-mentoring, which facilitated the CT development of undergraduate students. In addition, Dlab et al. (2019) demonstrated that the CT of primary school students was developed as a result of e-mentoring using an LMS.

2.3. Social network service

Social network services (SNS) are a collection of web technologies that enable users to create, share, communicate, and interact with one another. SNS users can interact with "friends" or other users or members on and offsite who are invited to connect to their profile. Other connected users, referred to as "friends," "contacts," or "followers," can be anyone who is granted access to the user's profile (to view and share information), and friends can range from close family members to complete strangers (Weber, 2012).

As the use of social media continues to grow, attempts to use it for educational purposes have emerged. The use of SNS in learning involves the advantage of real-time, information sharing, simple posting, and reliable feedback from friends (Du et al., 2013; Popescu, 2014). SNS is effective for writing education (Lee & Kim, 2016) and can help adolescents develop their online career skills (Rutten et al., 2016). In addition, Son et al. (2016) proposed an LMS that enables real-time and reliable feedback for incorrect answers by incorporating an SNS. Tsutsui and Takada (2018) created an SNS platform for programming education and used it in a class for the CT development of students.

Considering the benefits of integrating SNS into education, this study incorporated SNS into the e-mentoring process. KakaoTalk used in this study was released in 2010 and is used by more than 93% of smartphone owners in South Korea (Lee & Kim, 2016).

3. Methods

3.1. The course implementation for developing undergraduate students' CT

The researchers in this study developed a CT program for undergraduate students through a 16-week online course. The course was implemented for students at Korea University in the Republic of Korea. Since 2014, the course has been open annually, and it was a relatively large course, with an average of 400 students enrolling each year. Due to the coronavirus (COVID-19) outbreak, the course was conducted entirely online and twice weekly for 90 min each. The course curriculum for 14 weeks is shown in Table 2, excluding the 2 weeks for the midterm/final exams. Each session included a problem-solving activity for CT development based on basic informatics concepts.

The course included lectures on the fundamental concepts of informatics as well as lectures on programming. All classes were conducted via video conferencing in real time (Zoom). At the beginning of the course, the students' programming experience was investigated. According to the survey, 48.0% (N = 157) of the students had programming experience (including block-based programming), but only 17.8% (N = 58) had text-based programming experience. Therefore, a cloud-based programming environment (Google Colaboratory) that does not require complicated environment settings was selected for the programming lectures. In addition, Python was chosen as the programming language because it is simple for beginners to learn. Programming assignments were given after each lecture. A lecture on training a machine learning model using Google Teachable Machine was held for a week. Additionally, by creating a webpage, students could check the results of the trained model directly. Figure 1 illustrates examples of students' primary activity outputs and a researcher-created web page.



Figure 1. Screenshots of students' activity results and a researcher-created web page

(b) A website designed to visualize machine learning modeling results.

		2. Curriculum of the implemented online c			~~~
Week	Topic	Main concept/contents	Main activity	Related element	CT .s
1	Computing machine	 Data, information, and knowledge Automation of information processing process Automation Problem solving with machines: abstraction, decomposition, algorithm History of computing tools 	 Distinguish between data and information Designing an automated machine that recognizes handwriting 	AB, AL	DC,
2-3	Data representation	 Representation of information using code Information theory, entropy Data encoding: number, text, image, sound 	 Create code to communicate using five fingers Calculating entropy Encoding characters, numbers, images, and sounds 	AB, DC, AL	GN,
4	Problem solving	 Problem solving: IPO (input-process- output), problem representation, problem decomposition Data modeling: decision table, entity- relation diagram (ERD), state machine, data flow diagram 	• Expressing a problem as a decision table, ERD, etc.	AB, DC, DB	GN, AL,
5	Algorithmic thinking	Algorithm: flowchart, pseudo-code, sequence, flow controlAlgorithm and program	• Solve problems by expressing them as flowcharts and pseudo- code	AB, DC, DB	GN, AL,
6-7	Algorithm	 Data structure Sorting: selection, bubble, insertion, quick Searching: sequential, binary 	 Display your favorite soccer teams as an array Solving sorting problems Solving searching problems 	AB, DC, AL	GN,
8	Functional world	•Function, recursive function	• Representing a problem as a function	AB, DC, AL	GN,
9-11	Programming	•Python programming	• Creating basic programs in Python	AB, DC, DB	GN, AL,
12-13	Alternative computing	 Greedy algorithm Intelligent model: knowledge based, data based Evolutionary computing, genetic algorithm Game theory 	 Solve the problem by expressing it with a greedy algorithm Representing and solving problems with genetic algorithms 	AB, DC, AL	GN,
14	Machine learning	•Training classification models	• Create image classification and sound classification models using teachable machine	AB, DC, DB	GN, AL,

C /1 C. CT 4

3.2. Participants

Participants in this study were undergraduate students from Korea University in South Korea with 50 different majors (e.g., computer science, philosophy, architecture) enrolled in the same informatics course. Participants were recruited using a voluntary response sampling method (Murairwa, 2015; Tiit, 2021; Jang et al., 2022a) that targeted the students who took this course. At the beginning of the course, the researchers investigated whether students desired e-mentoring and consented to participate in the research. Participation in e-mentoring was optional, but participants were required to write a mentoring report at the end of the course. A total of 380 students attended the course and 327 volunteered to participate in the study. Among the participants, 189 students engaged in e-mentoring and 138 did not.

We categorized the participants into two groups (control and group), depending on whether they engaged in ementoring. Therefore, students who did not participate in e-mentoring were assigned to the control group, whereas those who did were assigned to the treatment group.

Table 3 presents the demographics of the participants (mentees). Among the participants, 167 (51.1%) were male and 160 (48.9%) were female. Most of the participants were freshmen (N = 131; 40.1%), followed by seniors (N = 88; 26.9%) and sophomores (N = 78; 23.9%), with the least number of participants being juniors (N = 30; 9.1%). The total number of participants' majors was 43, with the largest number of participants majoring in computer science (N = 33), followed by mechanical engineering (N = 28) and new materials engineering (N = 24). In contrast, sociology (N = 3), architecture (N = 5), and psychology (N = 8) were the three majors with the fewest participants. Table 3 shows the characteristics of the participants by group according to their engagement in e-mentoring.

		Engaged in e-mentoring	Not engaged in e-mentoring		
Gender	Male	<i>N</i> = 82; 49.1%	<i>N</i> = 85; 50.9%		
	Female	<i>N</i> = 107; 66.9%	<i>N</i> = 53; 33.1%		
The top three	majors the most	Business $(N = 18)$	Computer science $(N = 22)$		
students have		Biology ($N = 15$)	Mechanical engineering $(N = 16)$		
		Electronic engineering $(N = 14)$	Mathematics $(N = 13)$		

Table 3. Participant demographics by group according to the engagement in e-mentoring

3.3. E-mentoring process

3.3.1. Recruitment

Mentors and mentees were recruited concurrently during the first week of the course. First, students enrolled in the course were invited to apply for e-mentoring via Google Forms. E-mentors were recruited from among the students who took this course in the prior semester through an e-mail to students who received A0 or A+ grades. Out of a total of 127 students, 19 hoped to participate as mentors. Twelve mentors were selected through online interviews. Of the mentors, seven were male and five were female. Mentors mainly majored in computer science (N = 5), and pre-medical (N = 3). The remaining mentor majors were electronic engineering, industrial management engineering, economics, and psychology (each N = 1). A total of 189 mentees (the treatment group) were assigned to the mentors, with each mentor assigned 15–16 mentees. All mentors agreed to participate in the study.

3.3.2. SNS-based e-mentoring environment

All e-mentoring processes were conducted online through an SNS platform. Figure 2 shows an SNS-based ementoring environment. The mentors were included in three chat rooms. The first was a private chat room with individual mentees, the second was a group chat room with matched mentees, and the third was a group chat room with instructors and other mentors. In the chat rooms, both mentors and mentees had to use an account with their real name and could not join anonymously. Figure 3 shows screenshots of the mentor–mentee group chat and private chat conducted in this study.





3.3.3. E-mentoring activities

E-mentoring can provide informational, psychosocial, and instrumental support to mentees (Single & Single, 2005). In this study, practical benefits provided by instrumental support were limited to "technical benefits." The curriculum in this study was designed to use various web tools when conducting programming tasks. Consequently, it was planned that e-mentors could assist students with any problems they might encounter while using these tools.

Accordingly, mentors provide informational, psychosocial, and technical support to their mentees. Table 4 shows the e-mentoring activities used in this study. To begin with, with regard to informational activities, e-mentors provided knowledgeable assistance in responding to mentees' inquiries about their comprehension of class content. Mentors were not allowed to directly answer the assignment questions. Instead, when students encountered difficulties completing assignments, hints or supplementary materials to assist with problem solving were provided via SNS. In addition, e-mentors responded to questions seeking general information about course attendance (e.g., assignment submission form). Second, mentors performed psychosocial activities. When mentees felt frustrated while taking a course or wanted to give up, mentors provided emotional support. For example, they said words that encouraged students, inspired confidence, and shared the difficulties and overcoming processes they had experienced while taking the course. Third, mentors carried out the technical activities. When mentees asked for assistance with using Google Colaboratory, Teachable Machine, and other tools, mentors suggested appropriate solutions.

Students who participated in SNS-based e-mentoring (treatment group) received informational, psychosocial, and technical support through an e-mentor, either in a group or privately. In contrast, students who did not participate in e-mentoring (control group) contacted the instructor directly via e-mail when informational, psychosocial, and technical assistance were required.

Table 4. E-mentoring activities					
Interaction target	Category of e-mentoring activity	Details of activity			
Mentee	Informational activity (IA)	Provide hints or supplementary materials for problem solving			
		Answer questions about class content			
	Psychosocial activity (PA)	Encouragement, role modeling			
	Technical activity (TA)	Help with the skills or tools mentees need on an assignment			

Mentors also interacted with other mentors. Figure 4 shows the overall activity of the e-mentors according to the interaction target. To begin, mentors shared useful materials that would aid mentees in their learning. Mentors also interacted with the instructor, and mentors sought answers from the instructor to mentees' difficult-to-answer questions. In addition, they were responsible for submitting a weekly report to the instructor detailing their interactions with the mentee.

Figure 4. E-mentoring activities by interaction target



3.4. Data collection and data analysis

3.4.1. Assessment of CT

For the CT assessment, course assignments, quizzes, and midterm/final exam scores were used. After converting homework, quizzes, and midterm/final exam scores into a scale of 10, the average value of the total score was used. The purpose of the course was to develop CT for undergraduate students by incorporating the fundamental concepts of informatics. Therefore, all assignments, quizzes, and exams were designed to assist students in developing CT through the resolution of problems related to the lecture's topic. The assignment included nine problem-solving tasks involving informatics and seven programming tasks. The quiz was conducted a total of three times using the quiz function of LMS. The midterm/final exam is not just a test of students' knowledge of fundamental informatics concepts; it is designed to assess their overall CT ability. Table 5 shows examples of the data used for the CT ability measurement.

Table 5. Examples of resources used for CT assessment

Content Related CT elements Assignment -Create code to communicate using five fingers AB, GN, DC, AL -Proposing a structure to efficiently organize photos in a AB, GN, DC smartphone photo album -Sorting: Select, Insert, Bubble, Quick Sort AB, GN, DC, AL -Python programming: find the cause of the error and fix it AL, DB correctly -Python programming: Creating a fractal pattern using the AB, GN, DC, AL, DB turtle module and nested loops -Creating Image and Sound Classification Models with AB, GN, DC, AL, DB **Teachable Machines** AB, GN, DC, AL Quiz -Data representation, problem solving -Algorithmic thinking, algorithm AB, GN, DC, AL, DB -Alternative computing AB, GN, DC, AL Midterm Exam - Imagine making a swing hanging on a tree, and explain step-AB, GN, DC, AL, DB by-step how to make a wooden swing so that someone else can make a swing exactly the way you imagined it. - Using "nodes" and "links" to represent the operational form of this course, which is being taught in a non-face-to-face format because of the coronavirus disease. - Expressing the algorithm for finding the same mate in a pile of socks in pseudocode Final Exam - Expressing the Fibonacci sequence in the form of a recursive AB, GN, DC, AL, DB function in pseudo-code - Structuring and expressing how a valet parking agent stores customers' cars and quickly finds and delivers the right car when the customer wants it

given data

3.4.2. Utilization of e-mentoring

The frequency of use of each mentee's e-mentoring activity was measured using the weekly activity report submitted by e-mentors. Screenshots of all conversations each mentor had with the mentors via group chat or private chat for a week were attached to the weekly activity report submitted by e-mentors. The conversation between e-mentors and e-mentees included questions and answers about incomprehensible parts of the class, questions and answers about the format of the assignment, questions and answers about error handling during python programming, questions and answers about Blackboard LMS access errors, and how to overcome programming as a non-major. The researchers classified and labeled the activities depicted in the report into three types of e-mentoring activities (IA, PA, and TA), noting their frequency. Content analysis was used for labeling (Clark et al., 2018). First, using weekly activity reports, two researchers independently classified each mentee's conversations with e-mentors on SNS as IA, PA, or TA and recorded the frequency. Afterward, they discussed their classification results to reach a consensus on all e-mentoring activities.

3.4.3. Demographics

Researchers collected demographic data, which included 10-digit students' IDs, gender, grades/year, and majors.

3.4.4. Students' educational background

In this study, we focused on whether students had programming experience (including block or text-based) in their educational backgrounds. An online survey was conducted at the start of the course using Google Forms to determine whether students had programming experience.

The following is why, among the students' educational backgrounds, we focused on programming experience rather than major. First, programming is known to be difficult for many undergraduate students (Ambrósio et al., 2011; Askar & Davenport, 2011; Hawi, 2010), and previous programming experience plays an important role in programming success (Bergersen & Gustafsson, 2011; Lau & Yuen, 2011; Jegede, 2009). Second, based on the demographics of the students, only approximately 10% (N = 33) majored in computer science, with the majority of students not majoring in computer science. Furthermore, approximately 40% (N = 131) of the students were freshmen who had just started college. Therefore, we determined that prior programming experience was the most important educational background factor given the nature of the course in which this study was conducted.

3.4.5. Data analysis

To determine the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT, the CT assessment scores of those in the mentoring group and those in the comparison group (not engaged in e-mentoring) were compared using an independent sample t-test. Additionally, multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine the influence of each e-mentoring activity conducted in a group and private environment on CT. Finally, we examined whether the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT differed by gender. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted for this purpose. Data were statistically analyzed using SPSS 26.0, and the alpha level was set at 0.05.

4. Results

4.1. Effects of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development

RQ1 was to explore potential differences between groups of students who have attended SNS-based e-mentoring and those who have not. As described in Table 6, descriptive statistics showed that the group of students who participated in e-mentoring acquired a mean CT score of 8.475 with 0.531 *SD*, while their counterparts acquired a mean value of 7.186 with 0.637 *SD*.

An independent *t*-test was conducted to identify whether the differences were significant. First, we examined the normality of the data distribution with skewness and kurtosis. As a multivariate normal distribution, all items satisfied the absolute values of skewness (< 3) and kurtosis (< 8) (Kline, 2005). The independent sample *t*-test

showed a significant difference in CT scores between the two groups of students. Levene's test did not assume homogeneity of variance (F = 4.689, p = .031); the t-value was 19.32, and the *p*-value was < .001.

Tuble 0. Wealls and	stanuaru ueviations	for the students CT sec	ne
	Ν	Mean	SD
Engaged in E-mentoring	189	8.475	0.531
Not engaged in E-mentoring	138	7.186	0.637

Table 6 Means and standard deviations for the students' CT score

4.2. Influences on CT by e-mentoring activity

RQ2 was to investigate how each e-mentoring activity affects students' CT. First, each e-mentoring activity was categorized based on the environment in which the interaction took place (group chat or private chat). Thus, six independent variables were considered. As depicted in Table 7, GI was found to be the most utilized activity among participants (M = 5.047, SD = 3.826), followed by PI (M = 3.968, SD = 4.034) and GT (M = 3.074, SD = 3.074, 2.508). In contrast, psychosocial activity showed relatively less utilization compared to other activities with GP (M = 0.021, SD = 0.144) and PP (M = 0.238, SD = 0.506).

Then, multiple linear regression was conducted to analyze the influence of each activity. Tolerance and VIF were assessed to exclude multicollinearity, and the values of all constructs were acceptable (Hair et al., 2010). The values of Durbin–Watson have an upper limit of four and a lower limit of zero (Niresh & Thirunavukkarasu, 2014). In addition, the data were found to be normally distributed (Kline, 2005).

As Table 8 shows, the result of multiple linear regression analysis, all variables were found to be statistically positive with the model explaining 50.7% of the variance in the CT. In addition, the model acquired an acceptable Durbin-Watson value (1.098), indicating that there were no independent errors caused by the residuals (Field, 2013). The three most influential determinants were GI ($\beta = 0.540$), PI ($\beta = 0.436$), and GT ($\beta =$ 0.244). In contrast, PP ($\beta = 0.119$), GP ($\beta = 0.127$), and PT ($\beta = 0.132$) were the three least influential determinants.

Table 7. Means and standard deviations for the utilization of e-mentoring activities

E-mentoring activity	Ν	Mean	SD
Group-Informational activity (GI)	189	5.047	3.826
Group-Psychosocial activity (GP)	189	0.021	0.144
Group-Technical activity (GT)	189	3.074	2.508
Private-Informational activity (PI)	189	3.968	4.034
Private-Psychosocial activity (PP)	189	0.238	0.506
Private-Technical activity (PT)	189	2.153	1.523

Table 8. Results of multiple linear regression							
Dependent	Independent	В	SE	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
variable	variable						
СТ	(Constant)	7.57	0.075		100.364***		
	GI	0.075	0.008	0.540	9.056^{***}	0.739	1.353
	GP	0.469	0.193	0.127	2.427^{*}	0.955	1.047
	GT	0.052	0.013	0.244	4.139***	0.755	1.324
	PI	0.058	0.008	0.436	7.281***	0.731	1.368
	PP	0.125	0.057	0.119	2.203^{*}	0.901	1.11
	РТ	0.046	0.019	0.132	2.48^{*}	0.923	1.084
$R(723) R^2(5)$	(22) adjusted R^2	507) $F(33.1)$	59) $n < 001$				

Note. *** *p* < .001, **p* < .05.

4.3. Gender differences regarding the effect of e-mentoring using SNS on CT

RQ3 aimed to determine whether the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT differs by gender. The researchers used a two-way ANOVA and two multiple linear regression analyses. First, participants in this study were classified into four groups according to their gender and whether they engaged in e-mentoring. Descriptive statistics showed that e-mentoring engaged males achieved the highest score on CT assessment (M = 8.545, SD =0.535), followed by e-mentoring engaged females (M = 8.421, SD = 0.524), not engaged males (M = 7.335, SD = 0.524)

0.598), and not engaged females (M = 6.948, SD = 0.632). The two groups with the highest CT scores were those who engaged in e-mentoring. Table 9 describes the results of the descriptive statistics.

	<i>Tuble 9.</i> Means and standard deviations for each group					
Gender	E-mentoring	N	Mean	SD		
Male	Engaged	82	8.545	0.535		
	Not engaged	85	7.335	0.598		
Female	Engaged	107	8.421	0.524		
	Not engaged	53	6.948	0.632		
	Total	327	7.931	0.572		

Table 9. Means and standard deviations for each group

Because there were two independent variables, a two-way ANOVA was performed to investigate the main and interaction effects on the dependent variables. The data were normally distributed according to Kline (2005). As demonstrated in Table 10, both participation in e-mentoring (p < .001) and gender p < .001) had a significant effect on students' CT. As depicted in Figure 5, an interaction effect was also observed between gender and participation in e-mentoring (p < .05).

Table 10. Result of two-way ANOVA								
Source	Type III sum	df	Mean square	F	Partial eta			
	of squares				squared			
Corrected model	137.997	3	45.999	143.789**	0.572			
Intercept	18717.22	1	18717.22	58508.462^{**}	0.995			
E-mentoring	137.96	1	137.96	431.252**	0.572			
Gender	5.031	1	5.031	15.728**	0.046			
E-mentoring * Gender	1.316	1	1.316	4.113*	0.013			
Error	103.33	323	0.32					
Total	20810.875	327						
Corrected total	241.327	326						
<i>Note.</i> $R^2 = .572$ (adjusted R^2	<i>Note</i> . $R^2 = .572$ (adjusted $R^2 = .568$). ** $p < .001$, * $p < .05$.							

Figure 5. Interaction effect plot of e-mentoring and gender Estimated Marginal Means of CT



Two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to determine whether the effect of each e-mentoring activity on CT differed by gender. First, we investigated whether the two sets of data were suitable for regression analysis. First, based on the Durbin–Watson value, both models showed no multicollinearity problems (Niresh & Thirunavukkarasu, 2014). Second, according to Kline (2005), the data were normally distributed.

Descriptive statistics showed that male students utilized informational activity through group chat the most (M = 7.817, SD = 3.916), followed by technological activity through group chat (M = 4.512, SD = 2.911). In contrast, female students mostly used informational activity through private chat (M = 6.514, SD = 3.673), followed by informational activity through group chat (M = 2.925, SD = 2.894). Table 11 demonstrates the results of the descriptive statistics.

As Table 12 indicates, the result of multiple linear regression analysis for male students, three variables were statistically positive with the model explaining 50.9% of the variance in the CT. The three influential determinants were GI ($\beta = 0.395$), PI ($\beta = 0.370$), and GT ($\beta = 0.180$). In the case of female students, the results of multiple linear regression analysis showed that all variables were statistically positive, except for GP. The model explained 56.9% of the variance in CT. The most influential determinant was PI ($\beta = 0.356$), followed by GI ($\beta = 0.339$), GT ($\beta = 0.272$), PP ($\beta = 0.189$), and PT ($\beta = 0.173$).

Gender	E-mentoring activity	N	Mean	SD
Male	GI	82	7.817	3.916
	GP	82	0.024	0.155
	GT	82	4.512	2.911
	PI	82	0.646	0.616
	PP	82	0.122	0.329
	PT	82	1.682	1.142
Female	GI	107	2.925	1.941
	GP	107	0.018	0.136
	GT	107	1.972	1.362
	PI	107	6.514	3.673
	PP	107	0.327	0.595
	PT	107	2.514	1.678

.

Table 11. Means and standard deviations for e-mentoring activity utilization of both genders

	Table 12. Results of multiple linear regression							
Dependent	Gender	Independent	В	SE	β	t	Tolerance	VIF
variable		variable						
СТ	Male	(Constant)	7.754	0.118		65.472***		
		GI	0.054	0.012	0.395	4.401^{***}	0.754	1.326
		GP	0.336	0.284	0.097	1.181	0.895	1.117
		GT	0.033	0.015	0.180	2.153^{*}	0.872	1.147
		PI	0.321	0.078	0.370	4.095***	0.745	1.342
		PP	-0.043	0.13	-0.026	-0.33	0.956	1.046
		РТ	0.006	0.037	0.012	0.159	0.994	1.006
	$R(.738), R^{2}($.545), adjusted	$R^{2}(.509), F$	r(14.968), p	<.001, Dur	bin-Watson =	1.042	
	Female	(Constant)	7.417	0.094		78.747***		
		GI	0.092	0.018	0.339	5.006^{***}	0.885	1.13
		GP	0.334	0.253	0.087	1.321	0.945	1.058
		GT	0.105	0.026	0.272	4.046^{***}	0.899	1.113
		PI	0.051	0.01	0.356	5.063***	0.823	1.215
		PP	0.167	0.059	0.189	2.849^{**}	0.921	1.085
		PT	0.054	0.021	0.173	2.625^{*}	0.933	1.071
	$R(.770), R^{2}($.593), adjusted	$R^{2}(.569), F$	(24.289), p	< .001, Dur	bin–Watson =	1.375	

Note. $^{***}p < .001$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{*}p < .05$.

4.4. Differences in the effect of e-mentoring via SNS on CT based on previous learning experience

RQ4 was to determine whether the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT differed according to previous programming experience. The researchers used two-way ANOVA. First, participants were classified into four groups according to their previous programming experience and whether they engaged in e-mentoring. Descriptive statistics showed that e-mentoring engaged students with programming experience achieved the highest score on CT assessment (M = 8.789, SD = 0.435), followed by e-mentoring engaged students with no programming experience (M = 8.259, SD = 0.484), not engaged students with programming experience (M = 7.634, SD = 0.347), and not engaged students with no programming experience (M = 6.569, SD = 0.612). The two groups with the highest CT scores were those who engaged in e-mentoring. Table 13 lists the results of the descriptive statistics.

Because there were two independent variables, a two-way ANOVA was performed to investigate the main and interaction effects on the dependent variables. The data were normally distributed according to Kline (2005). As shown in Table 14, both participation in e-mentoring (p < .001) and programming experience (p < .001) were found to have a significant effect on students' CT. An interaction effect was also observed between programming

experience and participation in e-mentoring (p < .05). Figure 6 shows the interaction effect plot of e-mentoring and programming experience.

Table 13. Means and standard deviations for each group						
Previous Learning Experience	E-mentoring	Ν	Mean	SD		
Have programming experience	Engaged	77	8.789	0.435		
	Not engaged	80	7.634	0.347		
No programming experience	Engaged	112	8.259	0.484		
	Not engaged	58	6.569	0.612		
	Total	327	7.931	0.572		

Table 13. Means and standard deviations for each group

Table 14. Result of Two-way ANOVA					
Source	Type III sum	df	Mean square	F	Partial eta
	of squares				squared
Corrected model	164.939a	3	54.98	198.113^{**}	0.648
Intercept	18972.083	1	18972.083	68363.756**	0.995
Programming experience	32.542	1	32.542	117.262**	0.266
E-mentoring	149.193	1	149.193	537.599**	0.625
E-mentoring * Programming experience	1.231	1	1.231	4.434^{*}	0.014
Error	89.638	323	0.278		
Total	20824.125	327			
Corrected total	254.577	326			
<i>Note</i> . $R^2 = .648$ (adjusted $R^2 = .645$). ** $p < .001$, * $p < .05$.					







5. Discussion

The independent sample *t*-test revealed a significant difference in students' CT scores depending on whether they participated in SNS-based e-mentoring. This result demonstrates the possibility of SNS-based e-mentoring. This result is consistent with the findings of previous studies. For example, Dlab et al. (2019) showed that utilizing an LMS as an e-mentoring environment is an efficient way of fostering participants' CT. However, an LMS cannot provide real-time interaction. As Grant et al. (2020) stressed, e-mentoring could be advantageous when mentormentee interaction occurs anytime and anyplace. In addition, Tsutsui and Takada (2018) applied a real-time SNS platform and showed that it is an effective interaction tool to develop CT for K–12 students, but the study was restricted only to small classes with five to seven students.

In this study, the e-mentoring method was used to assist students in developing CT during large online courses, and an SNS tool was introduced to facilitate quick interaction with them. Additionally, by concurrently facilitating group and individual interactions between mentors and mentees, students can utilize mentoring at

their convenience and inclination. It was found that SNS-based e-mentoring was helpful for students' CT development.

Mentees primarily engaged in informational activities, and this e-mentoring activity was most frequently used in both group and private environments. Informational activities also had the greatest influence on CT development. This result is in line with previous studies. In a study using e-mentoring in education, mentees required the most informational support (Cassiani, 2017). Additionally, as a result of analyzing the textual data from the discussion forums of the mentoring group, the only activity identified was informational (Cassiani et al., 2020).

Mentees' psychosocial activity utilization was low in both group interactions and the private environment. In this regard, Kaufman (2017) asserted that e-mentoring necessitates the ability to disclose and share emotions online, and psychosocial activity is difficult to achieve without these abilities. Psychosocial activity benefits role modeling, self-esteem, and learning motivation and has a positive effect on CT development (Lye & Koh, 2014; Gong et al., 2020). Therefore, it was determined that an e-mentoring program should be designed with this point in mind. To facilitate active psychosocial activity in e-mentoring, it is helpful to engage in a personal acquaintance process that includes introductions and searching for mutual interest (Shpigelman et al., 2009).

Gender gaps in CT education are an issue that has consistently been addressed (Angeli & Giannakos, 2020; Bati, 2022). Previous research has produced conflicting findings regarding whether there is a gender difference in CT ability. According to some research, males demonstrated greater CT ability than females, or females required more time to achieve the same level of CT ability (Atmatzidou & Demetriadis, 2016; Jenson & Droumeva, 2016). However, some studies assert that there is no gender difference in CT ability and that females demonstrate superior ability in certain elements of CT (Lee et al., 2017; Wu & Su, 2021). In this study, we found an interaction effect between gender and e-mentoring on students' CT. The mean difference in CT scores between males and females was greater in the group that did not engage in e-mentoring (mean values of male students = 7.335, mean values of female students = 6.948). However, as illustrated in Figure 5, the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on female students' CT development was greater. This finding implies that SNS-based e-mentoring can contribute to closing the gap in CT abilities between male and female students.

Female students appeared to benefit more from SNS-based e-mentoring because they engaged in various ementoring activities more frequently than male students. In particular, female students utilized the psychosocial activity of e-mentoring better than male students, which was consistent with previous research findings (Elliott et al., 2010) And this result is significant because psychosocial activities such as role modeling also contribute to the development of CT (Gong et al., 2020; Lye & Koh, 2014).

Among the various educational activities for developing CT, it is well known that students' prior programming experience has a significant impact on their learning success (Bergersen & Gustafsson, 2011; Jegede, 2009; Lau & Yuen, 2011). Similar to previous studies' findings, there was a statistically significant difference in students' CT scores based on prior learning experience (i.e., programming experience) in this study. It seems that programming is an activity that requires all of the CT elements (AB, GN, DC, AL, DB), and thus, students with programming experience encountered more CT elements.

This study discovered that students' prior learning experience and SNS-based e-mentoring had an interaction effect on their CT. In other words, the difference in CT based on prior learning experience narrowed when students participated in SNS-based e-mentoring. Based on this finding, it is suggested that introducing SNS-based e-mentoring can bridge the gap between students' prior learning experiences when running courses for students from various educational backgrounds, with the goal of developing CT.

6. Conclusion and implication

As CT has become an essential basic skill, several studies have been conducted on its development. The interaction between the instructor and the student is critical in the development of CT. Through interaction with the instructor, students can receive a variety of support, including explicit instruction and role modeling. However, instructors find it difficult to actively interact with individual students in large-scale online courses. Consequently, this study examined the effect of e-mentoring in a large-scale online course aimed at developing students' CT through the use of SNS, which is capable of real-time interaction.

An independent sample *t*-test and multiple linear regression analysis were performed based on the participants' CT assessment scores and the utilization data of e-mentoring activities. The analysis determined that SNS-based e-mentoring is effective in assisting undergraduate students' CT development during a large-scale online course. The most beneficial e-mentoring activities for students' CT development were informational and technical support in the group environment, as well as informational support in the private environment.

To investigate whether there were any gender differences regarding the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development, a two-way ANOVA analysis, and two multiple linear regression analyses were performed. It was found that the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring was higher for female students than for male students. Additionally, female students engaged in more types of e-mentoring activities than male students.

A two-way ANOVA was used to determine whether the effect of SNS-based e-mentoring on CT development differed depending on students' prior learning experiences. The analysis revealed that participation in SNS-based e-mentoring could narrow the CT gap based on prior learning experience.

Our findings have practical implications for higher education institutions and instructors. First, when planning a course for students' CT development in a large-scale online course, a method of utilizing SNS-based e-mentoring can be considered. Second, the method used in this study can be applied when developing strategies to close the gender gap or the gap in students' prior learning experiences in CT ability.

References

Angeli, C., & Giannakos, M. (2020). Computational thinking education: Issues and challenges. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 105, 106185. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2019.106185

Ambrósio, A. P., Costa, F. M., Almeida, L., Franco, A., & Macedo, J. (2011). Identifying cognitive abilities to improve CS1 outcome. In 2011 Frontiers in Education Conference (FIE) (pp. F3G-1). IEEE. https://doi.org/10.1109/FIE.2011.6142824

Askar, P., & Davenport, D. (2009). An Investigation of factors related to self-efficacy for Java Programming among engineering students. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 8(1), Article 3.

Atmatzidou, S., & Demetriadis, S. (2016). Advancing students' computational thinking skills through educational robotics: A Study on age and gender relevant differences. *Robotics and Autonomous Systems*, *75*, 661-670.

Aho, A. V. (2012). Computation and computational thinking. Computer Journal, 55, 832-835.

Angeli, C., Voogt, J., Fluck, A., Webb, M., Cox, M., Malyn-Smith, J., & Zagami, J. (2016). A K-6 computational thinking curriculum framework: Implications for teacher knowledge. *Educational Technology & Society*, 19(3), 47-57.

Bati, K. (2022). A Systematic literature review regarding computational thinking and programming in early childhood education. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27(2), 2059-2082.

Bergersen, G. R., & Gustafsson, J. E. (2011). Programming skill, knowledge, and working memory among professional software developers from an investment theory perspective. *Journal of individual Differences*, 32(4). https://doi.org/10.1027/1614-0001/a000052

Cassiani, C. M. (2017). A Peer e-mentoring employment program for youth with physical disabilities: What are the social supports that are needed and provided? (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Toronto, Canada.

Cassiani, C., Stinson, J., & Lindsay, S. (2020). E-mentoring for youth with physical disabilities preparing for employment: A Content analysis of support exchanged between participants of a mentored and non-mentored group. *Disability and Rehabilitation*, 42(14), 1963-1970.

Chong, J. Y., Ching, A. H., Renganathan, Y., Lim, W. Q., Toh, Y. P., Mason, S., & Krishna, L. K. (2020). Enhancing mentoring experiences through e-mentoring: a systematic scoping review of e-mentoring programs between 2000 and 2017. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 25(1), 195-226.

Clark, R., Kaw, A., Lou, Y., Scott, A., & Besterfield-Sacre, M. (2018). Evaluating blended and flipped instruction in numerical methods at multiple engineering schools. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *12*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2018.120111

Choi, S., Jang, Y., & Kim, H. (2022). A deep learning approach to imputation of dynamic pupil size data and prediction of ADHD. *International Journal on Artificial Intelligence Tools*. https://doi.org/10.1142/S0218213023500203

Czerkawski, B. (2015). Computational thinking in virtual learning environments. In *Proceedings of E-Learn: World Conference on E-Learning in Corporate, Government, Healthcare, and Higher Education 2015* (pp. 993-997). Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE).

Dahalan, N., Hassan, H., & Atan, H. (2012). Student engagement in online learning: Learners attitude toward e-mentoring. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 67, 464-475.

de Janasz, S. C., & Godshalk, V. M. (2013). The Role of e-mentoring in protégés' learning and satisfaction. Group & Organization Management, 38(6), 743-774.

Dlab, M. H., Hoić-Božić, N., Anđelić, M., & Botički, I. (2019). Digital games and tools for development of computational thinking in primary school. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on Management, Economics & Social Science-ICMESS* (pp. 1-7).

Drange, T., Sutherland, I., & Irons, A. (2015). Challenges of interaction in online teaching: A Case study. In *Proceedings of the International Conference on E-Technologies and Business on the Web* (pp. 35-42). The Society of Digital Information and Wireless Communications (SDIWC).

Du, Z., Fu, X., Zhao, C., Liu, Q., & Liu, T. (2013). Interactive and collaborative e-learning platform with integrated social software and learning management system. In W. Lu, G. Cai, W. Liu, & W. Xing (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 2012 International Conference on Information Technology and Software Engineering* (pp. 11-18). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-34531-9_2

Eby, L. T. D. T., Allen, T. D., Hoffman, B. J., Baranik, L. E., Sauer, J. B., Baldwin, S., Morrison, M. A., Kinkade, K. M., Maher, C. P., Curtis, S., & Evans, S. C. (2013). An Interdisciplinary meta-analysis of the potential antecedents, correlates, and consequences of protégé perceptions of mentoring. *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*(2), 441-476. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029279

Elliott, B. A., Dorscher, J., Wirta, A., & Hill, D. L. (2010). Staying connected: Native American women faculty members on experiencing success. *Academic Medicine*, 85(4), 675-679.

Field, A. (2013). Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics. Sage.

Gafni-Lachter, L., Niemeyer, L., Doyle, N., Norcross, J., & Jacobs, K. (2021). Equal peer e-mentoring for online graduate students: a case study and mediation model. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 29(5), 545-564.

Gong, D., Yang, H. H., & Cai, J. (2020). Exploring the key influencing factors on college students' computational thinking skills through flipped-classroom instruction. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 17(1), 1-13.

Grant, M. A., Bloom, G. A., & Lefebvre, J. S. (2020). Lessons learned: Coaches' perceptions of a pilot e-mentoring programme. *International Sport Coaching Journal*, 7(1), 22-30.

Hara, N., & Kling, R. (2001). Student distress in web-based distance education. Educause Quarterly, 24(3), 68-69.

Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A Global perspective* (Vol. 7). Pearson.

Hawi, N. (2010). Causal attributions of success and failure made by undergraduate students in an introductory-level computer programming course. *Computers & Education*, 54(4), 1127-1136.

Hsu, T. C., Chang, S. C., & Hung, Y. T. (2018). How to learn and how to teach computational thinking: Suggestions based on a review of the literature. *Computers & Education*, *126*, 296-310.

Jacobs, K., Doyle, N., & Ryan, C. (2015). The Nature, perception, and impact of e-mentoring on post-professional occupational therapy doctoral students. *Occupational therapy in health care*, 29(2), 201-213.

Jang, Y., Choi, S., & Kim, H. (2022a). Development and validation of an instrument to measure undergraduate students' attitudes toward the ethics of artificial intelligence (AT-EAI) and analysis of its difference by gender and experience of AI education. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27(8), 11635-11667.

Jang, Y., Choi, S., Jung, H., & Kim, H. (2022b). Practical early prediction of students' performance using machine learning and eXplainable AI. *Education and Information Technologies*, 27, 12855–1288. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-022-11120-6

Jegede, P. O. (2009). Predictors of java programming self-efficacy among engineering students in a Nigerian University. https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.0909.0074

Jenson, J., & Droumeva, M. (2016). Exploring media literacy and computational thinking: A Game maker curriculum study. *Electronic Journal of e-Learning*, *14*(2), 111-121.

Jocius, R., O'Byrne, W. I., Albert, J., Joshi, D., Robinson, R., & Andrews, A. (2021). Infusing computational thinking into STEM teaching. *Educational Technology & Society*, 24(4), 166-179.

Jung, H., Jang, Y., Kim, S., & Kim, H. (2022). KPCR: Knowledge graph enhanced personalized course recommendation. In *Proceedings of AI 2021: Advances in Artificial Intelligence: 34th Australasian Joint Conference, AI 2021* (pp. 739-750). Springer International Publishing.

Kahraman, M., & Abdullah, K. U. Z. U. (2016). E-mentoring for professional development of pre-service teachers: A Case study. *Turkish online journal of distance education*, *17*(3). https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.19973

Kaufman, M. (2017). E-mentoring. National Mentoring Resource Center.

Kline, T. J. (2005). Psychological testing: A Practical approach to design and evaluation. Sage Publications.

Kwame Boateng, J. (2020). Using SAKAI LMS for enhanced instructor-student interactions and effective student learning: Perceptions of students from the University of Ghana. *Ubiquitous Learning: An International Journal, 13*(4). https://doi.org/10.18848/1835-9795/CGP/v13i04/1-10

Lau, W. W., & Yuen, A. H. (2011). Modelling programming performance: Beyond the influence of learner characteristics. *Computers & Education*, 57(1), 1202-1213.

Lee, H. M., & Mehta, M. R. (2015). E-Mentoring through a network of practice on Facebook. International Journal of Knowledge-Based Organizations (IJKBO), 5(1), 34-45.

Lee, J., Jung, Y., & Park, H. (2017). Gender differences in computational thinking, creativity, and academic interest on elementary SW education. *Journal of The Korean Association of Information Education*, 21(4), 381-391.

Lee, K. S., & Kim, B. G. (2016). Cross space: The Exploration of SNS-based writing activities in a multimodal learning environment. *Educational Technology & Society*, 19(2), 57-76.

Li, J., Liu, J., Yuan, R., & Shadiev, R. (2022). The Influence of socially shared regulation on computational thinking performance in cooperative learning. *Educational Technology & Society*, 25(1), 48-60.

Lye, S. Y., & Koh, J. H. L. (2014). Review on teaching and learning of computational thinking through programming: What is next for K-12? *Computers in Human Behavior*, 41, 51-61.

Lyon, J. A., & J. Magana, A. (2020). Computational thinking in higher education: A Review of the literature. *Computer Applications in Engineering Education*, 28(5), 1174-1189.

Murairwa, S. (2015). Voluntary sampling design. International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences, 4(2), 185-200.

National Research Council. (2010). Committee for the workshops on computational thinking: Report of a workshop on the scope and nature of computational thinking. National Academy Press. https://doi.org/10.17226/12840

Niresh, A., & Thirunavukkarasu, V. (2014). Firm size and profitability: A Study of listed manufacturing firms in Sri Lanka. *International journal of business and management*, 9(4). https://ssrn.com/abstract=2422441

Popescu, E. (2014). Providing collaborative learning support with social media in an integrated environment. *World Wide Web*, 17, 199-212.

Risquez, A. (2008). E-mentoring: An Extended practice, an emerging discipline. In F. J. Garcia- Penalvo (Ed.), Advances in e-learning: Experiences and methodologies (pp. 61-82). Information Science Publishing.

Rowland, K. N. (2012). E-mentoring: An innovative twist to traditional mentoring. *Journal of technology management & innovation*, 7(1), 228-237.

Royal Society. (2012). Shut down or restart: The Way forward for computing in UK schools. http://royalsociety.org/education/policy/computing-in-schools/report/

Rutten, M., Ros, A., Kuijpers, M., & Kreijns, K. (2016). Usefulness of social network sites for adolescents' development of online career skills. *Educational Technology & Society*, 19(4), 140-150.

Selby, C. C. (2014). How can the teaching of programming be used to enhance computational thinking skills? (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southampton, Southampton, UK.

Shpigelman, C. N., Weiss, P. L. T., & Reiter, S. (2009). E-mentoring for all. Computers in Human Behavior, 25(4), 919-928.

Single, P. B., & Muller, C. B. (2001). When emailing and mentoring unite: The Implementation of a nationwide electronic monitoring program. In L. K. Stromei (Ed.), *Creating mentoring and coaching programs* (pp. 107-122). American Society for Training and Development.

Single, P. B., & Single, R. M. (2005). Mentoring and the technology revolution: How face-to-face mentoring sets the stage for e-mentoring. In F. K. Kochan, & J. T Pascarelli (Eds.), *Creating successful telementoring programs* (pp. 7-27). Information Age Press.

Son, J., Kim, J. D., Na, H. S., & Baik, D. K. (2016). A Social learning management system supporting feedback for incorrect answers based on social network services. Journal of *Educational Technology & Society*, 19(2), 245-257.

Sánchez, R. A., Cortijo, V., & Javed, U. (2014). Students' perceptions of Facebook for academic purposes. *Computers & Education*, 70, 138-149.

Tanis, H., & Barker, I. (2017). E-mentoring at a distance: An Approach to support professional development in workplaces. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 18(3), 135-155.

Thalheim, B. (2000). Fundamentals of entity-relationship modeling. Springer.

Tiit, E. M. (2021). Impact of voluntary sampling on estimates. Papers on Anthropology, 30(2), 9-13.

Tsutsui, K., & Takada, H. (2018). A Classroom SNS to promote reflective activity in programming learning for children. *Research and Practice in Technology Enhanced Learning*, 13(1), 1-18.

Weber, A. S. (2012). Considerations for social network site (SNS) use in education. International Journal of Digital Information and Wireless Communications, 2(4), 37-52.

Wing, J. (2006). Computational thinking. Communications of the ACM, 49(3), 33-36.

Wing, J. (2011). *Research notebook: Computational thinking—What and why? The Link Magazine, Spring*. Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh. http://link.cs.cmu.edu/article.php?a=600

Wu, S. Y., & Su, Y. S. (2021). Visual programming environments and computational thinking performance of fifth-and sixth-grade students. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 59(6), 1075-1092.