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**THE IMPACT OF THE INTEGRATION OF SHORT STORIES AND THE
COMPUTER-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING ON THE MOTIVATION
LEVEL OF STUDENTS**

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LEVEL OF STUDENTS**

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Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “The Impact of the Integration of Short Stories and the Computer-Assisted Language Learning on the Motivation Level of Students” adlı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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ABSTRACT

Language learning motivation which is considered as one of the fundamental affective factors in the process of language education tends to change in the course of language teaching and learning due to a number of factors. Of these factors, language teaching and learning materials are identified as one of the primary reasons for this change. Short stories and computer technologies serving as two of the most commonly used language teaching and learning materials are perceived to have tremendous effect on students' language motivation level. Although the use of short stories and computer technologies in language teaching and learning dates back to many decades ago, the incorporation of these two devices into each other in the process of language education is a rather new research area to be explored.

Grounding on the notions stated above, the present experimental study investigated the impact of the integration of short stories into computer technologies on students' second/foreign (L2) language motivation level. The study further explored effect of gender differences, frequency of computer use, computer self-efficacy perception and frequency of reading short English stories on the L2 motivation level of students.

The study was conducted with 65 first-year students studying at the ELT Department of Dicle University in Diyarbakır, Turkey. Since a "pretest-posttest control group" research design was employed in the study, the students were randomly assigned to the Experimental Group (N=35) and Control Group (N=30). After receiving their pretests (questionnaire adapted from Gardner's AMTB), the Experimental Group students carried out a two-month long study in which they read three short stories written by well-known authors and did a

variety of activities ascribed to the stories via computers, whereas the Control Group students did a number of activities via using traditional language teaching and learning materials. Completing the two-month long study, the groups were given the posttests (questionnaire and semi-structured interview).

The statistical analyses of the quantitative data (questionnaires) carried out by SPSS 17.0 yielded a significant difference between the groups on the posttest, revealing an increase in the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level whereas a decrease in the Control Group students' L2 motivation level. A comparison of the pretest and posttest data within the groups also showed significant differences in terms of L2 motivation level. That is, while the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students showed an increase on the posttest, the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students indicated a decrease on the posttest. The statistical analysis of the data also pointed out that the aforementioned factors had no significant effect on the L2 motivation level of the students except for computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest of the Experimental Group. The content analysis of the qualitative data (semi-structured interviews) also reported similar findings to the quantitative data, thus casting further light on the effectiveness of the trend in which short stories are integrated into computers.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the integration of short stories into computers had positive impacts on the motivation level of language students. Consequently, the use of the integration of short stories into computers in the process of language teaching and learning is considered to serve effectively as it provides authentic and multifaceted learning environments in which students feel encouraged and motivated.

KISA HİKAYE VE BİLGİSAYAR-DESTEKLİ DİL ÖĞRETİMİN BİRLİKTE KULLANILMASININ ÖĞRENCİLERİN MOTİVASYON DÜZEYİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

Adnan YILMAZ

ÖZET

Dil eğitiminde önemli faktörlerden biri olarak kabul edilen motivasyon, birçok sebepten dil öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinde değişim gösterme eğilimindedir. Öğretme ve öğrenme materyalleri bu değişime neden olan temel faktörlerden biri olarak görülmektedir. Dil öğretme ve öğrenme materyalleri olarak sıkça kullanılan kısa hikaye ve bilgisayar teknolojilerinin dil öğrenme motivasyonu üzerinde büyük bir etkiye sahip olduğu bilinmektedir. Kısa hikaye ve bilgisayarların dil öğretiminde ve öğreniminde kullanılması on yıllar öncesine uzanmasına rağmen, dil eğitimi sürecinde bu iki aracın birlikte kullanılması keşfedilmeyi bekleyen yeni bir alandır.

Yukarıda bahsedilen fikirlerden hareketle, bu deneysel çalışma kısa hikaye ve bilgisayar teknolojileri birleşiminin öğrencilerin ikinci/yabancı dil motivasyonu üzerindeki etkisini araştırmıştır. Çalışma aynı zamanda cinsiyet, internet kullanım sıklığı, bilgisayar özyeterliliği ve İngilizce kısa hikaye okuma sıklığının öğrencilerin ikinci dil motivasyonu üzerindeki etkisini incelemiştir.

Çalışmada, Türkiye'nin Diyarbakır ilinde bulunan Dicle Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında öğrenim gören 65 kişilik birinci sınıf öğrencileri yer almıştır. Çalışmada “ön test-son test kontrol grup” deseni kullanıldığından öğrenciler Deney (35) ve Kontrol (30) Gruplarına rastgele dağıtılmıştır. Gardner'in Ttüm/Motivasyon Anketinden uyarlanan ön-testler gruplara uygulandıktan sonra Deney Grubu öğrencileri iki ay süren bir uygulama kapsamında, dünyaca tanınan yazarlarca yazılmış üç klasik hikayeyi bilgisayarlar aracılığıyla okuyup ve yine bilgisayarlar aracılığıyla, bu hikayelere yönelik hazırlanmış çeşitli

aktiviteler yaptılar. Kontrol grubu öğrencileri ise geleneksel dil öğretme ve öğrenme materyallerinin kullanıldığı birtakım aktiviteler yaptılar. İki aylık bu uygulamadan sonra gruplara son-testler verildi.

SPSS 17.0 ile yapılan nicel verilerin istatistiksel analizleri (anketler) son-testte iki grup arasında anlamlı bir farklılığın olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Analizler, Deney Grubu öğrencilerinin ikinci dil motivasyonu düzeylerinde bir artış, Kontrol Grubu öğrencilerinin ikinci dil motivasyonu düzeylerinde ise bir düşüş olduğunu göstermiştir. Grupların ön-test ve son-testleri gruplar içinde karşılaştırıldığında da yine anlamlı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Deney Grubu öğrencilerinin motivasyon düzeyleri son-testte bir artış gösterirken Kontrol Grubu öğrencilerinin motivasyon düzeyleri bir düşüş göstermiştir. Verilerin istatistiksel analizleri yukarıda adı geçen faktörlerin - bilgisayar özyeterliliğinin Deney Grubu öğrencilerinin ön-test ile elde edilen ikinci dil motivasyon düzeyleri üzerindeki etkisi hariç - öğrencilerin ikinci dil motivasyon düzeyleri üzerinde anlamlı bir etkiye sahip olmadığına işaret etmiştir. Nitel verilerin içerik çözümleme analizi yöntemi kullanılarak yapılan analizleri de nicel verilerle elde edilen bulgulara benzer sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Elde edilen bulgular kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar teknolojileri ile birlikte kullanılmasını mümkün kılan bu tekniğin etkinliğine yönelik daha da çok ışık tutmuştur.

Nicel ve nitel verilerin analizleri, kısa hikaye ve bilgisayar birleşiminin öğrencilerin motivasyon düzeyleri üzerinde pozitif etkileri olduğunu göstermiştir. Dil öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinde kısa hikaye ve bilgisayarların birlikte kullanılması öğrencileri cesaretlendiren ve motive eden otantik ve çok yönlü öğrenme ortamları oluşturduğundan bu yöntemin dil eğitiminde kullanılması önemli faydalar sağlamaktadır.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT	i
ÖZET	iii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF ABBREVIATION	x
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Purpose and Significance of the Study	9
1.3 Hypotheses under Investigation	10
1.4 Assumptions of the Study	12
1.5 Limitations of the Study	13
1.6 Operational Definitions	13
1.7 Chapter Summary	15

CHAPTER II
A SHIFT FROM GENERAL THEORIES OF MOTIVATION TO SECOND/FOREIGN
LANGUAGE (L2) MOTIVATION

2.1	Introduction	16
2.2	Defining Motivation	18
2.3	Theories of Motivation	19
2.3.1	Behavioral Perspective of Motivation	20
2.3.2	Cognitive Perspective of Motivation	21
2.3.3	Constructivist Perspective of Motivation	23
2.4	Motivation in Second/Foreign (L2) Learning	28
2.5	Noted Models of L2 Motivation	29
2.5.1	Gardner’s Socio-Educational Model	29
2.5.2	Dörnyei’s Framework of FLL Motivation	34
2.5.3	Williams and Burden’s Social Constructivist Model of Motivation	39
2.6	Chapter Summary.....	42

CHAPTER III
L2 MOTIVATION IN RELATION TO LITERARY TEXTS AND CALL

3.1.	LITERARAY TEXTS FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF L2 MOTIVATION	43
3.1.1	Short Stories in Language Teaching and Learning	45
3.1.2	Benefits of Short Stories in Language Education	46
3.1.2.1	Cultural Enrichment	47
3.1.2.2	Valuable Authentic Materials	49
3.1.2.3	Language Proficiency Development	51

3.1.2.4 Drawing Learners' Attention and Motivating Students	53
3.1.3 Selection of Appropriate Short Stories	55
3.2 CALL FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF L2 MOTIVATION	58
3.2.1 Defining CALL	60
3.2.2 History of CALL	61
3.2.3 Benefits of CALL	65
3.2.3.1 Independent Practice and Individualized Learning	66
3.2.3.2 Interactivity	68
3.2.3.3 Familiarization with the Target Socio-cultural Context	69
3.2.3.4 Providing Immediate Feedback and Editing Work	70
3.2.3.5 Enriching Language Learning Materials	71
3.2.3.6 Developing Learner Autonomy	71
3.2.3.7 Improving Language Skills	73
3.3. Chapter Summary	76

CHAPTER IV METHODOLOGY

4.1 Objectives and Hypotheses	77
4.2 Design of the Study	79
4.3 Data Collection Tools	83
4.3.1 Rationale for Data Collection Tools	83
4.3.2 Questionnaire	87
4.3.3 Interview	89
4.4 Pilot Study	90

4.4.1 Objectives	90
4.4.2 Setting and Participants	90
4.4.3 Instruments	91
4.4.4 Procedures for Data Collection	93
4.4.5 Data Analysis	96
4.4.6 Findings and Conclusion	96
4.5 Main Study	97
4.5.1 Setting	97
4.5.2 Participants	98
4.5.3 Instruments	100
4.5.4 Materials	101
4.5.5 Activities Used	104
4.5.6 Sample Lesson	105
4.5.7 Data Collection Procedures	110
4.5.8 Data Analysis	113
4.6 Chapter Summary	115

CHAPTER V FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Analysis and Findings of the Study	116
5.2 Participants' Demographic Features in relation to Educational Background	117
5.3 Participants' Characteristics in relation to Computers	119
5.4 Participants' Characteristics in relation to Short Stories	123
5.5 Hypotheses under Investigation	126

5.5.1 A comparison of the Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest	126
5.5.2 A comparison of the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest	130
5.5.3 A comparison of the Control Group students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest	135
5.5.4 The impact of gender differences on L2 motivation level	136
5.5.5 The impact of the frequency of computer use on participants' L2 motivation level	141
5.5.6 The impact of computer self-efficacy perception on participants' L2 motivation level	148
5.5.7 The impact of the frequency of short story reading on participants' L2 motivation level	157
5.6 Further Explication: Interview Results	165
5.7 Chapter Summary	169

CHAPTER VI

CONSLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

6.1 Conclusion	170
6.2 Implications	173
6.3 Suggestions for Further Research	175
REFERENCES	177

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AMTB	Attitude and Motivation Test Battery
BASIC	Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code
CACD	Computer-Assisted Classroom Discussion
CAI	Computer-Assisted Instruction
CALI	Computer-Assisted Language Instruction
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CD	Compact Disc
CD-ROM	Compact Disc Read-Only Memory
CLEF	Computer-Assisted Learning Exercises for French
CMC	Computer-Mediated Communication
CSSIS	Computer and Short Story Integration Scale
DVD	Digital Versatile Disc
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
EMS	English Motivation Scale
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
PLATO	Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Steps Pursued in the Study	82
Table 4.2 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for EMS and CSSIS	97
Table 4.3 Demographic Information about Participants' Gender	98
Table 4.4 Demographic Information about Participants' Age	99
Table 4.5 Homogeneity of the Groups.....	111
Table 5.1 Participants' Demographic Features in relation Type of High School and Department	118
<i>5.2.1. A comparison of the Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest</i>	
Table 5.2 Independent Samples T-test Statistics of EMS between the Experimental Group and Control Group on the Pretest	126
Table 5.3 Independent Samples T-test Statistics of EMS between the Experimental Group and Control Group on the Posttest	127
<i>5.2.2. A comparison of the Experimental Group Students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest</i>	
Table 5.4 Paired Samples Statistics of EMS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Experimental Group	130
Table 5.5 Paired Samples Statistics of CSSIS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Experimental Group	133
<i>5.2.3. A comparison of the Control Group Students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest</i>	
Table 5.6 Paired Samples Statistics of EMS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Control Group	135

5.2.4. The Impact of Gender Differences on Participants' L2 motivation Level (EMS)

Table 5.7 Experimental group students' L2 motivation level in relation to gender differences on the pretest and posttest137

Table 5.8 Control group students' L2 motivation level in relation to gender differences on the pretest and posttest139

5.2.5. The Impact of the Frequency of Computer Use on Participants' L2 Motivation Level (EMS)

Table 5.9 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students at different response categories of computer usage frequency on the pretest and posttest142

Table 5.10 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest143

Table 5.11 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest143

Table 5.12 Mean Values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students at different response categories of computer usage frequency on the pretest and posttest145

Table 5.13 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest146

Table 5.14 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest147

5.2.6. The Impact of Computer Self-efficacy Perception on Participants' L2 Motivation Level (EMS)

Table 5.15 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest150

Table 5.16 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest151

Table 5.17 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest152

Table 5.18 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest154

Table 5.19 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest155

Table 5.20 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest156

5.2.7. The Impact of the Frequency of Short Story Reading on Participants' L2 Motivation Level (EMS)

Table 5.21 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students in relation to frequency of short story reading on the pretest and posttest158

Table 5.22 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest159

Table 5.23 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest160

Table 5.24: Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest162

Table 5.25 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest163

Table 5.26 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest164

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Typology of the Affective Domain	17
Figure 2.2 Ausubel's Needs Taxonomy of Motivation	22
Figure 2.3 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	24
Figure 2.4 Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation	36
Figure 2.5 Williams and Burden's Social Constructivist Model of Motivation	40
Figure 3.1 How to Select Short Stories	57
Figure 3.2 The History of CALL	63
Figure 3.3 The Benefits of CALL for Language Learners	66
Figure 4.1 Relation between Independent Variable and Dependent Variable	83
Figure 4.2 Graphic of the Three Major Research Paradigms, Including Subtypes of Mixed Methods Research	85
Figure 4.3 Features of Jing TM	94
Figure 4.4 A sample image taken from one of the participants' <i>Screencast</i> account	102
Figure 4.5 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the First Story Read (<i>A Dead Woman's Secret</i> by Guy de Maupassant) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group	104
Figure 4.6 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the Second Story Read (<i>Eveline</i> by <i>James Joyce</i>) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group	104
Figure 4.7 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the Third Story Read (<i>Hills like White Elephants</i> by <i>Ernest Hemingway</i>) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group	105
Figure 4.8 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the <i>brainstorming & previewing</i> activity	107
Figure 4.9 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the <i>predicting and previewing</i> activity	108
Figure 4.10 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the <i>scanning and describing</i> activity	109
Figure 4.11 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the <i>twisting</i> activity ...	110

Figure 5.1 Possessing a Computer Connected to the Internet at Home	119
Figure 5.2 Having a Social Networking Account	120
Figure 5.3 Frequency of Computer Use per Week	121
Figure 5.4 Computer Self-efficacy Perceptions	121
Figure 5.5 Participants' Past Experience of Computers in L2 Learning	122
Figure 5.6 Like/Dislike of Reading Short Stories	123
Figure 5.7 Frequency of Short Story Reading	124
Figure 5.8 Frequency of Short Story Use in Language Learning in Past	125

CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to present a brief introduction to the present experimental research study titled “The Impact of the Integration of Short Stories and Computers-Assisted Language Learning on the Motivation Level of Students”. It begins with providing a brief background of the study followed by the purpose of the study and the hypotheses to be investigated through the conduct of the study. Later, the significance of the study and limitations of it are explicated. In the final part of the chapter, the operational definitions in the study are provided.

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The study of language learning motivation has drawn robust attention in the last thirty years. A great number of studies conducted in this research domain have challenged many scholars and educators in order to draw a line between the concept of motivation and language learning (Gardner and Lambert 1972; Brown 1987; Oxford and Shearin 1994; Dörnyei 1994a, 1996a; Williams and Burden 1997). These studies helped to determine a clear connection between motivation and language learning. In that sense, Williams and Burden note that:

“The learning of a foreign language involves far more than simply learning skills, or a system of rules or grammar; it involves an alteration in self image, the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of being, and therefore has a significant impact on the social nature of the learner.” (1999: 115).

They further add that language is a phenomenon that pertains to the identity and social personality of individuals and is used for interaction with other members of the society. In line with Williams and Burden, Brown (2007: 1) contends that learning a second language (L2) is a much longer and more complex undertaking because your whole person is influenced as you endeavor to go beyond the boundaries of “your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting”.

As the definitions above suggest, learning a language other than your first language is a far more complex process, for it is affected by many internal and external factors. “motivation” is one of these major internal factors that has tremendous impact on the language learning process, and various studies have been carried out in order to underline the strong relation between language learning and motivation (Brown 1973; Gardner, 1972,1985; Dörnyei 1994b, 1996). Following Gardner’s (1985: 19 cited in Noels 2001) definition, second/foreign language (L2) motivation can be regarded as a complex of constructs, incorporating “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language”. Noels (2001), thus, maintain that it is convenient to consider the objective of language learning as providing various orientations for the amount of energy and desire exerted, and these aspects are generally associated with having positive impact on second language learning. Of these orientations, two of them have attracted the most empirical attention: integrative and instrumental. Gardner and Lambert (1959 and 1972) note that the integrative orientation refers to the motive and desire to learn a language in order to interact with, and perhaps to identify with, members of the L2 society, whereas the instrumental orientation accounts for the reasons behind L2 learning that pertains to practical goals such as attaining an academic objective or job achievement. Gardner and Lambert also contend that since it is concerned with positive attitudes towards the L2 community, the integrative orientation is a much better predictor of eventual proficiency than the instrumental orientation in the long run. However, there are some studies that suggest contradictory results related to these two orientations in that these studies indicate that the instrumental orientation is an equivalent or better predictor of success than the integrative orientation (Chihara and Oller 1978; Gardner and Lambert 1972; Lukmani 1972; Oller, Hudson and Liu 1977).

In line with Gardner and Lambert, Gass and Selinker (2008: 426) assert that similar to all learning situations, it is quite clear that some degree of motivation is required in initial decisions to learn another language and maintain learning. They further add that numerous studies concerned with language learning indicate that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success. In order to shed further light on the concept, namely language learning motivation, it is also quite important to discuss two other major subtitles of motivation, which occupy a significant place in the L2 learning process: *intrinsic motivation* and *extrinsic motivation*. Ryan's (1995 cited in Noels 2001) interpretation of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation indicates that it is reasonable to consider these constructs as orientations because Ryan points out that the subtypes of motivation represent the motivational orientation but not necessarily the level or amount of motivation, which is consistent with Gardner's (1985) definition of orientations. Intrinsic orientation refers to the rationale behind L2 learning that stems from learners' inherent pleasure and interest in the activity; in other words, the activity is undertaken because of the spontaneous satisfaction associated with it (Noels 2001). In contrast, Deci and Ryan (2000) state that not all activities are adequately novel, stimulating, or aesthetically pleasing to be intrinsically motivating, for there are some reasons that are instrumental to some consequence apart from inherent interest in the activity, thus indicating extrinsic orientation. In fact, it is rather difficult to draw a precise line between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in order to distinguish between them because the majority of our actions are formed or influenced by the combination of the both (Deci 1975).

As the orientations of motivation - integrative-instrumental and intrinsic-extrinsic-reveal, L2 learning motivation is influenced by various factors including learners' goals; individual differences; significant others such as language instructors, family members, members of the L2 community, peers, administrators (Noels 2001); language learning context (Gardner and Clement 1990; Williams and Burden 1997), language learning materials (Cunningsworth 1987), and so fort. Of these factors, language learning materials occupy centrality in the present study, inasmuch as the type and variety of language learning materials used in the process of L2 learning has considerable influence on L2 learning motivation. In that aspect, Cunningsworth (1987: 59) point out that motivation can be improved considerably by using appropriate materials which enable learners to achieve the goals predetermined. He further adds:

“We should look for materials that has variety and pace, is of genuine interest to the learners and contains learning activities that will appeal to them. Activities which encourage personal involvement tend to increase motivation.”
(63)

Regarding this point of view, the present study focused on the integration of short stories into computers (used as synonymous with Computer-Assisted Language Learning in the present study), and the impact of this integration on the motivation level of the students.

With the introduction of computer facilities into the education system, traditional language teaching and learning techniques have increasingly been enhanced or even replaced by methods and techniques that depend on technology to a great extent. Particularly with the advent of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) in the 1960s and the invention of personal computers towards the end of the 1970s, the importance and benefits of computers in second/foreign (L2) language learning and teaching have increased tremendously. Besides, the advances in Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and especially the Internet over the last two decades have been changing the ways how people learn, study, teach and work (European Commission 2002: 5). As a result of all these changes and developments in computer technologies, both teachers and learners considerably benefit from using computers in language teaching and learning. In that respect, it is noted that while computer technologies enable teachers to address to various learning styles and facilitates effective and efficient instruction through assisting learners in almost every activity in the process of teaching, it also promotes learners' motivation, diminishes pressure and fear, and augments social development of learners (Şahin and Yıldırım 1999; Akkoyunlu 2002; Demirel 2002; Yalın 2004; Koç 2005 cited in Topkaya 2010: 1).

Thanks to computer technology - particularly CALL and the Internet in the present study - and the facilities it provides, language teachers now have more to offer learners in the process of language learning. Davies (2002) notes that after the invention of personal computers towards the 1970s and their rapid increase of use in language education helped CALL gain a significant ground and broaden its field in the 1980s. Now, through the application of CALL in language teaching and learning teachers have more opportunities

to offer language skills in various forms (Price 1987: 155), which indicates that learners can process knowledge of language via different channels simultaneously.

It is obvious that CALL has a fundamental role in L2 learning and teaching. Accordingly, Kavcic et al. (2006: 95 cited in Kayaoğlu, Akbaş and Öztürk 2011: 1) suggests that CALL has three different roles in L2 learning and teaching:

- a tutor (e.g. to deliver instructional materials to learners)
- a stimulus (e.g. to stimulate discussion, writing, or critical thinking)
- a tool (e.g. to act out as word processors, spelling and grammar checkers, and concordances)

Apart from these primary reasons and roles stated above, Baş and Kuzu (2009) contend that CALL contribute to the language learning and teaching process in different aspects, and they list some of them as “experiential learning, motivation, enhancement of student achievement, authentic materials for study, greater instruction, individualization, independence from single source of information and global understanding”(para.8).

A large number of studies have proved that the application of CALL has a positive effect on the language proficiency and achievement level of learners (Lai and Kristonis 2006: 1). Promoting learners’ motivation and self-esteem, providing experiential learning, enhancing specific language skills such as reading, writing and vocabulary learning are some major contributions of the application of CALL in L2 classrooms (Lee 2000; Hamerstorm *et al.* 1985; Dunkel 1990; Al-Jarf 2004; Chun and Plass 1996; Tozcu and Coady 2004; Liu 1994 cited in Topkaya 2010: 2). It is also noted that the use of CALL in L2 settings enables learners to get prepared for today’s information society since via the authentic tasks such as keeping electronic portfolios, writing e-mails, conducting on-line chats, doing online research can help them acquire both the L2 and the use of computers (Wang 2005), hence fostering not only intrinsic but also extrinsic L2 learning motivation.

Similar to computer technologies, literary texts (referring to short stories in the present study) have a considerable effect on L2 learning motivation. In fact, the use of literary texts in L2 learning and teaching dates back to over one century ago, and since then there has been significant transformation in the association of these two distinct areas

(Durant 1993; Delanoy 1997; Edmondson 1997). In the beginning, under the influence of Structuralism, a great deal of attention was attached to the use of literary texts in L2 teaching because it was believed that literary texts were the sole best means of language teaching. In that aspect, Erkaya (2005) notes that English literature was considered as synonymous with the teaching the English language since a special status was given to literature in learning the English language. It was thought that literary texts served as the sources of high moral value and the perfect models of correct language usage that highlights the significance of the use of them in the target language. Delanoy (1997) and Carroli (2002) assert that under these circumstances, literature was utilized as a body of knowledge or a subject matter that surpassed the language syllabus and not as an integral or an embedded component of language learning. Nevertheless, with the advent of the Functional Approach and the introduction of the Communicative Approach, literature started to lose its popularity and dominance in L2 learning and teaching (Delonay 1997). Widdowson (1982) writes that since linguistics became the focal point of language programmes, the centrality and prominence of literature in the process of L2 education faded. Moreover, the advocators of these two movements believe that the application of literary texts in L2 learning and teaching is a long way from meeting the needs of learners because literary texts fall short of assisting learners in using the L2 effectively and communicatively in real-life situations.

In the 1970s and 1980s, with the improvements in Applied Linguistics and Literary Theory, literature started to gain popularity in L2 learning and teaching again. Delanoy (1997) states that the developments in stylistics and discourse analysis in the area of Applied Linguistics has revealed a new move that indicates the need to use language learning materials that presents emotionally motivating and intellectually stimulating experience for language learners. In that respect, literary texts have been singled out as prominent means of achieving the kind of experience identified by this particular move.

Another fundamental reason that contributed to the renewed interest in the use of literature in L2 learning and teaching is the notion that focused on the reader and the interaction between the reader and the text. Through the Reader Response Criticism, there has been a shift in the way how literary texts are viewed in language learning and teaching in that literary texts were no longer perceived as models for excellent language usage but

rather a milieu for aesthetic reading where readers could interact with the literary texts read by bringing in their own experiences to produce their own interpretations of the text. In that aspect, Kramersch (1993: 130) maintains that literary texts, not necessarily all of them, appeal to learners' emotions, grab their interest and stay in their memories, and thus they may attain a deeper understanding of the target culture, which results in better appreciation of literature. He further adds that ignoring the target culture or interpreting cultural issues from the perspective of the native culture may cause misleading when learners read the literary works of the target language, thus inducing demotivation in the process of L2 learning.

Widdowson (1975 cited in Lazar 1993) states that the use of literary texts in L2 learning and teaching expands learners' language awareness, and therefore plays an important role in fostering L2 learning motivation. He further adds that asking learners to examine sophisticated or non-standard examples of language that are used in the literary texts makes them more aware of how the L2 is used. Similarly, Brumfit and Carter (1986) postulate that literary texts serve as the mere context where a variety of language forms can be mixed but still admitted. They also maintain that since literary texts, in particular short stories, make use of authentic contexts and real language, they offer an experience of exploring language through interacting with the text, hence cultivating motivation and stimulation in the L2 learning process. In line with Widdowson, Povey (1972: 18) contends that literature not only improves all language skills but it also augments linguistic and vocabulary knowledge of learners.

In the light of all these benefits that literary texts provide, literary genres, particularly short stories, have attracted tremendous interest amongst curriculum planners, syllabus and material designers as well as practitioners in the areas of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) worldwide (Cook 1994; Lazar 1999; Collie and Slater 2001; Carroli 2002). Consequently, many current English language programs such as those in the United States (Langer, 1991), United Kingdom (McRae 1991), Turkey (Erkaya 2005), Japan (Norris 1994), Australia (Carolli 2002), Taiwan (Carlisle 2000) and Singapore have incorporated literature into their language curricular.

The notion of using computer technologies and literature in L2 learning has advanced tremendously in recent years, and therefore it is inevitable for computer technologies not to influence the way how literature is used in language classrooms. The approaches pertaining to the use of literature in the L2 learning process have undergone a dramatic change which favors the integration of literary texts into the computer technologies for the sake of L2 learning and teaching. In other words, the current trends of using literature and computer technologies in L2 learning process uphold the incorporation of these two language learning and teaching mediums. In a very recent example, Yeh (2005) describes a new way in which PowerPoint and on-line video were incorporated into a poetry lesson as well as in learners' assignments after the lesson, which aims at stimulating learners and fostering their L2 motivation.

Electronic media and electronic means of communication such as Instant Messaging (IM) programmes (AOL Instant Messenger, ICQ, MSN Messenger, Yahoo! Messenger) also serve effectively in order to design language activities or tasks that enable the incorporation of literary texts into computer technologies. In that respect, it is stated that teachers have used e-mail to arrange written discussions between learners residing in different countries but reading the same piece of literary text (Jackstädt and Müller-Hartmann 2001) or between language learning classes and their L1 counterparts living in another country (Meskill and Ranglova 2000). Another study conducted by Schulte (2006) reveals how a fully elaborated procedure, the Webquest (www.webquest.org), can effectively assist language learning through an engagement with literature and motivate learners in the process of L2 learning and teaching.

Briefly, computer technologies and literature and thus the integration of literature into computer technologies have a prominent impact on learners' L2 motivation. In order to respond to the rapid changes and demands in L2 learning and teaching properly, the need for applying literary texts in language classrooms effectively is increasing sharply. For this reason, the approaches to the application of literary texts in language classrooms entail renewal. In that aspect, computer technologies serve quite effectively to fulfill this gap in that they enable language teachers to arrange different and various activities that appeal to the interests of learners, hence enhancing L2 motivation. Besides, there is not much research in literature pertaining to the incorporation of literary texts into computer

technologies and the impact of this integration L2 motivation. Therefore, this study aims to bridge this gap in the literature by focusing on the integration of literary text into computer technologies and the impact of this integration on the motivation level of learners.

1.2. PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The present experimental study aims at investigating and providing an insight about the impact of the integration of short stories into computer technologies on the motivation level of students. In the last thirty years, a great number of studies have been conducted in order to shed light on the role of motivation, an internal factor affecting learning, in L2 learning and teaching. Of these studies focusing on the significance of the language learning materials in L2 motivation, a large number of them indicated that computer technologies (referring to CALL in the present study) and literary texts (considered synonymous with short stories in the present study) have been singled out as two of the most effective language learning devices among the vast array of language learning materials. Various studies have been carried out in order to provide data about the effectiveness and importance of these language learning mediums; however, the majority of these studies focused on these two language learning devices separately, hence revealing a lack of research in literature – both in the world and Turkey - concerned with the integration of these two mediums and the impact of this integration on L2 learning motivation. In that aspect, this study makes a crucial and unique contribution to the research area of the incorporation of these two devices and the effect of this integration on the L2 motivation.

The data obtained from this study will also help researchers to understand the interrelationship between motivation and the incorporation of literary texts into computer technologies. Besides, the study will provide a clear picture of how the motivational level of learners differs according to their gender, frequency of the Internet use, perception of computer self-efficacy, and frequency of short story reading.

Last but not least, this experimental research study is significant because the data obtained from this study will be useful for English language teachers in that the findings of

the study will give ideas to the teachers about learners' motivation and will help them by presenting some specific information about how to integrate literary texts into computer technologies in language classrooms.

1.3. HYPOTHESES UNDER INVESTIGATION

The present experimental study aims to achieve the aforementioned purposes by addressing the following hypotheses:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of experimental and control groups.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of experimental and control groups.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level of the experimental group students between the mean scores on the pretest and the posttest.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level of the control group students between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest.

H₀₅: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the experimental group.

H₀₆: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the experimental group.

H₀₇: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the control group.

H₀₈: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the control group.

H₀₉: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer frequency use in the experimental group.

H₀10: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer frequency use in the experimental group.

H₀11: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer frequency use in the control group.

H₀12: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer frequency use in the control group.

H₀13: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer self-efficacy in the experimental group.

H₀14: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer self-efficacy in the experimental group.

H₀15: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer self-efficacy in the control group.

H₀16: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the computer self-efficacy in the control group.

H₀17: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the short story reading frequency in the experimental group.

H₀18: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the short story reading frequency in the experimental group.

H₀19: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the short story reading frequency in the control group.

H₀₂₀: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the subgroups of the short story reading frequency in the control group.

1.4. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study, it was assumed that the students studying at Dicle University within the English Language Teaching Department of Ziya Gökalp Faculty of Education have positive attitudes towards learning foreign language, and thus the integration of short stories into computers would augment their second/foreign language (L2) motivation level. It was also assumed that the participants' L2 motivation level would not change when compared across the variables that might interfere with L2 motivation level in general (namely gender differences, frequency of computer use, computer self-efficacy perceptions, and frequency of short story reading), hence casting further light on the treatment applied in the study.

In order to collect data for the present experimental study, two different instruments (questionnaire and interview) which enabled the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data were employed. Consequently, it was assumed that using diverse data types would contribute to the richness and reliability of the results obtained. It was also supposed that the participants would answer the interview questions and questionnaire items honestly and sincerely.

Besides, it was anticipated that the ELT Department would serve as a convenient research setting as the teacher-training programme pursued in the department included an Advanced Reading and Writing Course, which allowed the application of a variety of reading, writing and speaking activities for research objectives, hence creating a comfortable and relaxing setting for the students.

1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This experimental study has some limitations concerning the target participants because it was limited to 65 first-year university students (n Experimental: 35 and n Control: 30). Besides, since the target group was first-year students studying at Dicle University within the English Language Teaching Department of Ziya Gökalp Faculty of Education, the findings may not be generalized to all the students studying English in different parts of Turkey.

Apart from that, students' language proficiency level, past experiences of computer use and short story reading might influence their motivation level related to the integration of literary texts into computer technologies. Consequently, the data obtained from the study might not be generalized to all the students studying English.

The present study made use of two primary data collection instruments, namely the questionnaire and interview, in order to overcome the limitations induced by qualitative and quantitative data collection tools. However, methodological triangulation technique which entails the use of more than two data collection tools could be employed to help in validating diverse viewpoints or standpoints that cast light on the social phenomenon.

1.6. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The following terminologies are the important expressions used throughout the present study:

Second/Foreign Language (L2): The term second or foreign language accounts for the study of a language other than the one which is the learner's first language or mother tongue.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): The generic term English as a Foreign Language refers to learning English in a non-English-speaking environment where English is not commonly used as a language of education, business, or government (Brown 2007: 381 and

Ellis 1996: 215), and it is most commonly done within the context of the classroom (Gass and Selinker 2008: 7).

English as a Second Language (ESL): English as a Second Language is a generic term primarily used to describe people who learn English in an English-speaking environment (Ellis 1996: 215) like German speakers learning Japanese in Japan or Punjabi speakers learning English in the UK (Gass and Selinker 2008: 7).

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL): Computer-assisted language learning is defined as a research field that explores the use of computer-based methods and techniques in addition to new media for language learning and teaching (Gamper and Knapp 2002). Another definition suggested by Levy (1997) describes CALL as the search for and study of the utilization of computers technologies in language learning and teaching.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT): ICT is defined as “the combination of informatics technology with other, related technologies, specifically communication technology” (UNESCO, 2002, p. 13).

English Motivation Scale (EMS): It is used to refer to the questionnaire which was applied in the pretest and posttest of the study in order to measure and compare the participants’ mean scores of L2 motivation level.

Computer and Short Story Integration Scale (CSSIS): CSSIS refers to the questionnaire used in the pretest and posttest of the study in order to collect data concerned with the Experimental Group students’ L2 motivation level which was assumed to be affected by the integration of short stories into computers in the process of L2 learning.

Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB): The AMTB was developed Gardner and his associates over a period of more-than-20-year research primarily directed to the investigation of English-speaking students learning French as a second language. The AMTB has been utilized in a variety of forms, that is the original composition of the major concepts in addition to original items were devised by Gardner (1958; 1960 cited in Gardner 1985) and extended by Gardner and Lambert (1972 cited in Gardner 1985).

1.7. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, some basic literature on L2 learning motivation and the impact of the integration of short stories into computers on learners' motivation level was presented. The purpose and significance of the study, the hypotheses, assumptions and limitations of the study were discussed. The chapter ended with the operational definitions used in the study.

CHAPTER II

A SHIFT FROM GENERAL THEORIES OF MOTIVATION TO SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE (L2) MOTIVATION

In this chapter, the literature related to general theories of motivation will be reviewed with reference to behaviorist, cognitivist and constructivist perspectives. Concerning these theories, a remarkable distinction of motivation identified as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation will be presented. Following these points, literature concerned with the concept of motivation will be reviewed from an aspect of second/foreign language learning. In that respect, Gardner's socio-educational model, Dörnyei's framework of motivation in foreign language learning and Williams and Burden's social constructivist model of second/foreign language motivation will be explicated.

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In recent centuries, human psychology has gained a significant role in the field of education. The characteristics of human psychology, the internal and external factors that influence the psychology of learners and other issues concerned have drawn robust attention in the learning process, for it has become clear that learning is a far more intricate phenomenon than it is expected.

Williams and Burden (1997) assert that the concept of learning has a tight relationship with the personality factors since they form learners' identities which have tremendous impact on the process of education. In that respect, Brown (2007: 152), considering the issue in a perspective of language learning and teaching, notes that if the theories of second/foreign language (L2) acquisition or teaching methodologies were solely

grounded on cognitive domain, then the most paramount side of human behavior, namely *affectivity* or *affective domain*, would be omitted. Brown further states that in the field of L2 learning, affect or affective domain refers to humans' emotions or feelings which characterize their behaviours, and it may also be considered to juxtapose to the cognitive side of behaviours to some extent. However, it does not mean that the effective side of humans is totally in opposition with cognitive side, since when both are used together, the learning process can be built on much firmer and better foundations (Arnold 1999: I).

In line with Brown, Hilgard (1963) affirms this fact by stating “purely cognitive theories of learning will be rejected unless a role is assigned to affectivity” (267 cited in Brown 2007: 152). Consequently, it is evident that there are a large number of effective variables implied to have great impact on the emotional side of human behaviours in the L2 learning process (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1 Typology of the Affective Domain (Based on the categorization of Brown's Affective Factors in Second Language Acquisition 2007: 152-186)



Of these variables suggested in the figure, scientists and researchers have suggested a common finding as one of the central psychological factors that affects education: *motivation*. Bernard, Mills, Swenson and Walsh note that “Motivation has been a robust and fertile area of theory and research throughout the history of psychology.” (2005: 130). Various studies have been conducted in order to highlight the importance of motivation in education.

Brown (2007: 168) contends that since motivation is considered as a complex and multi-faceted construct, broad claims can gloss over a comprehensive understanding of what motivation exactly is, what the present motivational paradigms are and how motivation is created, fostered and maintained.

2.2. DEFINING MOTIVATION

Even though “motivation” is a term that is frequently used in both educational and research contexts, the definition of motivation has been a matter of discussion for many years. The term might appear very simple and easy, but in reality it is very hard to provide a single and precise definition as to what the term motivation is all about; hence, it has been defined in various forms by different scholars and researchers in the field of education.

Gardner (2001) defines motivation as an internal drive influenced by internal and external orientations that represent motives for learners to feel encouraged and energized to learn something. In line with Gardner, Franken (1994) emphasizes that motivation is the energy and emotional drive to achieve a goal or goals. He further points out the interrelationship between these terms by noting the significance of the arousal, direction, and persistence of behaviour and the internal state or condition that activates behaviour and gives it direction. Likewise, Williams and Burden (1997) summarizes motivation as:

“a state of cognitive and emotional arousals, which leads to a conscious decision to act, and which gives rise to period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort, in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)” (120).

Tolman (1959) states that motivation is a product that stems from the strength of the expectancy of a goal and the value attributed to that particular goal by learners. Similarly, Rogers (1986) and Pintrich and Schunk (1996) affirm that motivation is a force that energizes, sustains, and directs behavioural patterns toward a particular goal.

In the same vein, Brown (1987) asserts that: “Motivation is an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action” (114). Dry (1977: 190) points out that motivation is “a function of the self-image” which characterizes learners’ assessments - encompassing conscious and unconscious beliefs that vary in time - of their own aptitudes and capacity of their real and potential connection with society at any level of proximity to and remoteness from themselves.

All the definitions suggested by those researchers and scholars make it clear that their definition of motivation is influenced by some, not necessarily one, particular schools of thought, namely behaviorism, cognitivism and constructivism (Brown 2007). In the following part, the theories of motivation are presented with regard to these schools of thought.

2.3. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Over the course of time, a great number of researches and studies related to motivation have been carried out, and these researches and studies shed light on different theories of motivation with a reference to certain schools of thought. In the present study, the classification of motivation is presented with regards to behaviorist, cognitive and constructive perspectives (Brown 2007: 168).

2.3.1. Behavioral Perspective of Motivation

The behavioral perspective of motivation is grounded on B. F. Skinner's behavioral learning theories, and motivation is perceived in very factual terms. In their theories, Skinner, Pavlov and Thorndike present motivation as the primary factor that pushes learners towards a particular behavior. Motivation is considered to derive from the anticipation of an extrinsic reward that reinforces the repetition and retention of the favored behavior/behaviors.

Brown (2007) states that encouraged to obtain positive reinforcement and encouraged by former experiences of reward for behavior, learners tend to act in the desired way and acquire the reinforcement. Accordingly, in his "Law of Effect" (1911 cited in Bernard, Mills, Swenson and Walsh 2005: 131-132), Thorndike notes that behaviors succeeded by a satisfying state or reward are more likely to be repeated; in contrary, behaviors followed by an unpleasant state or punishment are less likely to be repeated, indicating that the environment/external factors have a causal and crucial role in motivation. Brown further adds that in the domain of behavioural motivation, learners' performance in tasks is substantially influenced by external factors including parents, peers, educational requirements, job specifications, and so forth that constitute the basis for motivation.

Bernard et al. (2005) postulate that in the behavioural perspective of motivation, the overall principles through which environment forms and leads behaviors, including the instinctual ones, were demonstrated, and according to these principles, motivation is conceived as an automatic and reflexive process that satisfies the basic needs of organisms, and is shaped by environmental results. They further add that these principles work out when applied to animal behaviors; however, they result in failure when applied to rational and conscious behaviors; hence, the rational and conscious processes of behaviors are banned and reinterpreted as solely behavior in behavioural perspective of motivation. This approach is criticized and regarded descriptive rather than explanatory by Holt (1931 cited in Bernard et al. 2005), and it does not satisfy the majority of the psychologists who examine conscious processes. Accordingly, Neilsen and Day (2000) and Tinbergen (1951 cited in Bernard et al. 2005) affirm that the behavioural domain of motivation is rather

mechanic, and the interest in the cognitive processes challenges this domain. Consequently, motivation demands a new aspect that differs from the behavioral perspective of it in order to explain motivation in a superior and broader way.

2.3.2. Cognitive Perspective of Motivation

The cognitive view of motivation is concerned with individuals' decisions; in other words, it places emphasis on why people determine to act or behave in a certain way. Bernard et al. (2005) point out that in the cognitive view of motivation, individuals are regarded as "conscious, rational (i.e., thinking, processing) agent, able to operate less reflexively and more symbolically on the basis of expectations, plans, and goals." As a result, they maintain that in the cognitive vantage, motivation results from a more rational and purposeful process than it is in the behavioural view, indicating the integration of conscious processes into the study of motivation where they are noted to have significant impacts on human behaviours.

Ames and Ames (1989) assert that motivation serves people as a predictor to constitute intentions and goal-seeking acts. In line with Ames and Ames, Keller (1983 cited in Brown 2007: 168-169) makes a point that the cognitive perspective of motivation is closely related to people's resolutions which are characterized as the choices they make about what experiences or aims they will select or abstain from, and the amount of effort they will exert in that respect.

Likewise, Williams and Burden (1997: 119) suggest that in the cognitive school of thought, motivation is considered to be grounded on people's decisions pertaining to their own behaviours and actions rather than to be shaped and directed by external factors over which they have no control.

In cognitive terms, another paramount approach to motivation is to contemplate human behavior as stimulated by the urge to satisfy needs. In that respect, Brown (2007) asserts that some cognitive psychologists point out the underlying needs or motives as the governing impact on individuals' decisions. For instance, Ausubel (1968: 368-369 cited in

Brown 2007: 169) posited six primary needs shaping the construct of motivation (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Ausubel's Needs Taxonomy of Motivation (1968: 368-369 adapted from Brown 2007: 169)



All of the needs in Figure 2.2 are concerned with some basic requirements that individuals feel to be satisfied or fulfilled. Brown (2007: 169) defines each of these types as: (a) *The need for exploration* is related to individuals' desire or need to see "the other side of the mountain" in order to investigate the unknown. (b) *The need for manipulation* centers on individuals' aspiration for operating on the environment and causing change. (c) *The need for activity* pertains to individuals' movement and exercise, both physical and mental. (d) *The need for stimulation* is concerned with the environment, other people, ideas, thoughts, and feelings surrounding individuals. (d) *The need for knowledge* is grounded on individuals' requirement to process the results of exploration, manipulation, activity and stimulation to overcome contradictions, to seek for solutions to problems and for self-consistent systems of knowledge. (e) *The need for ego enhancement* is about the self to be known and to be accepted and approved of by others.

Similarly, in another interpretation of the cognitive perspective of motivation, Eggen and Kauchak (2002) explain it from the aspect of learning as centering on learners' needs for order, predictability, and understanding. They further maintain that learners tend to be naturally motivated when they recognize that their previous experiences contradict with their present understanding or when they confront regularities in information that are not introduced yet by their background knowledge.

2.3.3. Constructive Perspective of Motivation

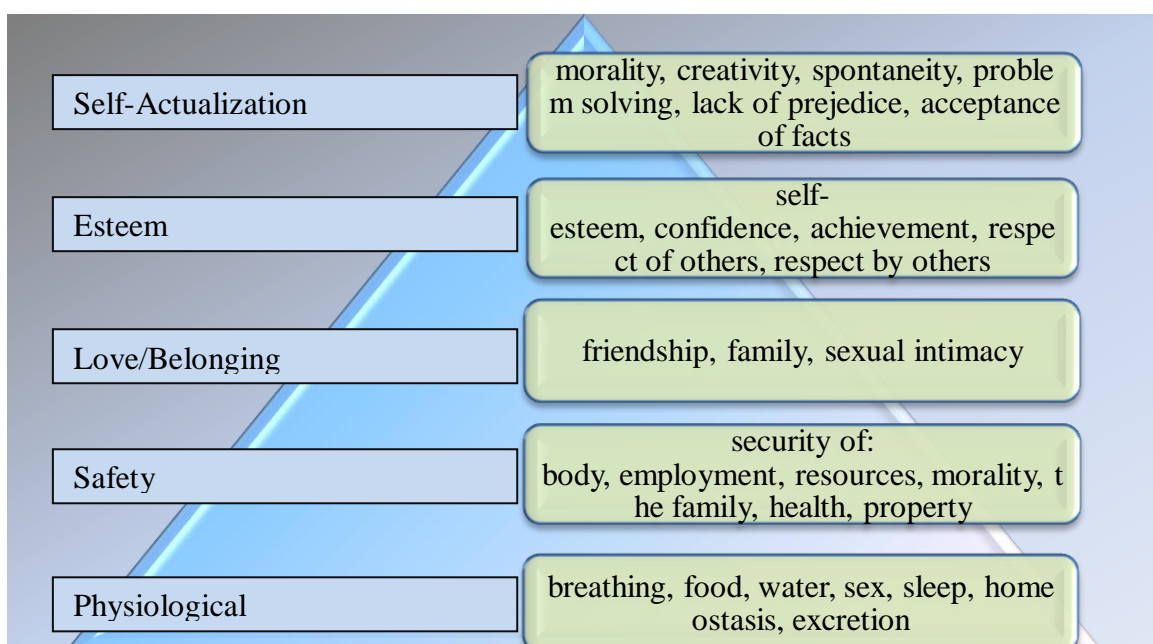
The constructivist view of motivation goes beyond the first two perspectives in that it places further emphasis on social context as well as individual personal choices (Williams and Burden 1997: 120). Brown (2007) asserts that although every individual is motivated differently from each other, and therefore interact with their environment in particular ways, it is impossible to separate their acts from the social and cultural context within which they occur.

Maslow (1970), unlike behaviourists, advocates the notion that human psychology cannot be fully understood by merely conducting experiments with animals, and therefore puts emphasis on human potential for self-actualization. In that respect, he established the theory of a hierarchy of needs (see Figure 2.3), which indicates that human beings feel motivated and encouraged by unsatisfied needs, and that these needs follow a pattern in which the satisfaction of lower needs is a prerequisite for the higher needs.

According to Maslow's pyramid, the specified needs are tightly related to each other in that one cannot feel motivated by any higher-level needs as long as their lower-level needs have been satisfied (Maslow 1965). The pyramid of needs starts with the motivation triggered by the fundamental survival needs at the base (oxygen, food, sleep, sex, and so on), and gradually moves to the motivation for more complex needs like protection and security, and then to the motivation for love, belonging, self-esteem, and finally self-actualization where individuals access to their full potential (Maslow 1970). Maslow further adds that although many people strive hard for it and may even get close, nobody has obtained full self-actualization which means building a thorough understanding of

oneself (a sense of completeness) and of being the best person one could possibly be. Motivation triggered by these needs is considered to stem from not only one's own 'self-determination' but also the way in which individuals interact within various social circumstances (Brown 2007: 169). Brown further maintains that three of the needs in the pyramid are "solidly grounded in community, belonging and social status", indicating a constructivist perspective of motivation.

Figure 2.3 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Retrieved June 15, 2011 from <http://en.wikipedia.org/>)



In line with Maslow and Brown, Greeno, Collins, and Resnick (1996) and Wentzel (1999) contend that individuals' innate needs to build, strengthen and sustain interpersonal relations such as the desire to belong to and participate in a social group or community indicate the consideration of motivation from a social constructivist perspective. In that sense, Liu, Toprac and Yuen (2009) further add that in classroom settings, the social group consists of friends and classmates, and motivational basis for learners are the mutual process of valuing this social group and the development of their identities within the group. In other words, learners feel an urge to be part of a social group or community where they cultivate self-esteem and obtain esteem from their peers via participation in that

particular group or community (Bandura 1986; Hickey 2003; Maslow 1955; Ryan and Deci 2000 cited in Liu, Toprac and Yuen 2009: 186).

In a perspective of language learning, Alptekin (1993) notes that it is impossible for language to function independently if there are no social contexts to fit it in; thus, the social contexts that surround individuals are very important in order to encourage and motivate them to learn the target language. Kramsch (2001: 12 cited in Lamb 2004: 4) notes that learning a language distinguishes from learning other subjects like math or science, inasmuch as it encompasses “social, historical, emotional, cultural, and moral sense of self as a subject”. Consequently, although learners may or may not feel exclusively motivated to get engaged in an activity or task on their own, they have the potential to feel more motivated and encouraged when they are required to work cooperatively for the success of the group.

Related to the three views of motivation explained above, there are two significant types of motivation that need to be examined: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Motivation encompasses the basic psychological reasons for an individual's actions and behaviours in that there are various factors that stimulate a person to act a certain way or to behave in the manner that they do. Deci and Ryan (2000: 54) assert that literature on motivation reveals that motivation is not “a unitary phenomenon” since people not only have different amounts of motivation but they also have different types of motivation, namely *intrinsic and extrinsic*. Deci and Ryan further explain that people “vary not only in *level* of motivation (i.e., how much motivation), but also in the *orientation* of that motivation (i.e., what type of motivation). Orientation of motivation concerns the underlying attitudes and goals that give rise to action — that is, it concerns the *why* of actions”. In that respect, Brown (2007: 172) notes that the most powerful, though argued, aspect of the whole motivation construct in general is the degree to which learners are intrinsically or extrinsically motivated to accomplish a task.

Edward Deci (1975: 23 cited in Brown 2007: 172) defines *intrinsic motivation* as :

“Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. ... intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences, namely, feelings of competence and self-determination.”

Intrinsic motivation is related to the pleasure and satisfaction that individuals derive from what they do. Accordingly, Ryhan and Deci (2000) contend that intrinsic motivation pertains to the fulfillment of an activity for its inherent satisfactions rather than for some extraneous reasons. They further add that when learners are intrinsically motivated, they are encouraged to act for the fun and challenge required rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards. Vallerand (1997) suggests three primary subtypes of intrinsic motivation which can be classified as:

- to learn (getting engaged in an activity for the pleasure and satisfaction of building the understanding of something new)
- to achieve (getting engaged in an activity for the satisfaction of overcoming challenges and achieving or creating something)
- to experience stimulation (getting engaged in an activity to experience pleasant sensations)

On the other hand, *extrinsic motivation* is a construct that refers to the preferences of learners to engage in an activity not for the pleasure or satisfaction they get from the activity itself but for the anticipation of some separable outcomes such as a reward from outside and beyond the self (Ryhan and Deci 2000; Brown 2007; Sansone and Harackiewicz 2000). Brown (2007: 172) further notes that typical extraneous rewards are money, prizes, grades, certain types of positive feedback, even the behaviours performed merely to avoid punishment.

Deci and Ryhan (2000: 61-62) and Dörnyei (1994: 276 and 2001: 28) present four subtypes of extrinsic motivation as:

1. **Extraneous Regulation:** It is concerned with the least self-determined form of extrinsic motivation that involves actions whose locus of initiation is external to the person, such rewards and threats (e.g. lecturers' praises or parental confrontations).
2. **Introjected Regulation:** It encompasses the externally imposed rules which individuals accept as norms force them to behave (e.g. rules against playing truant).
3. **Identified Regulation:** It refers to the regulatory process that individuals identify with and accept seeing its effectiveness (e.g. learning a language for the necessity of striving for one's hobbies or interests) .
4. **Integrated Regulation:** It is the most developmentally advanced form of motivation and incorporates regulations that are totally assimilated with individuals' other values, needs and identities (e.g. learning a language since its proficiency level is perceived as a part of an educated cosmopolitan culture that one has adjusted to).

A comparison of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation by different scholars (i.e. Dörnyei 2001a, 2001b, 1998; Brown 1990; Wu 2003; Slavin 2000; Gardner and Lambert 1985) suggests that intrinsic motivation is superior to extrinsic motivation. Slavin (2000) asserts that when learners pursue activities for their intrinsic satisfaction and interests, it is probable that they get and remain satisfied and enjoyed by them. Nonetheless, Slavin further maintains that when learners concentrate on the separable outcomes like rewards, they are likely to have decreased motivation to engage in the task and cultivate negative feelings.

Some of the early researches indicate that intrinsic motivation is of great importance in formal learning settings than extrinsic motivation (Gardner 1985), and they have also revealed that higher intrinsic motivation is tightly related to higher success at formal learning settings and psychological adaptation of learners in such environments (Ellis 1997). Ellis (1997) and Crookes and Schmidt (1991) state that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are both extremely important for success; however, it is intrinsic motivation which has been found to maintain long-term success when learning something, particularly language. In line with Ellis and Crookes and Schmidt, Jerome Bruner (1966b cited in Brown 2007: 174) contends that one of the most influential ways to help both children and adults think and learn is to release them from the control of rewards and punishments which are considered as the fundamental weaknesses of extrinsic motivation because of their addictive nature. Brown

(2007: 174) further adds that since individuals feel captivated by the charm of extraneous rewards like prize and praise, their dependency on such rewards increases to such a degree that they might even lose their desire and encouragement to learn once these rewards are withdrawn. For instance, a study carried out by Ramage (1990 cited in Brown 2007) indicates that foreign language high school students who were interested in continuing their study after the college entrance exam were positively and intrinsically motivated; on the contrary, those whose primary goal was merely to fulfill entrance requirements showed low motivation and weaker performance.

2.4. MOTIVATION IN SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE (L2) LEARNING

The question of why people learn or fail to learn a second/foreign language (L2) effectively has been an issue of concern for several scholarly quarters over the past decades (McGroarty, 2001), and it still draws a great deal of attention from the many parties who are involved in the profession, including researchers, curriculum developers, teacher trainers, and teachers themselves. Bearing this question in mind, a great role has been attributed to the concept of “motivation” since motivation is considered to represent one of the most appealing, yet complex, variables used to account for individual differences in L2 learning and to act as one of the primary determinants of L2 learning achievement (MacIntyre 2001: 462; Dörnyei 1994: 273). In that aspect, students’ L2 motivation has been a major concern of research and discussion as it has been concluded to lie at the heart of effective and efficient L2 teaching and learning.

Keeping these notions at the back of our minds, it is postulated that a threat-free and supportive learning environment is an essential element in order to create an atmosphere of warmth, safety, acceptance and genuineness which facilitates motivating language learning settings that enable effective L2 learning (Boyle 2000; Rogers 1983). It is further maintained that in such learning environments, students become more self-initiated, self-confident, self-directed, and less anxious (Rogers 1983), which provides a comfortable and motivating L2 learning process facilitating more positive and fruitful learning outcomes (Sorensen and Christophel 1992; Banfield, Richmond and McCroskey 2006).

Consequently, in the last five decades a considerable amount of research has been carried out in order to shed light on the role of motivation in L2 teaching and learning processes. Although much of this research has been initiated and inspired in Canada by two psychologists, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (Dörnyei 1994), who, together with their associates, grounded motivation research in a social psychological framework, the concept of motivation has been addressed from a wide variety of angles and perspectives and has undergone significant changes in relation to both approaches and findings over the course of time. In the following part, the major models of motivation will be presented with reference to such scholars as Robert C. Gardner, Zoltan Dörnyei and Marion Williams and Robert L. Burden.

2.5. NOTED MODELS OF L2 MOTIVATION

2.5.1. Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

The socio-educational model of motivation was closely linked with studies carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1985), in which learners' attitudes towards the target language were considered significant and language learning was viewed to occur in particular cultural contexts. In this respect, Gardner and Lambert viewed L2 as a device mediating between different ethno linguistic communities and consequently considered the motivation to learn another language as a basic force promoting or hindering inter-cultural communication and affiliation. They stress a psychological approach of L2 motivation grounded on the tenet that learners' success is influenced to some extent by their attitudes toward the target language community or communities in general as well as by the beliefs in the community which are relevant to the language learning process (Gardner 1985: 176; Dörnyei 1995).

Gardner (1985), in his socio-educational model, identified a number of factors which are perceived to be interrelated when learning an L2. In this respect, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: 9) argue that the model indicates the importance of what takes place in the learning contexts: "Teachers, instructional aids, curricula, and the like clearly have an effect on what is learned and how students react to the experience." Besides, unlike other research

studies carried out in the area (Schumann 1986; Deci and Ryan 1985; Crookes and Schmidt 1991; Oxford and Shearin 1994), Gardner's model concentrates specifically on second language acquisition in a structured classroom setting rather than a natural environment. The model also attempts to interrelate four basic features of second language acquisition (SLA), which include the *social and cultural milieu*, *individual learner differences*, the *setting or context* in which learning occurs, and *linguistic outcomes* (Gardner 1985; Norris-Holt 2001).

Putting emphasis on the vigorous relationship between these four features and thus their importance in L2 learning, Gardner (1985), later on, pointed out another outstanding relationship in his socio-educational model of motivation. He highlighted the correlation between attitude/motivation and proficiency in language learning; consequently, he and his associates developed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) in order to measure this relationship. Moreover, a great number research studies have shown that attitudinal and motivational variables are related to how well individuals learn L2 in a classroom situation (Clement et al. 1994; Dörnyei 1994; Gardner 1985 cited in Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner 2001). Much of the research related to the role of attitudes and motivation in L2 learning has investigated these variables through utilizing the AMTB (Gardner 1985).

The majority of subtest in the AMTB incorporates three primary concepts: *Motivation*, *Integrativeness*, and *Attitudes toward the Learning Situation* (Masgoret, Bernaus, and Gardner 2001). These components are described and explained by Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner as:

Motivation is defined as the combination of learners' attitudes, aspirations, and effort in relation to learning the target language, and its subtests measuring it include three subscales: (1) the Attitudes towards Learning the Language, (2) the Desire to Learn the Language and (3) Motivational Intensity. *Integrativeness* refers to learners' willingness and interest in social interaction with members of other groups and is assessed using three subscales: Degree of Integrative Orientation, Attitudes Toward the Target Language Group, and the Interest in Foreign Languages. The third and final component, *Attitudes toward the Learning Situation*, reflects learners' reaction to formal instruction and involves two measures: evaluation of the Instructor and evaluation of the Language Course. Some other additional variables such Language Anxiety, Degree of Instrumental Orientation, and

Parental Encouragement are also included in the AMTB based on the scope of the study and the research questions under investigation.

The socio-educational model initiated by Gardner occupied the centre of the discussions pertaining to L2 motivation for about thirty years (Gardner 1985, 1988; Gardner and McIntyre 1993a; Tremblay and Gardner 1995). Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that one of the reasons for the central position of the model in related discussions may have been the relatively little research being conducted on motivation in L2 learning. However, many researchers in the field eventually came to question the universality of the model since it concentrated on sociologically influenced motivation (Oxford and Shearin 1994), which was conceived to better suit linguistically and politically to the situation in Canada where social integrativeness was perceived as a national goal (Dörnyei 1990). As a result, many scholars (Dörnyei 1994, 1996; Oxford and Shearin 1994) attempted to enlarge and develop the socio-educational model further or to investigate the concept on a basis that specifically focused on educational environment in which teachers can easily motivate their students.

In his socio-educational model of motivation, Gardner also highlights the significance of language learning objectives and suggests the term *orientation* in order to address the rationale behind learners' L2 learning process. Following the theories related to children's L1 acquisition suggested by Mowrer (1950 cited in Dörnyei 1996), Gardner and Lambert posit two types of motivational orientation, namely "*instrumental*" and "*integrative*". The former is associated with the potential pragmatic gains of L2 proficiency such as getting a better job, promotion, or a higher salary; in contrast, the latter is related to a positive disposition towards the L2 community and the desire to become involved in social interchange with the target culture of the L2 group and integrate into that group. Oxford and Shearin (1994) contend that such a difference may play an important role in language learners' real-life experiences since motivation tend to change over the course of time.

Gardner (1985) also makes a distinction between two important terms in his L2 motivation model: *motivation* and *motivational orientation*. Oxford and Shearin (1994) define these terms as: motivational orientation refers the aims of learning an L2 whereas motivation reflects the impetus to obtain these goals.

Instrumental and Integrative Orientations

Second/foreign language (L2) learning motivation investigates the rationale behind why individuals learn a second/foreign language, and concerning this very term Gardner and Lambert (1972 cited in Brown 2000: 162) conducted one of the best-known and most significant studies of motivation in the field of second language learning. Over a period of 12 years, they extensively studied foreign language learners in Canada, several parts of the United States, and the Philippines in order to determine how the attitudinal and motivational factors influence their language learning success. The study suggested various responses to the question of why individuals learn a second/foreign language: to get a well-paid job, to promote at a higher position, to be able to travel abroad, to get familiar with other societies, and so forth (Gardner 1985 cited in Brown 2000: 162). Concerning these responses, Gardner and Lambert identified a typology of motivation which has been the starting point for a large number of studies carried out into motivation in the L2 learning context: instrumental and integrative orientations.

Lambert (1974: 98) defines integrative motivation as “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group”. As for instrumental motivation, he describes it as: ‘the practical value and advantages of learning a new language’. Gardner and Lambert (1972) point out the distinction between these two terms as:

“The orientation is said to be instrumental in form if the purposes of language study reflect the more utilitarian value of linguistic achievement, such as getting ahead in one’s occupation. In contrast, the orientation is integrative if the student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community, he is interested in it in an open-minded way to the point eventually of being accepted as a member of that group” (3).

In line with Gardner and Lambert, Figoni and Levin (2009: 149-150) assert that the instrumental side of the dichotomy refers to acquiring a language in order to attain some instrumental and practical goals such as furthering a career, studying in the country where the target language is spoken, getting a better job, and so forth. On the contrary, the integrative side is primarily concerned with learners who wish to build a better understanding of the target language culture, integrate themselves into the culture of the L2

group, get involved in social interchange in that group, build friendships with the speakers of L2, and so on (Oxford and Shearin 1994: 12-28).

As for the difference between these two terms, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 48) note that the integrative motivation stems from a desire on the part of learners to be members of the community that use the target language; hence, it is obvious that the integrative motivation is an internally generated willingness rather than an externally imposed need. On the other hand, Hutchinson and Waters further add that since instrumental motivation is the reflection of external needs, learners do not learn the target language just because they want to, but rather because they need.

Instrumental and integrative motivation are both crucial elements of success; nevertheless, it is integrative motivation which has been found to be of great importance in language learning since it maintains long-term success while learning another language (Taylor, Meynard and Rheault 1977; Ellis 1997; Crookes et al. 1991 cited in Norris-Holt 2001). Ellis (1997) further adds that in some of the early studies conducted by Gardner and Lambert, integrative motivation indicated more importance than instrumental motivation in formal learning environments. The studies carried out later have revealed the same results as well; however, now the significance of instrumental motivation in language learning is also emphasized (Norris-Holt 2001). Norris-Holt maintains that generally students suggest instrumental reasons rather than integrative reasons for the study of another language; nonetheless, those who do uphold an integrative approach to language learning usually show higher motivation and overall success in language learning.

In general, integrative motivation has been noted to overwhelm instrumental motivation with regard to its long-term benefits in language education; however, there are situations in which instrumental motivation can prove to be more successful. For instance, instrumental motivation is considered to be more advantageous and beneficial in situations where students have no opportunity to use the target language and hence no chance to interact with members of the target group. Accordingly, in a study carried out with Marathi-speaking Indian students learning English in India, Lukmani (1972 cited in Brown 2007: 171) found that the students with instrumental orientations scored higher in test of English proficiency, indicating that instrumental motivation is more important than integrative

motivation. In line with Lukmani, Braj Kachru (1992, 1977 cited in Brown 2000, 2007) contends that in India, where English has become an international language, L2 learners of English can successfully acquire Indian English for instrumental aims alone.

As a concluding remark, Brown (2000, 2007) makes the point that the results of empirical investigations related to motivation do not necessarily invalidate the integrative-instrumental construct, but rather indicates that learners prefer a combination of both orientations instead of selecting one form of these orientations when learning an L2. He further adds that international students who reside in the United States learn English not only for their endeavor to obtain academic success but also for their desire to become integrated with the people and culture of the country.

As is indicated in the orientations suggested by Gardner, motivation is obviously a significant prerequisite for L2 achievement; hence, determining the type and combination of motivation that assist learners in the process of successful L2 acquisition is important. Considering this notion, it is evident that Gardner's socio-educational model of L2 motivation and the test he and his associates developed, the AMTB, are the milestones in the research area pertaining to language motivation. Consequently, the data collection tools of the present experimental study will be grounded on the AMTB and will be elaborated in the methodology section of the study.

In recent decades, a considerable amount of research has been carried out in order to shed further light on the concept of language motivation. One of the marked theories devised in the research agenda belongs to Zoltan Dörnyei. The next part will review Dörnyei's framework of motivation in language learning.

2.5.2. Dörnyei's Framework of FLL Motivation

Gardner's socio-educational model of L2 motivation dominated the research agenda pertaining to language motivation for decades despite being challenged over the years. However, in the early 1990s, a remarkable shift appeared in thought related to L2 motivation since in various parts of the world the researchers and scholars in the field tried

to reopen the agenda in order to cast new and further light on the concept (Dörnyei 1994). Brown (2007) and Dörnyei (1994, 1998) postulate that this renewed study of interest has led to an enhancement in both empirical research and theorizing motives on motivation, inducing the adoption and interrelationship of a variety of novel scientific terms and concepts that raised confusion about L2 motivation.

The basic problem with Gardner's social psychological approach appeared to be that it was considered too influential (Dörnyei 1994: 273), and therefore alternative concepts concerned with L2 motivation were not taken into consideration seriously (Crookes and Schmidt 1991). Crookes and Schmidt further claim that motivation is a far more complex concept and cannot be explained via a one-shot questionnaire since motivation tends to change due to several environmental factors in addition to the concept of integrativeness proposed by Gardner. Likewise, Dörnyei adds that the importance of Gardner's socio-educational model of L2 motivation is unanimously acknowledged; nonetheless, there was a need for a more pragmatic education-centered view of L2 motivation in order to make it "consistent with the perceptions of practising teachers" and "the current results of mainstream educational psychological research" (173).

Among those who criticized Gardner's L2 motivation model and suggested some new ideas and additional parts to it, Dörnyei (1994) shaped his own model of L2 motivation, and defined motivation as:

"Motivation provides the basic impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; indeed, all the other factors involved in L2 acquisition presuppose motivation to some extent..... Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricula and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. On the other hand, high motivation can make up for considerable deficiencies in one's language aptitude and learning conditions." (1998: 117).

Dörnyei (1994: 279) further maintains that L2 motivation is an "eclectic, multifaceted construct"; consequently, he suggests three different levels in L2 motivation, which allow the inclusion of both motivational orientations and specific situation that involves learners and the surrounding context. Adopting Crookes and Schmidt's approach

(1991), Dörnyei (1994) identifies these levels as: (a) *the Language Level*, (b) *the Learner Level* and (c) *the Learning Situation Level* (see Figure 2.4).

Figure 2.4 Components of Foreign Language Learning Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994: 280)

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational Subsystem Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for Achievement Self-Confidence *Language Use Anxiety *Perceived L2 Competence *Casual Attributions *Self-efficacy
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL	
<i>Course-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction
<i>Teacher-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Affiliative Drive Authority Type Direct Socialization of Motivation *Modeling *Task Presentation *Feedback
<i>Group-Specific Motivational Components</i>	Goal-orientedness Norm & Reward System Group Cohesion Classroom Goal Structure

The Language Level is considered as the most general layer of the construct, where the focus is on orientations and motives concerned with different aspects of the target language, including “the culture it conveys, the community it is spoken in, and the potential usefulness of proficiency in it.” (Dörnyei 1994: 279). Dörnyei further adds that similar to Gardnerian approach, it also involves two broad subsystems of motivation, *integrative* and *instrumental orientations* encompassing loosely-related, context-dependent motives. The former reflects learners’ L2-related affective predispositions centered around social, cultural, and ethnolinguistic elements of the target language as well as learners’

interest in foreign languages and foreign people. However, the latter refers to extrinsic motives that underlie learners' expectations and endeavors related to their future career plans (Dörnyei 1994).

The Learner level forms the second layer of the construct and refers to fairly stable individual characteristic traits shaped by the complex structure of affects and cognitions pertaining to learners (Dörnyei 1994). Two significant motivational components are identified at this level: *need for achievement* and *self-confidence*. Oxford and Shearin (1994) describe *need for achievement* as a personality feature which does exist in every part of learners' lives and therefore is brought to the language learning environment as well. The second component, self-confidence, which reflects learners' belief in their ability to achieve a given task further classifies into four categories, namely *anxiety*, *perceived L2 competence*, *attributions about past experiences*, and *self-efficacy*.

The learning situation level, which is the final layer of the construct, consists of intrinsic and extrinsic motives as well as three areas which focus on specific motivational components concerned with the course, the teacher, and the group of language learners with which learners interact (Root 1999). Dörnyei (1994) describes these components as:

“1) Course-specific motivational components are related to the syllabus, the teaching materials, the teaching method, and the learning tasks. These are best described by the framework of four motivational conditions proposed by Crookes and Schmidt: interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. 2) Teacher-specific motivational components include the affiliative drive to please the teacher, authority type, and direct socialization of student motivation (modeling, task presentation, and feedback). 3) Group-specific motivational components are made up of four main components: goal-orientedness, norm and reward system, group cohesion, and classroom goal structure.” (280).

The subsequent studies carried out by Dörnyei (2001) together with Otto (1998) added new terms to the area of motivation in SLA and EFL. They together proposed a language motivation theory named “*The Process Model of Second Language Motivation*”. In this model, language learning motivation is defined as “a dynamic factor that displays continuous fluctuation,” changing over time, but not as a stable trait in other existing models of L2 motivation (Dörnyei 2005: 83). The model tried to bring all research in L2 motivation and educational psychology together into a framework that covered every major motivational factor found to be influential on L2 learning processes in other studies.

Following Heckhausen and Kuhl's Action Control Theory, the model is grounded on two major dimensions: *Action Sequence* and *Motivation Influences*. The Action Sequence process has been divided into three primary phases named *preactional phase*, *actional phase*, and *postactional phase* (Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 47).

The preactional phase refers to choice motivation to be generated since it is perceived as the initial stage that leads to the selection of the goal or task that learners will pursue (Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 84; Dörnyei 2001: 87). The phase is characterized by three subprocesses: *goal setting*, *intention formation*, and *initiation of intention enactment*.

The actional phase is referred as executive motivation that sustains and protects the generated motivation while the action is being carried out, and it is particularly associated with maintained activities such as studying an L2, and especially with learning in classroom settings, where students get exposed to a great number of distractors such as off-task thoughts, irrelevant distractions from others, anxiety about the task, or physical conditions that make it complicated to execute the task (Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 50). They also adduce three main processes that come into effect during the actional phase: *subtask generation and implementation*, a complex ongoing *appraisal process*, and the application of a variety of *action control* mechanism.

The postactional phase fuels "after either the goal has been attained or the action has been terminated; alternatively, it can also take place when action is interrupted for a longer period." (Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 51). Dörnyei (2001) further adds that the rationale behind this stage is to make an evaluation of the achieved action outcome and to consider the possible inferences to be derived for future actions. In this stage, learners compare their initial expectancies and plans of the action to how they turned out in reality and constitute *casual attributions* about the degree to which the intended goals have been accomplished. Such a critical retrospection process enables learners to enhance their accumulated experiences and make further analysis of their *internal standards* and background of *action-specific strategies* (Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 21). Accordingly, Boekaerts (cited in Dörnyei and Otto 1998: 51) notes that individuals can build stable and strong identities as successful learners through undergoing such an evaluation process.

Presenting the L2 motivation models of Garner and Dörnyei, the next part will elaborate an outstanding model of language motivation proposed by Williams and Burden, namely Social Constructivist Model of Motivation.

2.5.3. Williams and Burden's Social Constructivist Model of Motivation

The social constructivist model of motivation is rooted in constructivist psychological theories suggested by Piaget (1973), in which learning is considered as a process of active construction of meaning by learners. In Piaget's theory, mental representation or construction is regarded as the medium through which learners internalize knowledge and perceive the world.

Williams and Burden (1997: 137) describe their model of L2 motivation as “cognitive and constructivist, socially contextualized and dynamically interactive”. They further maintain that in a constructivist perspective of motivation, it is supported that each learner is motivated differently, hence indicating the uniqueness of motivation among learners. They also add that:

“... an individual's motivation is also subject to social and contextual influences. These will include the whole culture and context and the social situation, as well as significant other people and the individual's interactions with these people” (1997: 120).

In their model, making the decision to act is conceived as the central and fundamental component of motivation since it is asserted that even if learners have strong reasons for engaging in some actions, they may not necessarily do anything about it (Williams and Burden 1997). The decisions are basically concerned with such issues as whether to do something or how much time and effort to put into it, and these decisions are grounded on learners' own construction of the world and are influenced by internal and external attributes that learners bring to the situation – personality factors, confidence, learning environment, significant others, and so forth (see Figure 2.5).

In Williams and Burden's (1997) framework of L2 motivation, two primary dimensions are identified in the realm of motivation: *internal factors* and *external factors*.

Figure 2.5 Williams and Burden's Social Constructivist Model of Motivation (Williams and Burden 1997 cited in Dörnyei 2001:114)

INTERNAL FACTORS	EXTERNAL FACTORS
<p>Intrinsic Interest of Activity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Arousal of curiosity ▪ Optimal degree of challenge <p>Perceived Value of Activity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Personal relevance ▪ Anticipated value of outcomes ▪ Intrinsic value attributes to the activity <p>Sense of Agency</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Locus of causality ▪ Locus of control reprocess and outcomes ▪ Ability to set appropriate goals <p>Mastery</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Feelings of competence ▪ Awareness of developing skills and mastery in chosen area ▪ Self-efficacy <p>Self-concept</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Realistic awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses in skills required ▪ Personal definitions and judgments of success and failure ▪ Self-worth concern ▪ Learned helplessness <p>Attitudes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ To language learning in general ▪ To the target language ▪ To the target language community and culture <p>Other Affective States</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Confidence ▪ Anxiety, fear <p>Developmental Age and Stage</p> <p>Gender</p>	<p>Significant Other</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Parents ▪ Teachers ▪ Peers <p>The Nature of Interaction with Significant Others</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Mediated learning experiences ▪ The nature and amount of feedback ▪ Rewards ▪ The nature and amount of appropriate praise ▪ Punishment, sanctions <p>The Learning Environment</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Comfort ▪ Resources ▪ Time of day, week, year ▪ Size of class and school ▪ Class of school ethos <p>The Broader Context</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Wider family networks ▪ The Local education system ▪ Conflicting interests ▪ Cultural norms ▪ Societal expectations and attitudes

The first dimension, *intrinsic factors*, further classifies into eight different subtitles: *intrinsic interest of activity, perceived value of activity, sense of agency, mastery, self –*

concept, attitudes, developmental age and stage and gender. The first of these subtitles, *intrinsic interest of activity*, reflects the curiosity and optimal degree of challenge. The second subtitle identified as *perceived value of the activity* is concerned with learners' inner experiences based on personal relevance, anticipated value of outcomes and intrinsic value attributed to it. Next comes *the sense of agency* which is directly related to the locus of causality, the locus of control reprocess and outcomes, and ability to set appropriate goals. Then follows *self-concept* which is tightly related to learners' realistic awareness of their strengths and weaknesses in the skills required. It is also concerned with learners' personal definitions and judgments of their successes and failures. *Attitudes* regarded as the fourth subtitle of the dimension also occupy a fundamental role in Williams and Burden's framework of motivation. Williams and Burden (1997) contend that learners have attitudes towards (a) language learning in general, (b) the target language, and (c) the target language community and culture. They conclude the intrinsic dimension via pointing out the significance of such aspects as learners' confidence, anxiety, fear, developmental age and stage, and gender.

The second dimension of the framework of L2 motivation suggested by Williams and Burden (1997) is named as "*the external factors*" which is divided into four main subtitles. *Significant others* which is identified as the first of the subtitle refers to the role of parents, teachers and peers in L2 motivation. *The nature of interaction with significant others* forms the second subtitle of the dimension and is related to the rewards and punishments that learners receive and their impact on learners' L2 gains. Then follows *the learning environment* which has significant psychological influences on learners, and comfort, time of day, size of class and school, class and school ethos are posited as the primary points within this subtitle. The final subtitle of the dimension is named as the broader context which involves such elements as wider family networks, the local education system, cultural norms and societal expectations and attitudes.

Considering these dimension of L2 motivation suggested by Williams and Burden (1997), it can be inferred that motivation can be either intrinsic, that is doing something because it is enjoyable in itself, or extrinsic, that is doing something in order to obtain other ends. The model also stresses that different motivational styles have an effect on motivational outcomes; for instance, a learner who aims to master an activity by trying

harder is more likely to maintain motivation while a learner who assumes failure due to dearth of ability may easily lose his/her motivation.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

As the title of the chapter reveals, the main concern of this chapter was to draw a relationship between the general theories of motivation and second/foreign language (L2) learning motivation models suggested by different researchers (Gardner 1985; Dörnyei 1994; Williams and Burden 1997). It basically consists of two different parts: (1) general theories of motivation and (2) second/foreign language motivation.

In the first part, an introduction to the concept of “motivation” through focusing on the domain of “affectivity” was presented, and then the definitions of motivation suggested by different scholars and researchers were explicated by drawing together many of these different definitions in order to provide a conceptual framework of the term. Next, the views of motivation were explained with a reference to three main schools of thought, namely behaviorism, cognitivism and constructivism. Following the viewpoints of the term, two types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic, which occupy a great deal of importance in the research area of motivation were introduced in order to distinguish between the both concepts.

The second part reviewed three models of motivation from a perspective of language learning motivation. Firstly, Gardner’s socio-educational model of language motivation was presented together with drawing a distinction between the concepts of *orientation* and *motivation*, and *instrumental* and *integrative*. Then Dörnyei’s framework of motivation in foreign language learning was reviewed with its findings that brought a novel perspective to the research agenda of motivation. The second part of the chapter concluded with William and Burden’s social constructivist model of motivation. The L2 motivation models presented in this chapter are assumed to serve quite effectively in order to shed light on the overall objectives of this study. The following chapter will review the significance of literary texts and Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) from a perspective of language learning motivation.

CHAPTER III

L2 MOTIVATION IN RELATION TO LITERARY TEXTS AND CALL

In this chapter, literature related to the use of literary texts and computers in second/foreign language (L2) will be reviewed to clarify theoretical framework of explanations and research findings from a perspective of L2 motivation. The chapter will start with reviewing the literature on the use of literary texts in L2 classrooms by drawing the focus into the genre of short story identified as one of the most effective type of literary texts. Following an overview of the use of short stories in L2 learning settings, the benefits of short stories in L2 education will be presented with regard to language motivation. The second concern of this chapter will be to review literature related to the use of computers (used synonymous with CALL in the present study) in language education from a perspective of language motivation. After providing some fundamental definitions of CALL, suggested by worldwide-known scholars in the field, a brief history of CALL will be presented. Following the explication of the history of CALL, literature pertaining to the advantages of CALL will be reviewed in relation to language motivation.

3.1. LITERARY TEXTS FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF L2 MOTIVATION

The use of literature in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) dates back to over one century ago. In the nineteenth century, the Grammar-Translation Method was the primary language teaching method, and within the realm of this method, learners used to translate literary texts written in the target language into their mother tongue. However, in the following decades the Grammar Translation Method started to lose its ground since it was regarded as an inadequate method in order to teach a language effectively and efficiently. As a result, the focus of the emerging methods shifted from the use of literary texts to the techniques that gave great importance to

linguistics elements and vocabulary. Erkaya (2005: 2), for instance, notes that the Audiolingual Method and the Direct Method did not use literary texts as a source to teach a language. She also maintains that in the 1970s, literary texts were not utilized in the Community Language Learning, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Total Physical Response, the Natural Approach and the Notional-Functional Syllabus, either.

The use of literature as a technique to teach both basic language skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking) and language areas (i.e. vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation) within the field of L2 teaching and learning has again gained momentum in the last two decades with a perspective other than the one used in the Grammar Translation Method (Hişmanoğlu 2005). That is, in the era of the Grammar Translation Method, English literature was viewed as synonymous with the teaching of the English language (Thakur 2003) since it was considered as a source of high moral value and a model of excellent language usage. In fact, literature was utilized as a body of knowledge or a subject matter that dominated the language syllabus but not as an integral, embedded or supplementary component of language learning (Delanoy 1997; Carroli 2002). Nevertheless, with the new perspective concerned with the use of literature in ESL and EFL, it was now understood that literary texts can be used to reinforce and enhance language learning and teaching (Erkaya 2005). As a result, many curriculum planners, syllabus and material designers as well as practitioners in the area of language education began to integrate literature into the process of language teaching and learning at primary and secondary education levels, at tertiary level programs specializing in Literature and Language Studies, and in teacher training programs (Cook 1994; Lazar 1999; Collie and Slater 2000; Carroli 2002). For instance, many current English language programs such as those in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Turkey, Taiwan, Japan and Singapore have incorporated literature into their language curricular (Langer 1999; McRae 1991; Carroli 2002; Erkaya 2005; Carlisle 2000; Norris 1994).

Literary texts are now used for various purposes in language education since they enable language instructor to design different language activities that promote language learning motivation as well as language gains. Scher (1976 cited in Erkaya 2005) suggests that literary texts can be used for “language practice, reading comprehension and possible aesthetic appreciation” with the beginner and intermediate level students. On the contrary,

he adds that literary texts can be used, with advanced level students, for the “development of knowledge of world literature, practice in reading and discussing creative work, and the introduction of literary concepts, genres, and terminologies—e g, recognition of figures of speech, levels of meaning, and other stylistic features”. In line with Scher, Collie and Slater (1987), Oster (1989), Lazar (1993) and Vethanami (2004) assert that literary texts help learners to enhance their language skills, particularly reading and writing. Accordingly, Coollie and Slater (1987) contend that learners are exposed to the formation and function of sentences, the variety of possible structures in the target language and the diverse ways of linking notions through reading literary texts, allowing learners to expand their writing competence. As for listening and speaking skills, it is noted that learners can develop their speaking skill via oral tasks based on literary texts (Mario Saraceni 2003), and it is also argued that the recorded literary materials enhance learners’ listening skill (Lazar 1993).

3.1.1. SHORT STORIES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Literary texts incorporate several genres such as short stories, novels, poems, dramas, and so forth, and these literary text genres can be implemented in various ways in order to teach a language. Of these genres, short stories are noted to have great importance in language teaching and learning since they, like the other genres, create real or real-like settings to which learners can relate what they have learned in the classroom (Brumfit and Carter 1986). Accordingly, in a study examining learners' attitudes towards four genres of literary texts (short story, novel, poetry and drama), Hirvela and Boyle (1988) report that adult Hong Kong Chinese learners indicated short stories as the less feared and the second most enjoyed genre (43%; the novel is the most enjoyed with 44%) since short stories are considered easy to finish and definite to understand. Short stories also provide students a language rich in grammar, vocabulary, introduction styles, and so on.

Collie and Slater (1991: 196) assert that short stories have a lot of benefits for both language learners and language instructors: a) Since their length is long enough to cover in one or two class sessions, short stories are very practical tools in language education. b) Short stories enable learners to work on their own because they are not very complicated.

c) Short stories attract learners' attention easily as they have a variety of choice for different interests and tastes. d) They can be used with all levels (beginner to advanced), all ages (young learners to adults) and all classes (summer courses to evening classes).

The exploitation of short stories in classroom is also of great significance since the activities designed in the classroom setting should enable learners to augment their command of the basic language skills and language areas concerned. Gajdusek (1988) highlights that the classroom experience with the texts should enable learners to decipher what the text encompasses, and thus she suggests a four-step approach to explore Hemingway's "Soldier's home": 1) pre-reading activities to offer background information and introduce new vocabulary items; 2) real in-class work after reading the text at home to examine point of view, characters, setting and action; 3) analysis of structure, theme and style in order to discover how the writer presents the language; and 4) extending in-class activities by assigning informal or formal critical writing or dramatizing a scene that has been told but not seen in the text in groups. Likewise, Oster (1989) contends that learners should be encouraged to question, analyze and discuss short stories told from a single point of view from different perspectives. For instance, learners can be asked to tell the story from a different character's view or rewrite it from their own views. Such activities allow learners to integrate reading skill with writing and speaking skills, and they also create opportunities for learners to realize how their own experiences, culture and values influence their views. All of these studies indicate that short stories provide learners a great number of benefits in order to improve and enhance their language proficiency level.

3.1.2. BENEFITS OF SHORT STORIES IN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

With a language rich in grammatical structures, vocabulary, introduction styles, and so forth, short stories provide learners numerous benefits in language learning. Collie and Slater (1990: 3) suggests four basic reasons for using short stories in language teaching: *authentic material, cultural enrichment, language development, and drawing learners' attention and motivating them.*

3.1.2.1. Cultural Enrichment

Language teaching does not merely mean teaching grammatical structures, vocabulary items and the pronunciation of these items. In other words, the manipulation of syntax and lexicon alone is not enough for the learners of a language to be competent in that particular language (Krasner 1999), indicating that language teaching goes beyond teaching these basic elements. Since culture encompasses “integrated pattern of human behavior that includes thoughts, communication, languages, practices, beliefs, values, customs, courtesies, rituals, manners of interacting and roles, relationships and expected behaviors of a racial, ethnic, religious or social group; and the ability to transmit the above to succeeding generations” (Goode, Sockalingam, Brown and Jones 2000), then it is also obvious that the language spoken in this particular culture also reflects these basic features stated above. This mutual influence stems from the rigorous connection and interaction between culture and language.

The rationale behind integrating culture into language education is “to increase students’ awareness and motivation and to develop their interest towards both the target culture and their own culture, helping them to make comparisons among cultures” (Tavares and Cavalcanti 1996: 19). Tavares and Cavalcanti further add that the purpose of these comparisons is not to belittle or exaggerate the importance of any foreign cultures but to enrich students’ experience, to make them more cosmopolitans, and to appreciate other cultures. Appreciating other cultures builds interaction and tolerance among cultures; consequently, the integration of the target culture’s items into language teaching processes is of great importance.

It is also affirmed that the use of cultural content in classroom is for the supposition that it promotes learner motivation (McKay 2000: 7). Shanahan (1997: 168) states that the integration of culture into language education provides language learners opportunities to get access to the living language aspect of the target language. In that respect, culture can be considered as a helpful tool to make learners feel the urge to speak and use the target language, hence promoting motivation for language learning.

The changes in learning theories, thus the approaches to linguistics, suggest that culture is an important tool in language teaching. As a result, the recent writings of scholars such as Byram (1989, 1994a, 1994b, 1997a, 1997b cited in Bada and Genc 2005) and Kramersch (1988; 1993; 1996; 2001 cited in Bada and Genc, 2005) focus on the strong relationship between second/foreign language teaching and target culture teaching. Scholars and educators involved in language teaching have again begun to understand the interwoven relation between culture and language (Pulverness 2003). Short stories increase foreign language learners' insight into the country and thus the culture of the target language that is being learnt (Collie and Slater 1991), and learners can, through short stories, foster their ability to interpret discourse in different social and cultural target language contexts (Savvidou 2004). Besides, literary texts enable students to understand and appreciate other societies and ideologies other than their own; as a result, they enhance personal growth and intellectual development (Carter and Long 1991: 2-4). Hence, short stories serve quite efficiently and effectively in order to incorporate cultural elements into language learning in addition to cultivating cultural enrichment. In other words, using literary texts in language learning and teaching has the advantage of providing cultural information about the target language.

According to Tomalin and Stempleski (1993: 7-8), modifying Seelye's (1988) 'seven goals of cultural instruction', using short stories in language classrooms has a number of goals and they serve as a medium to accomplish them: (1) to help students to develop an understanding of the fact that all people exhibit culturally-conditioned behaviors, (2) to help students to develop an understanding that social variables such as age, sex, social class, and place of residence influence the ways in which people speak and behave, (3) to help students to become more aware of conventional behavior in common situations in the target culture, (4) to help students to increase their awareness of the cultural connotations of words and phrases in the target language, (5) to help students to develop the ability to evaluate and refine generalizations about the target culture, in terms of supporting evidence, (6) to help students to develop the necessary skills to locate and organize information about the target culture, (7) to stimulate students' intellectual curiosity about the target culture, and to encourage empathy towards its people.

Apart from all of these reasons, the majority of language learners do not have the opportunity to go to the country where the language they are studying is spoken, and therefore they do not have the chance to get access to the verbal and/or nonverbal features of the target language. In that sense, short stories serve quite effectively in order to fulfill this function, allowing learners to observe how communication in the society of the target language takes place. Since short stories, although they can be imaginary, include people from different classes in the society, they serve as authentic materials that represent real life of the target language's society. Hence, learners can, through short stories, observe these people from different perspectives such as how they behave and speak, what they think, feel and believe, what they possess, what buy and sell, what they are afraid of, what their traditions are, and so forth. Bearing all of these aspects in mind, it is quite clear that short stories have multiple advantages in terms of building cultural awareness and knowledge.

3.1.2.2. Valuable Authentic Materials

Some researchers point out that further authentic materials are needed in the classroom because of the wide divergence that is often found between materials developed specifically for English language teaching and real-life conversations. The study carried out by Porter and Roberts (1981) indicates that there are several differences between authentic materials and non-authentic materials with reference to spoken language. For instance, texts written for language teaching purposes often have certain structures which recur with intrusive frequency, and the speakers in the texts have very obvious turn-takings. Besides, fillers in the conversations (such as "uh, oops, wow, er, mm, and so on") are often missing, indicating that the language heard in the classroom is quite often a stilted use of spoken language, and thus authenticity is missing. This is because some teachers think that teaching some specific language points is more important and understandable for learners. Bearing all of the points made above in mind, short stories serve effectively as a type of authentic material in language classes. Since short stories, except for the pedagogical ones, do not aim to teach a language, they incorporate a lot of authentic elements taken from real life. Widdowson (1979: 165) maintains that authenticity is not something there waiting to be noticed, but it is realized in the act of interpretation. In other

words, in the process of reading learners gradually recognize that the short story at hand incorporates elements, both the events and the language in short stories, to be found in real life. In such a way, learners get access to authentic language and see how language is used in real life.

Nunan (1999: 27) makes a point that merely using authentic materials in the classroom is not enough to realize the objectives set beforehand; therefore, learners should be exposed to a diet of authentic language data. Using contrived dialogues and listening texts or reading texts written for language teaching purposes can make the language learning task even more difficult. He also maintains that learners should listen to and read as many different kinds of authentic materials as possible. Learners get motivated and encouraged through such authentic materials because they are able to build a connection between the classroom environment and real life. Accordingly, Brosnan et al. (1984) suggest the following reasons in order to justify the importance of the use of authentic language in the classroom:

1. Language has a natural flow; thus, when it is simplified (using simple and known vocabulary, limiting grammatical structures, decreasing the pace of speaking, and so forth) for the sake language teaching, the difficulty level of the task is at risk. In fact, the clues that enable learners to grasp the meaning might be removed through such an approach.
2. When students study the target language through authentic materials, thus authentic language, they are required to deal with a small amount of material which provides complete and meaningful messages.
3. Authentic printed materials contain a lot of input (such as layout, pictures, colors, symbols, setting, and so forth) for learners; hence, they enable learners to discover the meaning more easily.
4. Learners feel an urge to see the connection between what they do in the classroom and what they do in real life. In other words, what learners learn in the classroom environment should fulfill some sort of functions in real life, and therefore this process requires the lessons to have some real-life objectives. In that sense, authentic materials serve effectively in order to accomplish these aims.

In fact, since short stories are some very good samples of authentic materials, they have several advantages in language learning. Gebhard (1996) sees authentic materials, namely short stories in the present study, as a way to contextualize language learning. Since short stories incorporate real life issues that serve as quite valuable contexts for language learning and when lessons are centered on comprehending these real life issues, students tend to focus more on content and meaning rather than the language itself. In such a way, students are offered a valuable source of language input so that they are not being exposed merely to the language presented by the text and the teacher. Moreover, in a study carried out by Melvin and Stout (1987) it is found that students have an overall increased motivation to learn, in addition to renewed interest in the subject concerned, when they are provided with a chance to study culture in language classroom through authentic materials such as short stories.

3.1.2.3. Language Proficiency Development

Short stories are very beneficial and important materials in stimulating the language acquisition and learning process as they provide authentic contexts for processing the components of language. Collie and Slater (1991: 4) and Ur (1996: 201) note that short stories incorporate language intended for native speakers, and thus they stand as a model for language learners to become familiar with different language forms and conventions. In other words, since short stories include numerous authentic examples of grammatical structures and vocabulary items, they raise learners' awareness of the richness of the target language and foster their command of it (Povey 1967).

Due to their multiple functions in language education, short stories enable language instructors to design diverse language activities that develop learners' command of four language skills and language areas. Murdoch (2002: 9) affirms this multi-functionalism by stating that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency."

The positive impact of short stories on writing skills is evident through the various studies carried out by different researchers and language educators. Murdoch (2002: 9) suggests that by using short stories, learners at intermediate level can create some dialogues and then act them out, allowing them to enhance their writing skill. As for learners with high language proficiency level, he maintains that they can be assigned more complex writing activities such as writing the end of the short story in a new and different way. Similarly, Oster (1989: 85) contends that language instructors can design diverse writing activities through the use of short stories, and motivate learners to write more creatively. In a study carried out by Salli-Copur and Birlik (2007), learners were assigned different writing activities related to the story they read in the class. For instance, in one of the activities, the learners were asked to write three letters to the agony aunt column of a well-known newspaper, to a friend and to a lawyer from the view of a character in the story, who asks for advice after her ex-fiancé is reported missing. It is reported that with this particular activity, learners had the opportunity to practice different registers by varying the people to whom they wrote the letters, thus motivating learners to enhance their writing competence.

Murdoch (2002: 9) also adds that low level learners can be asked to write short dialogues or describe one of the characters in the story in order to foster their writing skill. In Salli-Copur and Birlik's study (2007), the learners were taught how to make physical descriptions, and they prepared a missing poster for one of the characters in the story they read. The learners found the picture of middle-aged woman and described her physical appearance by referring to the list of the adjectives they prepared all together.

Short stories can also be used to improve learners' reading skill and vocabulary knowledge. Lao and Krashen (2000) present this improvement in a study conducted at a university in Hong Kong. There were two groups in the study; a group of students that read literary texts and a second group that read non-literary texts. The comparison between two groups indicated that the group who read literary texts showed improvement in vocabulary and reading, whereas the second group did not show as much success in reading and vocabulary as the former group did.

Students at high-intermediate and advanced language level proficiency can benefit from short stories in various ways as well. What they read enables them to cultivate their own insights into the target language, and thus being able to use the target language more creatively and imaginatively. Oster (1989: 85) makes a point that learners become more imaginative and creative because they have the opportunity to compare their own point of view with the views of the characters in the short story. This process of comparison helps learners to enhance their ability of critical thinking. Oster (1989) illustrates this fact as, “Focusing on point of view in literature enlarges students' vision and fosters critical thinking by dramatizing the various ways a situation can be seen” (85). In fact, when students read a short story, they interact with it, and by interacting with the story, they try to decode the hidden meaning in it. This decoding process leads to using the target language more creatively and imaginatively both in the classroom environment and the real life environment.

Containing various contexts which show how the target language is used appropriately, short stories enable learners to examine the use of grammatical structures and vocabulary items, the types of narration, the techniques to combine notions, the structures of building sentences, and so forth. For instance, in Salli-Copur and Birlik's study (2007), since the story used encompasses supernatural elements, it was divided into several sections and, the learners were asked to guess the likely course of the events that might occur in the subsequent section, enabling learners to practice the language of prediction. Through this process of examination and such activities conducted in the classroom, learners acquire the awareness of the richness and variety of the target language, and this awareness provides learners with a chance to improve their language skills.

3.1.2.4. Drawing Learners' Attention and Motivating Students

Short stories have a crucial role in terms of drawing learners' attention and motivating them. Since short stories are written for native speakers of the target language, learners are exposed to authentic language while studying the target language via short stories. Nonetheless, it has long been argued that when short stories are taken into the

classroom with a purpose to teach language, then they lose their authenticity. In that sense, Wallace (1992: 79) states “As soon as texts, whatever their original purpose, are brought into classrooms for pedagogic purposes they have, arguably, lost authenticity.”

It is true to some extent, yet learners are still exposed to real language rather than the artificial language of coursebooks, which are unlikely to contain any random or improper samples of the target language. Since short stories are authentic materials in language teaching, they provide learners with an opportunity to obtain real information and pursue what is going on in the world around them. Guariento and Morley (2001) note that since gaining real information in an authentic material can be quite motivating, short stories – being some very good samples of authentic language teaching materials- can increase learners’ motivation level by exposing them to real language. Short stories also show how the use of language changes in addition to providing proofs that language is a real-life phenomenon but not only something studied in the classroom. Nuttall (1996) confirms this as, “Authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people.”(172).

Short stories have different types, and this variety of types enables learners to find a short story that will correspond to their interest and may even lead them to further reading. As learners continue reading short stories, they can develop their language proficiency level and cultivate self-confidence (Berardo 2006). Akyel and Yalçın (1990) emphasize that selecting short stories from different subjects may draw learners’ attention and motivate them in the process of language learning. At this point, Widdowson (1983) notes that it would be better to choose short stories that are “consistent with the traditions that the learners are familiar with” (32) to avoid conflicts.

The majority of short stories have a beginning, middle and an end; therefore, learners at all language proficiency level feel encouraged to read them until the end in order to find out how the conflict is resolved (Erkaya 2005). While reading short stories, learners go beyond language items and try to understand the rationale behind the pattern of the events in the story. They can also feel close to one or more than one character in the story and interpret the reactions of this/these character(s) as if their own reactions. In that respect, Vandrick (1997: 1) notes that short stories motivate learners “to explore their feelings

through experiencing those of others”. In other words, learners discover their own emotions with the help of the short stories they read. At times, they even identify themselves with a character in the story and read it with the mood of that particular character. Elliott (1990) considers short stories as “motivationally effective if students can genuinely engage with its thoughts and emotions and appreciate its aesthetic qualities” (197). Consequently, he further maintains that it is pretty important to improve learners’ literary competence. As all of these studies indicate, short stories - particularly those appropriate to learners’ language proficiency level - encourage and motivate them to get more engaged in the process of language learning.

Lazar (1993: 14-15) suggests the following reasons for the use of short stories to enhance motivation in language learning and teaching: a) Short have a positive effect on student motivation. b) Short stories are some very good samples of authentic materials to be used in language teaching. c) Short stories have a lot of benefits in terms of education. d) Short stories are included in most of the language teaching curricula. e) Short stories enable learners to get familiar with other cultures. f) Short stories expose learners to real language, thus relating more closely to students’ needs. g) Short stories are very useful language teaching materials that enable language acquisition. h) Short stories develop learners’ interpretation skill. i) Short stories make lessons more enjoyable since they grab learners’ attention easily. j) Short stories play a significant role in language teaching because the majority of societies give importance to literary texts. k) Short stories increase learners’ awareness of language learning and acquisition. l) Short stories encourage learners to express their opinions and emotions.

The studies explained above indicate the fundamental reasons that make not only language learners but also language instructors feel motivated and willing to work with short stories in language learning and teaching.

3.1.3. SELECTION OF APPROPRIATE SHORT STORIES

Any short story written in the target language cannot be used with an intention to teach that particular language. Using the most appropriate and beneficial short story in

language teaching entails a process of careful selection. Besides, since every teaching situation is unique, the type of the short story to be implemented in a class varies from teacher to teacher and from classroom to classroom. Therefore, there are a lot of points that should be considered while selecting the most appropriate and beneficial short story. Spack (1985) affirms the importance of short story selection and states that there are various types of short stories that appeal to the interests and tastes of learners, and adds that she selects stories that would grab learners' attention and interests, that she most likes to read and teach, and that have been made into film to provide visual interpretation.

The selection and adaptation process of short stories should be done in accordance with the aim of the course, the profile of learners and the content of the story in order to make the best of it. McKay (1982) emphasizes the importance of selecting the most appropriate short story and adapting it by maintaining that the linguistic and conceptual level of the learners plays a very important role in this selection and adaptation process. Bassnett and Grundy (1993: 8) point out that appropriate and careful selection and adaptation of short stories is today considered being not only suitable for advanced level adult learners but also appropriate for young learners and lower level students.

It is certain that short stories, except for the pedagogical ones, are some very good samples of authentic materials, and these materials play a very important role in teaching language points. Therefore, when bringing short stories into classroom settings, it should always have a pedagogical ground. In other words, it should have some language teaching purposes. Senior (2005) highlights this point as, "...We need to have a clear pedagogic goal in mind: what precisely we want our students to learn from these materials."(71). When handling with such materials and receiving pedagogical support from their instructors, learners feel more confident and secure. Hence, the short stories to be used in the classroom should be selected in such a way that they should address learners' current language proficiency level, and the task to be done in the classroom should not be too challenging and demanding for learners.

Bearing all of these points in mind, Nuttall (1996) suggests that when choosing the short story to be implemented in the classroom, there are three basic criteria and some

questions concerned with them to be answered: (a) suitability of content, (b) exploitability, and (c) readability (see Figure 3.1).

Figure 3.1 How to Select Short Stories (adapted from Nuttall, 1996)

Suitability of Content	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the short story draw learners' interest? • Does the short story meet learners' need? • Is it a representative of the material that learners will come across in real life environment?
Exploitability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can the short story be used for language teaching aims? • For what purposes does the short story serve? • What skills and strategies can be fostered with the use that particular short story?
Readability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does the text respond to the language level of learners? • Does the short story contain a lot of new grammatical structures? • Does the short story include a lot of new vocabulary?

Of the three criteria, *the suitability of the content* is the most important in that the short story to be selected should attract learners' interest and meet their needs, thus stimulating learners' motivation. It should also be a representative of the materials that learners will come across in real life environment.

Exploitability is concerned with using the short story in such a way that it should improve learners' linguistic and communicative competence. Any short story written in the target language cannot be used to teach the target language since the short story might not have any language teaching purposes. Consequently, while selecting the most appropriate short story for language teaching, language instructors should seek if the story can be utilized to foster some language learning strategies and language skills.

Readability is basically concerned with the difficulty level of the combination of grammatical structures and vocabulary items used in the text. Since the amount of the new vocabulary items and grammatical forms may challenge learners substantially in terms of understanding the content of the story, the story should be at an optimum (average) level of difficulty.

Berardo (2006) suggests that *variety* and *presentation* are also very important criteria in choosing the most appropriate and beneficial short story in language teaching. Using short stories that deal with different and various subjects makes language classes more interesting, and thus attracting learners' attention and motivating them to the lesson. Short stories that deal with the same subject area usually use the same vocabulary. Hence, learners make very little conscious effort to learn it; however, they become highly specialized in that particular area. As for presentation, it is important that the short story to be used in the classroom has some pictures, diagrams, photographs, and so forth since such illustrations enable learners to put the text into a context. These illustrations help learners to better comprehend the stories and to relate them to real life, thus enabling learners to utilize the language used in the stories in real life as well. It may seem to be a very superficial aspect in selecting short stories, but it is crucial to keep in mind that the appearance of the short story is the first thing that learners notice. Short stories that are attractive are more likely to grab learners' attention than the ones that are full of type.

Berardo (2006) maintains that there are also some other factors worth taking into consideration while selecting short stories for language teaching purposes. These factors encompass "whether the text challenges the students' intelligence without making unreasonable linguistic demands, does the language reflect written or spoken usage, is the language in the text natural or has it been distorted in order to try and include examples of a particular teaching point?"(63). It is also quite important that short stories to be selected can be used to design some language teaching tasks. On the top of all, short stories should enhance learners' personal-growth, in that they should inform learners about things that they do not know as well as introduce new and relevant ideas (Berardo, 2006).

3.2. CALL FROM A PERSPECTIVE OF L2 MOTIVATION

Virtually every type of language teaching has its peculiar technologies to support it in an effective way. Language instructors who followed the Grammar Translation method- in which the teacher was considered as the sole source of information, and therefore the teacher explained grammatical rules and learners performed translations- depended on one of the most ubiquitous technology, the blackboard (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). Then

overhead projector, another perfect vehicle for teacher-dominated classroom instruction, supplemented the blackboard. As technology has improved, the tools used in language learning and teaching have followed a gradual development as well.

In the second half of the 20th century, education technologies, namely computers in the present study, were one of the most developed areas in the world. In the late 1950s and the early 1960s, computers began to be used in language teaching and learning settings (Beatty, 2003). However, the computers used in that era were rather large and expensive when compared with the computers in the current era. Besides, those computers were basically used for research in laboratories.

In the 1970s, language laboratories were founded under the influence of the Audiolingual Method, which enabled effective use of computers in language teaching and learning (Gündüz 2005). Moreover, government-funded projects such as PLATO (Programmed Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) helped to spread educational computing. PLATO was designed to provide large number of learners with an opportunity to get access to interactive and self-paced instruction, hence being a sort of restricted e-mail system (Alessi and Trollip 1991; Levy 1997). Crystal (1987) notes, "Micro computers used as word processors complement the audio facilities, enabling the interactive teaching of all four language skills reading, listening, speaking and writing" (377). He also maintains that today a great variety of language exercises (such as sentence restructuring, checking of spelling and translations, dictation tasks, cloze tests, and so forth) can be done through the use of computers in language teaching and learning process.

In the early 1980s, the drop in prices and the invention of microcomputers made computers widely available to language instructors (Chapelle 2001; Levy 1997). For instance, a decade ago, merely a small number of specialists in western countries could use computers in language learning and teaching. However, with the invention of CD-ROMs, DVDs and microcomputers, more information could be technologically stored and carried to different places, hence leading to the spread of educational computing (Beatty, 2003). These microcomputers enabled learners to interact through text, graphics, voice, and pointing along with the ease of using audio and visual devices (Alessi and Trollip 1991). The improvements in computer technologies enabled the invention of more sophisticated computer programs which provided language instructors with an opportunity to make

effective use of computers in language teaching and learning. In recent years, the impact of computers on language learning and teaching has burgeoned, particularly with the advent of multimedia computing and the Internet (Warschauer and Healey 1998). Now, large numbers of language instructors and learners have the opportunity to get access to computer technologies.

3.2.1. DEFINING CALL

CALL is the acronym produced for Computer-Assisted Language Learning and how computers are utilized for language teaching and learning. In fact, CALL has been defined in various ways by different scholars and educators.

Levy (1997: 1) defines CALL as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". Similarly, Hardisty and Windeatt (1989) describe CALL as the use of computers as part of a language course.

In the same vein, Beatty (2003) defines CALL as a process in which learners use computers as medium of language learning and as a result improve their language proficiency.

Jones and Fortescue (1987) note that the early definitions of CALL are very narrow. Consequently, they suggest their own definition of CALL in which CALL is described as flexible classroom aids which can be used for various objectives in and out of classroom settings by both educators and learners. Nevertheless, the integration of computers in lessons should be planned carefully in order to utilize computers effectively during lessons.

The primary purpose of CALL is to provide language learners with a chance to reach resources and gain experience that will help them build a good command of reading, writing, speaking and listening skills as well as vocabulary, pronunciation and culture. Computers are among one the most prominent tools available for language teaching and learning; hence, their incorporation into the foreign/second language education is of great significance. The implementation of computers in language education dates back over six

decades, and their exploitation in language teaching and learning has been influenced by certain schools of thought over the course of time. In the following part, an overall history of CALL is presented by referring to particular schools of thought that directed the use of CALL into certain patterns.

3.2.2. HISTORY OF CALL

Computers have been in use since the first half of the 20th century; however, their use in language teaching and learning dates back to the 1960s. Before CALL, the term CALI (computer-assisted language instruction) which is a subset of CAI (computer-assisted instruction) was in use (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Computer-assisted_language_learning), and the computer-based introductory courses in the USA in the 1960s were considered as the pioneering projects of CALL (Gündüz 2005).

In the 1970s, the developments in research pertaining to the use of computers for linguistic aims and for generating appropriate language learning conditions induced some influential changes in CALL. The foundation of CALL laboratories in the 1970s made computers an integral component of language teaching and learning in the majority of educational institutions (Hardisty and Windeatt 1989). The 1980s witnessed the spread of computers in educational institutions and people's home, and it was also quite easy to find CALL software programs on the market (Ittelson 2000). The early CALL software programs were grounded on texts and allowed learners to execute simple tasks such as gap filling, matching sentence halves, and answering multiple-choice questions (Dudeney and Hockly 2007). Highly-motivated language instructors began to write their own CALL programs via using BASIC (Beginner's All-purpose Symbolic Instruction Code), and it had a great influence on the improvement of CALL materials (Levy 1997). In the succeeding years, more sophisticated CALL programs have been written.

The use of computers in language teaching and learning has burgeoned in the 1990s. Gündüz (2005) notes that "The emergence of inexpensive computer technology and mass storage media, including optical videodiscs and compact disks, has given instructional technologists better tools to work with." (198). She adds that now compact disks enable

educators to store large amounts of data, such as encyclopedias or motion pictures; thus, learners who would like to gather information about a particular topic go to CALL centers and first scan an electronic encyclopedia and later watch a film on the subject or read some related articles at the reach of a button. Besides, now language learners can contact native speakers of the target language through both the asynchronous (Email, Net pals, WebCT, Interactive Whiteboard, ICON, and so forth) and synchronous (Instant Messengers, MOO and Internet Relay Chat, and so on) components of computer-mediated communication (Beatty 2003; Bush and Terry 1996; Warschauer and Kern 2000). Particularly, the Internet and the Web made it quite plausible for language learners to communicate with the native speakers of the target language and culture. Such facilities of computers enhance the importance of CALL in language education.

Computers have been used in language teaching and learning for more than five decades. Levy (1997) divides the history of CALL into three main phases: *the 1960s to 1970s*, *the 1980s*, and *the 1990s*. Kern and Warschauer (2000 cited in Chiu 2008) offer another categorization of CALL from a linguistic perspective: *structural approaches*, *cognitive approaches* and *socio-cognitive approaches* (see Figure 3.2). Each approach corresponds to a particular level of technology and pedagogy (Warschauer and Healey 1998).

Structural approaches to language teaching and learning are influenced by behaviourism in which learning is considered as a process of habit formation. Learners are exposed to patterns of drills, and these drills help condition learners to produce correct response. Besides, structural approaches to language teaching emphasize the importance of repetition in language learning, and the primary function of CALL programs in the 1960s and 1970s was to offer learners repetitious drills and mechanical exercises (Beatty 2003; Levy 1997). Besides, those programs provided language learners with immediate feedback on grammatical accuracy of learners' responses (Kern and Warschauer 2000).

Warschauer and Healey (1998) note that structural CALL is a "mechanical tutor, which never grew tired or judgmental and allowed students to work at an individual pace" (p. 57). They also add that structural CALL programs incorporated extensive drills, grammatical explanations and translation at various intervals. The PLATO (Programmed

Logic for Automatic Teaching Operations) project initiated at the University of Illinois in the early 1960s and CLEF (Computer-Assisted Learning Exercises for French) were two very good examples of such programs (Beatty 2003; Levy 1997; Guo 2010). PLATO was designed to teach Russian and a wide range of disciplines. It was grounded on the Grammar Translation Method, and thus vocabulary drills and translation tests (Gou 2010). Guo further adds that PLATO emphasized the use of mnemonics and mechanical drills in language teaching and learning. As for CLEF, it would focus on a series of 62 lessons covering basic French grammar, and each lesson incorporated three to five exercises for vocabulary drill and grammatical practice (Guo 2010).

Figure 3.2 The History of CALL (based on Kern and Warschauer 2000; Chiu 2008)

Stage	View of Language	Technology	Pedagogical Approach	Role of Computers	Teacher's Role
1960s-1980s: Behavioristic or Structural CALL	Structural (formal- structural system)	Mainframe	Grammar- Translation and Audio- Lingual	Habit formation: Repetitive drills Drill-and-practice Translations tests	Sole source of lang. information To give Instructions
1980s-1990s: Communicative CALL	Cognitive (mentally- constructed system)	PCs	Communicative Language Teaching	Communicative exercises: Using forms Implicit grammar teaching forms Text reconstruction Simulations	Activator Facilitator
1990s to 21 st c. Integrative CALL	Social, Socio- cognitive (developed in social interaction)	Multimedia Internet- based appl.	Content- Based, Task- Based, Project- Based, ESP, EAP	Authentic social, context, discourses Integrate various skills (R, W, S, L) of language learning and use	Counselor Mentor

During the 1960s, the growing discontent with the inadequacies of behaviouristic approaches to language learning gave way to the birth of *cognitive approaches* to language

learning. Cognitive approaches to language learning reject the analogy of “blank slate” proposed by behaviourists for brain, and cognitivists, instead, advocate the notion that learners enter the language education process with “a rich set of ideas and experiences” (Kern and Warschauer 2000: 93). Therefore, the focus of CALL software applications in the 1980s shifted from the computer to learners (Kern and Warschauer 2000). The locus of cognitive CALL softwares was not to provide language materials but rather enable learners to understand and use the target language (Warchauer and Healey 1998). In structural approaches, computers were regarded as experts directing learners; however, in cognitive approaches, computers were viewed as mediums that were utilized by learners with an aim to supplement language learning. Under the influence of Communicative Language Teaching, cognitive approaches to CALL stressed that learning was a process of discovery, expression and development (Gündüz 2005). In structural CALL, learners were expected to imitate prefabricated utterances, whereas in cognitive CALL, learners were encouraged to produce sentences. This was because the focus of language learning was on meaning rather than form. In addition, the explicit instruction of grammar was replaced by the implicit instruction of grammar. Papert (1980 cited in Chiu) notes that learners, via simulated environments, made use of computers to create their own microworlds, and then they were provided with activities in order to solve problems, test hypotheses and construct new concepts with a reference to their background knowledge on the topic concerned.

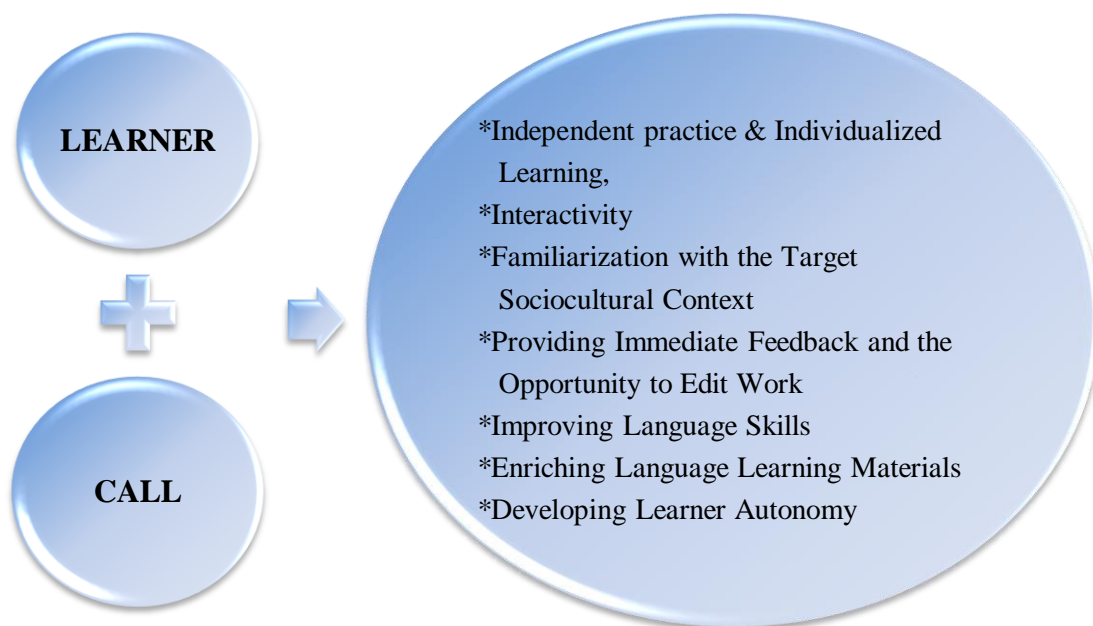
Socio-cognitive approaches to language learning and teaching stress the importance of social interaction in authentic discourse communities (Kern and Warschauer 2000), and therefore by the 1990s, cognitive CALL was severely criticized due to its lack of incorporating social aspects in language teaching and learning. As a result, language instructors began to use more social and learner-centered methods while implementing CALL in their process of language teaching (Gündüz 2005). In other words, the locus of computers tended to shift from the concept of “learners interaction with computers” to “interaction with other humans via the computer” (Lin 2010). The emphasis was put on authentic social contexts in which learners were provided with opportunities to integrate the various skills of language learning and use such as task-based, project-based, and content-based instruction (Warchauer and Healy 1998). Lin (2010) also adds that the

advent of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and the World Wide Web in the 1990s enabled language learners to interact with native speakers of the target language via either asynchronous (e.g. electronic mail) or synchronous (e.g. Internet Relay Chat) networks. Thus, learners obtained a chance to learn the target language in a more authentic and sociocognitive environment.

3.2.3. BENEFITS OF CALL

In recent decades, there has been a shift from teacher-centered language teaching to student-centered language teaching, and thus language instructors have started to change their traditional ways of teaching. In that sense, computer technologies offer a great number of approaches and opportunities in language learning and teaching when compared with the approaches and opportunities used in past. Pennington (1996: 1) affirms this fact by stating that “Technology in language education can increase the variety or diversity of learning opportunities and the quality of the learning experience in making input of more varied kinds learnable and accessible to each individual learner”. Computers provide both learners and instructor with more accessibility to the target language in various ways. Zhao and Frank (2003) state that computers can help language instructors combine different aspects of the curriculum, direct learner learning, model an idea or activity, or relate the curriculum to real world. Particularly with the advent of CALL software programs, today a burgeoning number of learners can see how real-life language use in a meaningful and authentic context is possible via integrating various skills, such as listening, speaking, writing, and reading (Lee 2000; Warschauer and Healey 1998). Lee also maintains that today, learners are offered a great deal of informational, authentic, and communicative sources and activities through the use of multimedia-based materials and the Internet. Consequently, knowing the benefits of CALL and being selective in choosing and implementing the most appropriate CALL programs and materials can serve effectively in a variety of aspects in the process of L2 learning (see Figure 3.3).

Figure 3.3 The Benefits of CALL for Language Learners (based on Kenning and Kenning 1983; Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers and Sussex 1985; Schoepp and Eroğul 2001)



Computers, referring to CALL in the present study, offers numerous advantages for language learners, such as independent practice and individualized learning, interactivity, (Kenning and Kenning 1983), adjusting the pace of study, providing immediate feedback, creating opportunities to edit work, enriching language learning materials (Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers and Sussex 1985), increased level motivation and self-confidence (Schoepp and Eroğul 2001).

3.2.3.1.Independent Practice and Individualized Learning

CALL is a very beneficial resource in terms of offering independent practice and individualized learning. Kenning and Kenning (1983) report that computers offer privacy to learners in order to study individually, allowing them to work on their own computers and preventing others to see what they are doing. Thus, learners abstain from the threat of feeling humiliated by other learners, which helps learners to keep their “*effective filters*” (anxiety, fear, nervousness, and so forth) low. Lee’s study (2004) with Spanish students indicates that most of the learners feel comfortable in the CALL learning environment

since they gain overall confidence in the target language in addition to computer skills. Accordingly, Honeycutt (2001) states that learners reflect less anxiety and increase self-esteem while communicating through computers rather than face-to-face interaction. Therefore, learners who are reluctant to participate in oral discussions participate more actively in such discussions (Al-Sa'di and Hamdan 2005).

Hansen (2001 cited in Chen 2005) notes that computer-mediated communication (CMC), either synchronous or asynchronous, which is a facility of computer technologies provides a stress-free and face-saving environment for communication. Thus, learners feel willing to express themselves more comfortably in CMC environment. Pennington (2004 cited in Chen 2005) adds that learners have more time to plan and check their language output since, for example, before sending an email or post to their key pals, learners are able to check their spelling and grammar from different sources. However, in actual classroom environment learners are afraid of making mistakes since they assume that other learners in the class stare at them, thus feeling embarrassed. Such facilities of computer technologies enable instructors to overcome these problems as well as providing chances for every member of the class to share their opinions with the rest. This process promotes social equality and identity in the classroom since all the learners are provided with opportunities to express their identity and diverse opinions comfortably (Chen 2005).

Computers also enable language learners to determine their pace of study and study periods by themselves. Since there are time and syllabus constraints, it is rather difficult for instructors to cover and review all the subjects in actual classroom settings in order to help slow learners to keep up with other learners (Chen 2005). Therefore, CALL provides learners an opportunity to compensate for these lacks by enabling them to search on the Internet for different and various materials related to the target subject.

Computers' infinite patience is another important advantage for learners (Costanzo, 1989; Ahmad et al. 1985). Language instructors face various difficulties, particularly time, during the process of language teaching; however, computers do not have such problems. As a result, learners can spend hours practicing grammatical forms, writing tests, and composing new documents. Computers also enable learners to ask and search for a single question many times; nevertheless, learners may avoid asking a question in the class just

because of their shyness (Ahmad et al. 1985; Lee 2000). Consequently, computers are quite beneficial in terms of providing independent practice and individualized learning.

3.2.3.2. Interactivity

Kenning and Kenning (1983) note that the interaction required and provided by computers is different from the one by other technological devices such as tape recorders, videos, and projectors. Computers can correct mistakes, check pronunciation via recording the voice, indicate the wrong answer through sound, hence indicating that computers can interact with learners in various ways. Besides, learners use various discourse structures in electronic discussions, and this variety in electronic discussions is greater than the one in oral discussions (Smith, Higgings, Wall and Miller 2005). Smith et al. also note that this variety enables increased participation and motivation in terms of meaning negotiation and authentic interaction which is hardly obtained successfully in traditional classrooms.

The pattern of interaction and communication can be changed through CALL programs as well (Chen 2005). Language instructors can encourage and enhance the amount of interaction among learners, particularly through computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools, both inside and outside of classrooms (Blake 2000; Blin 1999; Leh 1999; Warschauer 1997 cited in Chen 2005). Shield and Weininger (2004) report that now learners have the opportunity to interact and learn collaboratively with learners all over the world via the utilizing the Internet and CMC tools. This opportunity enables language learning to occur both inside and outside of classroom settings. Learners can participate in interaction through synchronous and asynchronous tools of CMC whenever they like. Accordingly, Singh (2010) suggests that learners can post and reply messages on discussion boards, write and reply emails to their keypals, or join online chat rooms whenever they like. All of these facilities provided by computers engage learners in authentic social interactions, expose them to the target language and practice what they have learned in the classroom (Blake 2000; Campbell 2004; Leh 1999; Lightbown and Spada 1999; Singh 2010).

The interaction with computers also assists language skills and pragmatic knowledge of the target language and culture. Nguyen (2010) reports that the interaction and communication via computer technologies promotes the internalization of linguistic skills and enhance the development of pragmatic knowledge and critical awareness.

3.2.3.3. Familiarization with the Target Socio-cultural Context

The incorporation of cultural elements into language learning has drawn great attention for a long time (Liu and Huo 2007). Kern and Warschauer (2000) note that teaching a language does not merely entails teaching four basic skills, but it also requires instructors to help learners participate in authentic social discourse situations and discourse communities which they would later encounter in real life. The developments in computer technologies such as the advent of new CALL software programs, CD-ROMs, email, the Internet, audio-visual conferencing, and so forth have enabled language instructors to implement more social elements into the process of language teaching. These facilities of computer technologies help learners to cultivate an insight into the target language and its culture; thus, they feel more confident and act comfortably when they participate in target culture contexts (Warschauer 2001). Accordingly, Lee's (1998) pilot study reports that learners acquire more cultural knowledge and develop L2 skills when Internet technologies (online newspaper and online chat rooms) are integrated into language teaching and learning. Similarly, a study by Hertel (2003) using an email exchange program to foster cultural learning, and a report by Wan (2004) describing second language socialization in a bilingual chat room indicate that learners not only develop their language skills but also acquire cultural knowledge with the help of CALL.

CALL also provides language learners with great opportunities to participate in the target social and cultural context in order to build a sense of the pragmatic knowledge required by that particular society and thus the language of it (Singh 2010). Singh further states that learners can introduce their families, countries, and cultures to their keypals through the photos, audio or video attachments they share by E-mails. Singh also maintains that by using computer-mediated communication tools such as microphones and web cameras, learners can participate in online communications resembling traditional face-to-

face conversations. Accordingly, Shumin (1997) adds that through such communications, learners are able to obtain both verbal (e.g. intonation, repetition) and nonverbal (e.g. gestures, postures) cues which are indispensable factors to cultivate social competency in the target language.

3.2.3.4. Providing Immediate Feedback and Editing Work

The recent developments in computer technologies have enabled the production of more sophisticated CALL programs which provide a lot of advantages for language learners. Jung and Kim (2004) note that one of the most significant advantages of these programs is that language learners can receive immediate and correct feedback on what they have done. Robinson (1991) further adds that contrary to language instructors, computers provide learners with the opportunity to get feedback very soon; thus, learners do not rely on instructors for feedback. Getting immediate and correct feedback is crucial for learners because they would like to obtain answers in a short period of time and see how much they have advanced.

Computers help learners to receive feedback in various ways such as visuals (a smiling or sad face), sound (applause, laughter), written text as a sort of warning or approval, and so forth. For instance, in writing classes learners can easily see their mistakes in their compositions through using a word processing program such as Microsoft Word which helps learners to see such mistakes as spelling, grammar, semantics (Dudeny and Hockly 2007). Dudeny and Hockly also maintain that learners can insert visuals into their written texts and thus make them more interesting. Another advantage of CALL programs in writing classes is that they help learners to send their written texts to their instructors and peers through the Internet in order to get some feedback and suggestions about them. Learners can, for example, send their drafts to their instructors, and instructors may give feedback for corrections and improvement for the next draft (Dudeny and Hockly 2007).

3.2.3.5. Enriching Language Learning Materials

The use of computer technology in language learning and teaching has been increasing rapidly all over the world particularly since the late 1990s because computer facilities such as word processors, language learning websites, email, chat, online tutoring, blogs, podcasts, concordances, interactive whiteboards, wireless net, and multimedia devices have started to be available worldwide. These facilities enhance language learning and create an entertaining, exciting and versatile language learning atmosphere.

With their huge capacity to store information and share it across the world, computer technology provides a lot of materials for language learning. Accordingly, Lee (2000) states that multimedia-based materials and the Internet provide a huge amount of informational, authentic and communicative sources and activities for language learning. Vilmi (1999) further adds that computers enrich language learning settings in various ways by providing a great deal of resources for both learners and instructors, which help to create a more interesting and enjoyable language learning atmosphere that promotes better language learning. Since computers technologies, particularly the Internet, facilitate the world's largest library and unlimited virtual realm, learners can use them for various purposes such as searching for information, testing their language skills, chatting with native speakers of the target language, listening to radio and other programs in the target language, downloading language learning materials and so forth (BECTA 2004; Shin and Son 2007). Beckman (1999) and Schofield (1995) note that learners can see each other, and share and exchange information and ideas through instant messaging programs and video-conferencing. These facilities of computer technologies indicate that computers incorporate various learning styles, enhance motivation, and enable learners to participate in the language learning process individually (Berge and Collins 1995).

3.2.3.6. Developing Learner Autonomy

In the past few decades, the focus of education has shifted from teaching to learning and teacher-centered education to learner-centered education partly because of the advances in computer technologies. Accordingly, it has been asserted that these advances in

computer technologies such as CALL software programs, the Internet and E-mail help foster *learner autonomy* which is defined as the willingness of learners to take the responsibility of their own learning in the process of language education (Blin 1999; Lightbown and Spada 1999; Toyoda 2001).

Considering the concept of learner autonomy, the facilities of computer technologies serve effectively in order to promote it through involving learners in authentic and meaningful language activities. It has also been noted that these facilities bring more learner-initiated interactions, more learner-centered discussion and a shift in authority from teachers to learners in language learning; thus, language learners are able to build a sense of autonomous learning during the process of language education (Balester, Halasek and Peterson 1992; Barker and Kemp 1990; Faigley 1990; Warschauer, Turbee and Roberts 1996 cited in Chiu 2008). Benson (2001) states that computer technologies, particularly the Internet, provide opportunities for interactions between L2 learners and first language users, and language learners and teachers, which is difficult to achieve in L2 learning settings. For instance, in a collaborative CALL setting where learners basically focus on meaning exchange through messages or emails, they may utilize their language knowledge learned in classroom and check their language output before sending it to the receiver (Chen 2005). It is further exemplified effectively in Benson's (2001 cited in Chiu 2008) *technology-based approaches* to the development of learner autonomy, which includes such projects as e-mail language advising (Makin 1994), student-produced video (Gardner 1994), e-mail tandem learning (Lewis, Woodin and St. John 1996), informational CD-ROMs (Guillot 1996), and electronic writing environments (Milton 1997), and so forth.

During the processes that language learners undergo while using these facilities of CALL, they take the responsibility of their own language learning and produce the language actively. It is noted that CALL provides great opportunities in terms of time flexibility and location independence (Ahmad et al. 1985; Yang 1998); thus, learners are able to determine when and how long to study. Apart from these benefits, CALL escalates learners' interest in and enthusiasm for language learning, which can motivate learners towards autonomous learning (Warschauer and Meskill 2000). As for instructors' role in language learning via CALL, Voller (1997) notes that they act as helpers, facilitators, resources, consultants, counselors, coordinators and advisers who guide learners and facilitate language learning activities in the process of language education.

3.2.3.7.Improving Language Skills

Since their use in language teaching and learning, CALL software programs have gone through a dramatic change, and therefore CALL's applications and approaches to language teaching and learning have undergone such a change as well. These changes influenced the use of CALL in language learning skills in a positive way. Greenfield (2003) notes that since CALL has numerous positive effects on language learning skills, the use of it as a medium in language learning and teaching in the last two decades has increased substantially. CALL helps learners to improve both their receptive and productive skills by offering a wide variety of language activities such as fill in the gaps, matching sentence halves, answering multiple-choice questions, writing exercises, sentence restructuring, dictation tasks, cloze tests, and so forth to language learners.

The recent advances in CALL software programs in terms of speed, power and capacity allow language learners to develop their listening skill considerably. CALL offers a great amount of authentic audio-visual materials for language learners at different language proficiency levels in order to improve their listening skill. The influence of these materials on listening skill is proved to be very fruitful via the studies conducted by different researchers. For instance, Brett (1997) investigated the usefulness of multimedia technology over audio and video equipment in developing listening skill and reached the conclusion that multimedia could address at different modalities and thus may more effectively correspond to different learning styles. Lee (2006) notes that building a good command of English sounds demands "to hear English sounds and to make sounds of English correctly in learning English." (62). Accordingly, Kenworthy (1987 cited in Lee 2006) states that one of major roles of language instructors is to help learners perceive sounds and produce them correctly. In that sense, Lee (2006) suggests that CALL can offer a lot of benefits for language learners in "listening and practicing pronunciation, sounds, stress rhythm, and intonation based on the sub-skills oriented listening activities such as practicing sounds, stress pattern, linkage and simplification, sound/spelling correspondences, and clusters of sounds"(62). CALL can also help language learners abundantly in order to improve their listening comprehension skill through the wide array of listening materials and activities it provides. It is confirmed that CALL software

programs supply a great number of enhanced listening comprehension activities to be carried out (Fox 1990; Hardisty and Windeatt 1989).

The benefits of CALL on reading skill is evident through the vast amount of materials it provides for reading and in the way how it presents reading texts. Language learners can get access to various authentic reading texts at different levels via utilizing the facilities of computer technologies such as the Internet. CALL software programs also enable reading texts to be presented via a wide combination of multimedia aids such as sound, graphics, photographs, animation, video, direct links and references to dictionaries, and glossary (Kledecka-Nadera 2001). All of these facilities of computer technologies enhance reading skill via facilitating the target language to come alive to learners who perceive it as a distant abstraction (Warschauer and Healey 1998). Kledecka-Nadera (2001) further states that text manipulation programs provide various activities for language learners, and these activities encourage learners develop an insight into the target language by helping them to become actively involved in reading texts, thus language learning.

CALL used to be considered to improve mainly receptive skills (reading and listening) but not productive skills (speaking and writing) (Zhang, 1998) since many early practitioners such as Putnam (1983), Hope (1984) and Alatis (1986) contended that computers lacked the ability to understand the enormous range of utterances possible in human language and to decipher the ambiguity in instructions. Zhang (1998) maintained that because of this inability computers cannot process and give appropriate feedback on learner language which is likely to contain some, not necessarily many, mistakes. As a result, CALL researchers began to seek other alternatives in order to overcome these barriers and develop collaborative learning settings which can help learners enhance their speaking and writing skills as well (Liu and Huo 2007).

Now, computers offer various forms of computer-based programs to be utilized either asynchronously or synchronously for writing skill (Ferris 2002). Now, e-mails, contrary to the traditional communication tools, have become the major communication mediums of choice for a lot of people, and a great number of studies have been carried out about its use in language classrooms: for asynchronous communication between learners, between learners and instructors, and between learners and others outside the classroom

(Sokolik 2001). E-mails have a great deal of influence on learners' motivation to write since e-mails provide learners a stress-free environment in order to practice what they have learned in the classroom (Warschauer 1996a; Warschauer and Healey 1998; Sullivan and Pratt 1996). Another major contribution of computers to writing skill is found in open-ended computer activities in which computer is utilized as a medium of instruction in language education to address at challenges presented by the transcription process, including handwriting or typing, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, formatting, editing, and so forth (Dalton and Hannafin 1987; Peterson-Karlan and Parette 2007). In that sense, Dalton and Hannafin (1987) and MacArthur (1986, 1988) maintain that electronic writing tools such as word processors, word prediction and word cueing programs, style analyzers, interactive prompting programs, synthesized speech programs, speech recognition programs, and spell checkers provide both a conventional resource for composing, recording and printing learners' writing and a vehicle via which writing can be analyzed, reviewed, edited, and improved. Likewise, Warschauer and Healey (1998) add that electronic tools and online dictionaries, both translating ones and monolingual ones, contribute substantially to the writing process. Language learners can also compose very creative texts through the use of visuals, which provide opportunities for learners to construct their own learning experiences pertaining to writing skill. In that aspect, there are several studies which indicate the positive impact of pictures, graphs, maps, tables on the recall and retention of information (ChanLin 2000). Bartoletti (2008) contends that learners are able to concentrate on meaning, reorganize and classify similar ideas easily, and make better use of their visual memory through the information represented spatially and visually, and therefore they feel quite motivated to write more often and foster their writing skill.

As for oral competence, audio conferencing tools serve quite well in order to encourage learners to improve their oral ability. In this respect, Wang (2004) suggests that oral-visual interaction provided by online interaction tools promote communicative skills of language learners notably, inasmuch as it offers an authentic language learning environment in which learners can orally and visually interact with native speakers of the target language. In addition, it is noted that CALL has positive impacts on learners' language performance and attitude towards language learning. Hence, CALL reinforces interaction and communication among learners, and learners and instructors through

providing authentic contexts which enable active language use (Furstenberg 1997; Warschauer 1997; Kelm 1998). Besides, since CALL meets learners' needs in terms of information sought by learners (Ayres 2002), and creates a stress-free environment for language learners, learners feel more relaxed while working with computers (Murphy 1997; Roed 2003). The results of another study conducted by Greenfield (2003 cited in Abuseileek and Bulut, 2007) show that the majority of Hong Kong 10th and 11th grade students say that computers help them improve their productive skills, namely speaking and writing, through promoting their way of thinking and motivating them for more interaction and cooperation. All of these findings reveal that the focus of interaction has shifted from learner-computer interaction to learner-learner interaction (Liu and Huo 2007).

The positive impacts of CALL on language skills, both receptive and productive, are evident through the studies carried out by different researchers. Accordingly, Liu and Huo (2007) assert that the development of both receptive and productive skills via CALL software programs is technically feasible. Moreover, realizing the potentials of computer technologies, language instructors have become more interested and willing to utilize computers as a medium in order to enhance language skills.

3.3. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the concept of "motivation" was reviewed from a perspective of literature (referring to short stories in the present study) and computers (used synonymous with CALL) in language education. Firstly, the impact of the use of literary texts on L2 motivation in the process of language teaching and learning was explicated with regard to the benefits of literary texts. Grounding on this explication, literature on the selection of appropriate literary texts was reviewed. Secondly, definitions of CALL followed by a brief history of it were presented. Finally, the benefits of CALL to language learners were explicated from vantage point of L2 motivation. The next chapter will present the methodology for the study.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methodology applied in the present study is explicated. Firstly, the objectives and the hypotheses under investigation are stated, and then the design of the study followed by the data collections tools and the pilot study conducted to measure the reliability and validity of the instruments are presented. Next, the main study is explained with reference to its setting, participants, and data collection instruments. Besides, the materials and activities used are introduced preceding the part where a sample lesson is provided in order to shed light on how the lessons were carried out. In the last two parts of the chapter, the data collection procedure and the analysis of the data collected are explained.

4.1. OBJECTIVES AND HYPOTHESES

The main objective of the present study was to firstly find out the impact of the integration of short stories into Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) on the motivation level of the students studying English as a foreign language at English Language Teaching Department (ELT) at Dicle University. This study also aimed to investigate the effects of students' gender, frequency of the Internet use, computer self-efficacy perception and frequency of short story reading on their motivation level to learn English. This study sought answers to the following hypotheses:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of Experimental and Control Groups.

H₁₁: There is a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of Experimental and Control Groups.

H₁₂: There is a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and the posttest.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Control Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest.

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Experimental Group.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Experimental Group.

H₀₅: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Control Group.

H₀₆: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Control Group.

H₀₇: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Experimental Group.

H₀₈: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Experimental Group.

H₀₉: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Control Group.

H₀₁₀: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Control Group.

H₀₁₁: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Experimental Group.

H₀₁₂: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Experimental Group.

H₀13: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Control Group.

H₀14: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Control Group.

H₀15: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Experimental Group.

H₀16: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Experimental Group.

H₀17: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Control Group.

H₀18: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Control Group.

4.2. DESIGN OF THE STUDY

In the present study, an experimental research design type identified as “*Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design*” was implemented. In a pretest-posttest control group design, there are two randomly selected groups, namely (a) Treatment I group (‘Experimental Group’ hereafter) and (b) Treatment II group (‘Control Group’ hereafter). The pretest-posttest control group study employs randomization in the selection of its subjects (participants) and control for extraneous influences of variation on the dependent variable concerned (Campbell and Stanley 1963; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009). In its simplest form, subjects in the both groups are scored on a test before and after one of the groups receives a treatment which is considered as the independent variable (Dugard and

Todman 1995: 181). Below is the symbolic representation of the pretest-posttest control group design:

	<u><i>Time 1</i></u>		<u><i>Time 2</i></u>
R	O₁	X	O₂
R	O₃		O₄

Where	R	=	Randomly Selected
	E	=	Experimental Group
	C	=	Control Group
	O	=	Observation or Measurement
	X	=	Treatment

The major stipulation in the pretest-posttest control group design is that the subjects must be randomly assigned to groups (Experimental or Control) in order to properly isolate and nullify any nuisance or confounding variables (Campbell and Stanley 1963). This kind of selection guarantees that all subjects have the same chance of being either in the experimental or in the Control Group. It is also assumed that the two groups are equivalent on the basis of all important dimensions and that there are no systematic differences between the two groups, hence diminishing the effect(s) of the variables induced by the participants of the study and warranting internal validity (Campbell and Stanley 1963; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2009). In addition to the randomization in the selection of its subjects, the pretest-posttest Control Group design can employ blind trial (single-blind, double-blind, or triple-blind) in its implementation where some of the people participating in the experiment are prevented from knowing some certain information in order to eliminate any conscious or subconscious bias on their part that might invalidate the results obtained (Vogt and Johnson 2011: 34). In a single-blind trial, the subjects do not know whether they are given a test treatment or control treatment, and this is done in order to ensure that the subjects do not bias the results by acting in ways that they ‘think’ they should act, whereas the researchers are informed about the facts hidden from the subjects. In contrast to the single-blind trial, in the double-blind trial, neither the participants nor the researchers know who belongs to the Control Group and the Experimental Group since it is aimed to lessen the impacts of any prejudices or unintentional physical cues that might interfere with the results obtained (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Blind_experiment). As for

the triple-blind trial, when those administering the treatment and those receiving it and those analyzing the results do not know who received the treatment, then the procedure is called triple-blinded (Vogt and Johnson 2011: 34).

In the pretest-posttest control group design, both the Experimental Group and the Control Group experience the same conditions; however, the Experimental Group is exposed to the influence of an independent variable (treatment) in addition to the shared conditions of the two groups. The both groups' scores on the dependent variable are measured at Time 1, and then the subjects in the Experimental Group are exposed to the independent variable. After a specific length of time, the scores on the dependent variable are measured again at Time 2 for both the Experimental Group and the Control Group. In such studies, nothing but the intervention of the independent variable (treatment) is posited to produce the observed changes in the values of the dependent variable.

Basing on the theoretical frame of the pretest-posttest control group design explained above, the present study involves an Experimental and a Control Group whose participants were randomly assigned. Of the 65 students studying at Dicle University within the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Ziya Gokalp Faculty of Education, 35 of them ($N_{\text{Male}}=13$; $N_{\text{Female}}=22$) were randomly assigned to the Experimental Group while 30 of them ($N_{\text{Male}}=12$; $N_{\text{Female}}=18$) were randomly assigned to the Control Group. Besides, neither of the groups knew which group was subjected to the test treatment and which group to the control treatment; however, the experimenter who, at the same time, analyzed the data obtained knew which group received what sort of treatment, hence revealing a single-blind trial.

In the whole process of the study, some basic steps which are identified as the major characteristics of the pretest-posttest control group design were followed. Table 4.1 presents detailed information about all the steps pursued in both of the groups:

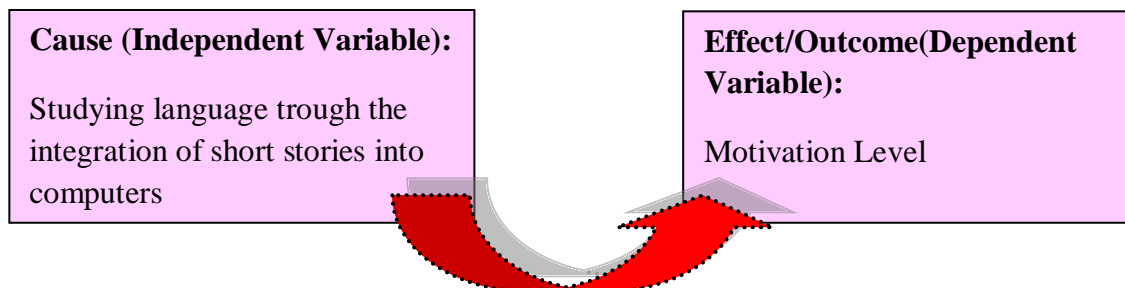
Table 4.1 Steps Pursued in the Study

STEPS	PROCEDURE		AIM
	Experimental Group	Control Group	
Step 1	Random assignment for Experimental Group	Random assignment for Control Group	To control subject characteristics threat to internal validity
Step 2	PRETEST: Questionnaire 1: EMS Questionnaire 2: CSSIS	PRETEST: Questionnaire 1: EMS	To measure the degree of the dependent variable before the treatment
Step 3	Treatment: studying language through integration of short stories into computers	No treatment: conventional teaching approach	To influence the dependent variable
Step 4	POSTTEST: Questionnaire 1: EMS Questionnaire 2: CSSIS Interview	POSTTEST: Questionnaire 1: EMS	To measure the degree of change

In the initial step of the study, the subjects were randomly assigned to the groups, and then the subjects in the Experimental Group completed two questionnaires (see Appendix 1: English Motivation Scale and Appendix 2: Computer and Short Story Scale) which were their pretests while the subjects in the Control Group completed only one of the questionnaires (English Motivation Scale) measuring their available motivation level to learn the English language. Following the pretest step, the participants of Experimental Group were subjected to a two-month study in which they carried out various language learning tasks and activities through the integration of short stories into computer technologies (the treatment used in the study) while the participants of the Control Group were subjected to a two-month study in which they did conventional (traditional) language learning activities and tasks. The rationale behind the distinction between the types of activities and tasks implemented in the groups was to observe the impact of the integration of short stories into computer technologies on students' motivation level, which acted as the treatment given to the Experimental Group in the present study. In the final step of the study, both of the groups received the same questionnaires that they completed in the pretest step, but with a different purpose in which the questionnaires acted as the posttest of the study. The reason behind utilizing the same questionnaire in the pretest and posttest phases of the study was to measure the degree of change in the participants' motivation

level to learn the English language (the dependent variable in the present study). Figure 4.1 indicates the relation between the independent and dependent variables of this study:

Figure 4.1 Relation between Independent Variable and Dependent Variable



As indicated in Figure 1, it was assumed that there was a strong cause-effect relationship between the variables concerned (independent and dependent) in that studying language via the integration of short stories into computers was considered to cause the degree of change in the motivation level of the students participating in the study.

4.3. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

4.3.1. Rationale for Data Collection Tools

The present pretest-posttest control group experimental research study was grounded on a *mixed methods research design* in terms of data collection tools. In recent years, mixed methods research design has become increasingly popular in research practices and has been identified as the third major research approach or research paradigm, along with qualitative research and quantitative research (Johnson Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007: 112). In fact, the third research paradigm has been given a variety of names since its inception in research history: blended research (Thomas 2003), integrative research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004), multi-methods research (Hunter and Brewer 2003; Morse 2003), triangulated studies (Sandelowski 2003), and mixed methods research (Johnson 2006; Johnson and Christensen 2004). Of these expressions, *mixed methods research* has become the most popular term used to identify this research paradigm, and a

number of descriptions have been suggested by different researchers and scholars in order to define the term.

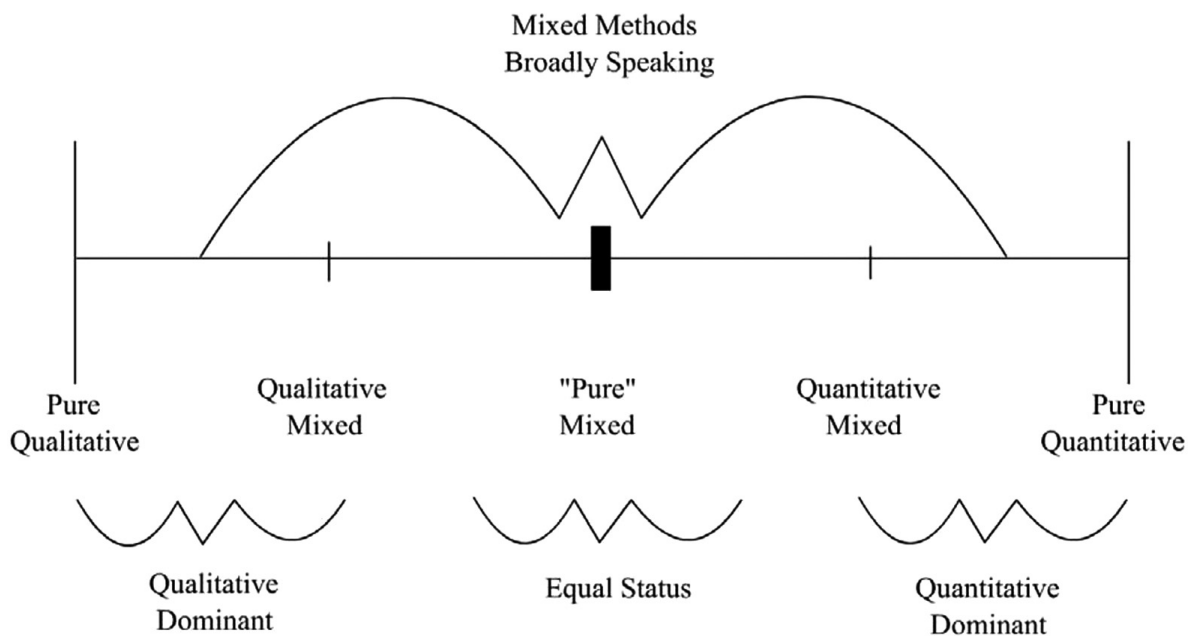
Creswell and Plano Clark define mixed method research design as focusing “on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies” (2007: 5). Similarly, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) state that mixed methods research refers to the type of research where researchers or scholars blend or combine quantitative and qualitative data collection techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study or set of related studies. Likewise, Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner describe mixed methods research design as:

“Mixed methods research is the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration.” (2007: 112)

Mixed methods research design constitutes the basis for the data collection and data analysis of the present study. This is because mixed methods research design is stated to have a lot of advantages over single method research design. In that respect, Jick (1979) and Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) suggest a number of outstanding points as the benefits of the mixed methods research paradigm: (a) It enables researchers to obtain more reliable data. (b) It can validate and explicate findings from another approach and produce more comprehensive, internally consistent, and valid findings. (c) It can lead to thicker and richer data. (d) It can provide breadth and corroboration, hence augmenting better and deeper understanding of the problem under investigation and positing richer and more meaningful data related to the hypotheses propounded. (e) It can lead to the synthesis or integration of theories or serve as litmus test for competing theories.

Mixed methods research design can be considered as encompassing several overlapping groups of mixed methods researchers or types of mixed methods research (see Figure 4.2), and it is noted that the selection of the these types may vary depending on the purpose(s) of the study.

Figure 4.2 Graphic of the Three Major Research Paradigms, Including Subtypes of Mixed Methods Research (cited in Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007: 112-133.)



Looking at the qualitative-quantitative continuum in the figure, it is clear that mixed methods research design has three major types: qualitative dominant, quantitative dominant and equal status. The area around the center of the continuum, *equal status*, represents the home for researchers who take the logic and philosophy of mixed methods research as their initial point to conduct their studies (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie 2004). These researchers believe that blending qualitative and quantitative data and paradigms add insights into the study as one takes most, if not all, hypotheses into consideration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007).

The second type of mixed methods research suggested in the figure is labeled as *qualitative dominant mixed methods research* in which researchers rely on qualitative data while concurrently recognizing that including quantitative data and approaches are likely to contribute to the study significantly (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner 2007).

The third and final type of mixed methods research that stems from the continuum shown in Figure 1 is named as *quantitative dominant mixed methods research*. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007) define quantitative dominant mixed methods research as:

“Quantitative dominant mixed methods research is the type of mixed research in which one relies on a quantitative, postpositivist view of the research process, while concurrently recognizing that the addition of qualitative data and approaches are likely to benefit most research projects.” (124)

Basing on the theoretical frame of mixed methods research design presented above, the quantitative-dominant mixed methods research type has been preferred in the present study since it was thought that mixed methods research incorporating both the quantitative and qualitative methods would be the most appropriate design in order to obtain more reliable and valid data and shed further light on the hypotheses in concern.

To collect data about the background of the participants, their motivation level to learn English language, and the impact of the integration of short stories with computers on the motivation level of the students, two different questionnaires (see Appendices A/D and Appendices B/E) were applied and the results of the questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively. The preference of questionnaire as data collection instrument in the present research study relies on its outstanding markedness and superiority in social sciences. In that respect, Oppenheim (1992) states that in recent years, the questionnaire has overwhelmed other data collection tools in terms of popularity. He further maintains that the questionnaire allows researchers to administer them simultaneously to large groups of participants efficiently.

In order to cast further light on the hypotheses under investigation and complement the data coverage in the subject, semi-structured face-to-face interviews (see Appendices C/F) were conducted with the students and the data collected were analyzed qualitatively. Consequently, it is obvious that both quantitative and qualitative data sets were employed in order to gather data; however, the quantitative paradigm was dominant over the qualitative paradigm.

4.3.2. Questionnaire

Questionnaires are quantitative data collection tools and they are utilized to obtain factual data about the hypotheses under investigation (Oppenheim 1992; Leung 2001: 187). Questionnaires are primarily employed in research studies in order to collect data related to individual differences such as attitudes, motivation, learner strategies and personality (Shekan 1989 cited in Özek 2000). Leung (2001) and Oppenheim (1992) further maintain that there are different types of questionnaires encompassing open-ended and closed (multiple choice and Likert-type) questions. Open-ended questions enable participants to write their own answers, and thus allow researchers to explore a possible range of themes in an issue while closed questions ask the participants to choose among the answers or degree categories predetermined by researchers (Baker 1994), and thus have been criticized for forcing the participants to choose their answers from the alternatives provided rather than answering in their own words (Converse and Presser 1986). Converse and Presser further add that closed questions are, however, more specific than open-ended ones, and therefore are more likely to communicate to the participants and collect reliable and valid data concerned with differences among the participants. Besides that, closed questions are easier and faster to answer, record, analyze, and report; hence, they are more preferable than open-ended questions.

In the present study, two different questionnaires were employed, and the language learning motivation items (except for the last 6 items in the second questionnaire) included in the questionnaires were directly taken or adapted from or inspired by the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (1985: 177-184) and the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: International AMTB Research Project (2004) devised by Gardner. The AMTB was developed over a period of more-than-20-year research primarily directed to the investigation of English-speaking students learning French as a second language. The AMTB has been utilized in a variety of forms, that is the original composition of the major concepts in addition to original items were devised by Gardner (1958; 1960 cited in Gardner 1985) and extended by Gardner and Lambert (1972 cited in Gardner 1985). The present version which followed the full scale item composition and concern with internal consistency reliability of the sub-tests was initiated by Gardner and Lambert (1975 cited in Gardner 1985). A summary of the initial cross validation is presented by Gardner and

Smythe (1981 cited in Gardner 1985). Keeping its long process of development and overwhelming use in research studies at the back of our minds, the AMTB is reported to have high reliability and validity (Gardner 1985; Gardner and Smythe 1981) Following is detailed information about the questionnaires used in the present study and how they were developed and formed:

1. *English Motivation Scale (EMS)* (see Appendices A/D) applied in the present study consisted of two different parts: (1) In the first part, there were 12 items written by the researcher, and these items aimed at seeking *background information* pertaining to the participants' gender, age, type of high school they graduated from, characteristics in relation to computers and characteristics in relation to short stories. (2) In the second part, there were 24 items directly taken or adapted from the AMTB, and these items were designed to measure the participants' motivation level to learn the English language.

2. *Computer and Short Story Integration Scale (CSSIS)* (see Appendices B/E) included 26 items which measured the participants' motivation level related to the integration of short stories into computer technologies (used synonymous with CALL in the present study). Of these items, 20 of them (1-20) were adapted from the AMTB and 6 of them (21-26) were developed by the researcher.

The motivation scales of the original 7-point Likert Scale format of Gardner's AMTB were adapted to a 5-point scale, ranging from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree". Considering the troubles and problems that might emerge due to poor understanding of the items, the questionnaires were prepared in the participants' first language (L1: Turkish) along with its original version in English. The questionnaires were also subjected to a pilot study in order to determine whether the instructions were clear enough, to check that the items were comprehensible and unambiguous, and to allow the researcher eliminate items that lacked yielding usable data, thus warranting reliability and validity values of the questionnaires.

4.3.3. Interview

The second instrument implemented in the present study was a semi-structured face-to-face interview (see Appendix C/F) which enabled the researcher to obtain qualitative data that complemented the data coverage of the present study. Being one of the most prevalent data collection tools, interviews are considered as among the most powerful tools used to understand and collect data about the participants' points of view, beliefs, and attitudes related to the hypotheses under investigation. Best and Kahn (1998) assert that because of its interactive nature, interviewing has many advantages over other types of data collection instruments. In that respect, Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that interviews enhance the survey instrument by providing better understanding of contexts, inasmuch as they offer more down-to-earth descriptions and explanations for the quantitative data in the study.

Another reason for utilizing semi-structured face-to-face interview in the present study is to gather in-depth data about the hypotheses investigated, and thus to compensate for the limitations of the questionnaires employed in the study. Fontana and Frey (2005 cited in Denzin and Lincoln 2005) note that in semi-structured interview, the interviewer has an interviewing guide which usually includes both closed-ended and open-ended questions prepared beforehand; however, in the course of the interview, the interviewer has a certain amount of room in which (s)he can adjust the sequence of the questions to be asked and to add further questions depending on the context of the participants' responses.

As the present study focused on the impact of the incorporation of short stories into computer technologies on the motivation level of students, it was thought that semi-structured face-to-face interview would contribute to the data-richness of the study and hence assist the researcher in obtaining more valid and reliable data. The interview questions prepared by the researcher were grounded on the objectives and hypotheses of the study. The interview questions were prepared by the researcher before the pilot study, and then applied in the pilot study in order to check whether or not they served efficiently for the aforementioned objectives of the study. In addition, the interviews were conducted in the participants' mother tongue in order to avoid any language barrier or trouble that might prevent the participants from expressing their opinions related to the questions asked during the interview.

4.4. PILOT STUDY

4.4.1. Objectives

The pilot was carried out in order to decipher any possible problems that might appear during the experiment, the implementation of the questionnaires and the interview and the evaluation of the data gathered. In that sense, the pilot study enabled the researcher to make the necessary corrections and/or alterations and complete the possible gaps that might have been overlooked by the researcher. Another significant purpose of the pilot study was to determine the possible problems that the participants might have while using the computer-based programs of the main study in order to carry out language learning tasks or activities that incorporate short stories.

Apart from the reasons stated above, the pilot study was also conducted in order to test the reliability of the questionnaires and the interview, which is postulated to be of great importance. Keeping this notion at the back of our minds, the pilot study aimed at casting light on how to shape the whole design of the study, hence enabling the researcher “to save time and money in the end” (Oppenheim, 1992: 64). In the following parts, the procedures applied in the pilot study will be explicated.

4.4.2. Setting and Participants

For the pilot study, 30 second-grade volunteer students studying at Dicle University within the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Ziya Gokalp Faculty of Education participated in the study. Of the students taking part in the pilot study, 20 of them were female while 10 of them were male, reflecting the natural demographic distribution of gender in ELT departments in Turkey. At the time of the study, the students had been studying English for more than 5 years and had passed a very challenging university placement test enabling them to train to be teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), hence having similar background with the participants in the main study. The study lasted two weeks, starting on October 3, 2011 and finishing on October 16, 2011.

4.4.3. Instruments

In the pilot study, English Motivation Scale (EMS), Computer and Short Story Integration Scale (CSSIS) and semi-structured face-to-face interview introduced in the former parts were employed as data collection instruments.

EMS consisted of two parts: The first part which had 12 items aimed at gathering data about the participants' profile in relation to their gender, age, high school from which they graduated, computer technologies, and short stories. Except for two items, the other items had some response categories from which the participants were expected to choose. Of these items, four of them (1, 7, 8, 11) will be used as the main study's variables across which the motivation level of the participants in the main study would be compared. Below are two of these items which were reshaped after the pilot study:

Item 7. How many hours per week do you use computers?

Less than 5 hours 5-9 Hours 10-14 Hours 15-14 Hours Over 20 Hours

Item 11. How often do you read short stories?

Always Often Sometimes Rarely Never

In the second part of EMS, there were 24 items directly taken or adapted from Gardner's AMTB (1985) which had been used in a variety of studies and reported to have a high degree of reliability and validity. EMS had two negative items (Item 4 and Item 16) which aimed at measuring the participants' language motivation level in addition to acting as the control items that guaranteed whether or not the participants read the items while completing the questionnaire.

CSSIS, the second questionnaire used in the pilot study, included 26 items in total, and of these items, the first 20 items (1-20) were adapted from the AMTB while the last 6 of them (21-26) were developed by the researcher. Below are the items developed by the researcher:

- Item 21.* In English language learning, I would prefer to do activities other than the ones in which short stories are integrated into computers.
- Item 22.* Using short stories through computers in English language learning makes me more active in the process of language learning.
- Item 23.* Using short stories through computers in English language learning is much more enjoyable than the traditional language learning techniques.
- Item 24.* Reading short stories on the computer screen is much more enjoyable than reading them on the paper.
- Item 25.* Since using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my vocabulary knowledge, it attracts my attention.
- Item 26.* Since using short stories through computers in English language learning improves my grammar knowledge, it is very important.

Of these 26 items, 20 of them were positively worded while 6 of them were negatively worded.

The items in the second part of EMS and CSSIS were all closed-ended, and the participants were asked to respond to them via using the 5-point Likert scale with response categories ranging from “Strongly Agree” to “Strongly Disagree”. Oppenheim (1992) contends that the most common and readily employed scaled questions encompass the use of the Likert-type answer scale because they allow the participants to choose among the several degrees of feeling pertaining to a statement from “strong approval” to “strong disapproval”.

As for the semi-structured face-to-face interview, the researcher developed 10 questions (see Appendix 3) in order to obtain qualitative data concerned with the participants’ opinions and perceptions related to integrating short stories into computer

technologies and the impact of this integration on their language motivation level. Another reason for applying semi-structured face-to-face interview in the study was to collect data related to the process that the participants had undergone. It was assumed that gathering qualitative data would help the researcher to draw a clearer picture of the hypotheses under investigation. In order to test the validity and reliability of the interview questions, 6 of the students participating in the pilot study were interviewed at the end of the pilot study. The responses of the students were transcribed and evaluated for any kind of ambiguity or irrelevance. Besides, the interview questions aimed at obtaining data about what problems the participants might have while carrying out activities or tasks through the computer-based programme that would be used in the main study.

4.4.4. Procedures for Data Collection

Before conducting the pilot study, the students were briefly informed about the purpose, content and duration of the study, and 30 volunteer students were randomly chosen in order to participate in the study. In the initial phase of the study, the students were given the both questionnaires to complete. After completing the questionnaires, the students participated in a two-week study in which they carried out a variety of activities and tasks similar to the ones that would be conducted in the main study. In the first week, the computer-based programs to be used in the main study were introduced to the students. Below is a brief description of these programmes and the steps followed in the tutorial:

“*JingTM*” is a computer-based programme that help users capture any image or video that they see on their computer monitor. Apart from that, *JingTM* encompasses several features that enable users to add some other elements to what they have captured. These features of *JingTM* are suggested as:

Figure 4.3 Features of Jing™ (Retrieved January 2nd, 2012 from <http://www.techsmith.com/jing-features.html>)



Make a point.

Need to emphasize or explain? Mark up your screenshot with a **text box, arrow, highlight, or rectangle.**



Share instantly.

Just tell Jing where to send the screenshot and it's there and ready to share. When you send to a destination like Screencast.com or Flickr, **Jing even places a hyperlink on your clipboard.**



No need to wait.

Simply paste the link into an **IM, e-mail, forum post, anywhere...** and when the person clicks it they see your freshly-uploaded screenshot.

Jing for Screencasts

Record what you see (and do).

Select a window or region and Jing will record everything that appears in that area. Point to things with your mouse, scroll, flip through photos, click around in a website or application... Jing captures it.

Jing videos are limited to 5 minutes for instant, focused communication.

Instantly share Jing video on:

[Screencast.com](#)
[twitter](#)
[facebook](#)
[YouTube](#)





Narrate on the fly.

If your computer has a microphone, Jing can record your commentary at the same time. Since everyone prefers short and sweet, recording time is capped at 5 minutes.



Share at the speed of conversation.

As soon as you're done recording, your screencast movie is ready to upload. The moment it's on Screencast.com, you've got a link ready to paste and share.



Want options?

Jing can put Screencast.com embed code on your clipboard instead of a link. Or you can save the SWF Flash video to a directory or FTP/SFTP site.

“Screencast.com” is TechSmith’s media hosting solution, and it allows its users to create an account in order to upload their documents or files and then share them with other users. The benefits of screencast.com are posited as (<http://www.techsmith.com/tutorial-jing-what-is-screencastcom.html>): (a) It allows users to save their content as it is, thus preventing compression, loss of quality, and resizing. (b) It enables users to determine the privacy level of their content. (c) It allows viewers to comment on each other’s content. (d)

It returns convenient, small links to users' content. They are easy to paste or even re-type if someone has to. (e) It allows users to return embed codes automatically. It enables bloggers or people who want to provide viewers with Jing images or videos right on their site (as opposed of a user having to click a link and leave the page). (f) Users can attach files to their content. For example, it enables people to view others' Jing videos and download an accompanying PDF or ZIP file. (g) Users can track the number of times people have viewed their content. Users can even sort by what is most or least popular.

As for the tutorial, it was grounded on the following steps (Bekleyen and Yılmaz, 2011: 421):

- How to download the program to the computers,
- How to use the program to capture images and videos,
- How to add texts, colors, arrows or highlighting to the pictures,
- How to Save the pictures and videos,
- How to create an account using in "screencast"
- How to share the pictures and videos through their "screencast" accounts, or place the links of recordings in an e-mail,

In the second week of the study, the students were sent a short story written in English through the researcher's "screencast" account. The students downloaded the story to their computers in the laboratory, and carried out the four different activities and tasks related to the story. The activities were designed in three stages: pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading activities/tasks. In the activities, the students described the setting and protagonist of the story, twisted the end of the story and summarized the whole story via the use of pictures or videos captured by JingTM.

After the two-week application through JingTM and screencastTM and the short story, 6 of the students were interviewed, and the interviews were recorded in order to test the validity and reliability of the interview questions after their transcription. The questionnaires were not employed in the post-test phase of the pilot study since the goal of the pilot was not to determine the degree of the significance between the pre-test and post-test but rather to investigate the validity and reliability of the questionnaires.

4.4.5. Data Analysis

The data obtained via the research tools, namely EMS and CSSIS, were fed into a computer and analyzed with the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 17.0) for Windows. In order to analyze the consistency (reliability) of the questionnaires, a reliability analysis was carried out through SPSS.

As for the validity and reliability of the interview questions, the recorded interviews were transcribed and subjected to content analysis in order shed light on whether there was any irrelevance or ambiguity in the questions. Besides, after conducting the interviews, the students were asked if they had any problems with understanding any of the interview questions they were asked.

4.4.6. Findings and Conclusion

Of the 12 items in the first part of EMS, two of them (Item 7 and Item 11) did not receive any responses for some of the anchors among which the participants were expected to choose. As a result, some of the degrees were merged together in order to subject the items to the appropriate test type in the main study and utilize them as the variables across which the participants' language motivation level would be compared. Following is how these two items were reshaped:

Item 8. How many hours per week do you use computers?

Less than 8 hours 8-14 hours 15 hours and over

Item 13. How often do you read short stories?

Often Sometimes Never

To analyze the reliability of the second part of EMS and CSSIS, Cronbach Alpha values for each of the questionnaires were measured (see Table 4.2):

Table 4.2 Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient for EMS and CSSIS

Questionnaires	Cronbach's Alpha Value
English Motivation Scale (EMS)	.914
Computer and Short Story Integration Scale (CSSIS)	.952

According to the results indicated in Table 4.2, both of the questionnaires had sufficient enough reliability to be employed in further studies.

As for the validity and reliability of the interview questions, the students' responses to the questions revealed that the questions were relevant to objectives of the study and had no ambiguity. Besides, the students participating in the interview reported that they had no problem in terms of understanding the questions asked during the interviews, hence indicating no problem that might result in poor understanding of the questions.

As the pilot study reveals, the data collection tools that were designed to be used in the main study had high degree of consistency, hence warranting their feasibility and applicability for the main study.

4.5. MAIN STUDY

4.5.1. Setting

The study was carried out at Dicle University in Turkey within the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Ziya Gokalp Faculty of Education in the Fall Semester of 2011-2012 academic year. The ELT Department was considered to serve as an appropriate research setting as the teacher-training programme pursued in the department included an Advanced Reading and Writing Course, which conveniently allowed the application of a variety of reading, writing and speaking activities for research objectives. This assisted the researcher in abstaining from any artificiality bias in the classroom setting and hence on the data collected, for the activities were naturally incorporated into the classroom

procedures. In addition, since the researcher was employed in the same department and had constant access to the participants and classes, he could provide the participants with assistance whenever they needed. Moreover, since the ELT Department had a computer laboratory with 40 computers, it was considered to serve quite effectively for the purpose of the present study.

4.5.2. Participants

The study was conducted with 65 first-year students studying at Dicle University within the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Ziya Gökalp Faculty of Education. The students were randomly divided into two distinct groups, the Experimental Group and the Control Group. However, in terms of gender almost equal numbers of students were distributed to each group. The distribution of the sampling in relation to gender in each group is provided in Table 4.3 below:

Table 4.3 Demographic Information about Participants' Gender

Category	Level	<i>F</i>	%
Experimental Group	<i>Female</i>	22	62.9
	<i>Male</i>	13	37.1
	<i>Total</i>	35	100
Control Group	<i>Female</i>	18	60
	<i>Male</i>	12	40
	<i>Total</i>	30	100
Both of the Groups	<i>Female</i>	40	61.5
	<i>Male</i>	25	38.5
	<i>Total</i>	65	100

F: Frequency; %: percentage

Of the 65 first-year students who participated in the study, 25 of them (38.5%) were male while 40 of them (61.5%) were female, which is not surprising because it reflects the natural demographic gender distribution in ELT departments in Turkey. In the

Experimental Group, there were 35 students in total, and 22 of them (62.9%) were female while 13 of them (37.1%) were male. In the Control Group, there were 30 students in total, and 18 of them (60%) were female while 12 of them (40%) were male.

The students participating in the study were aged between 18 to 35. Table 4.4 shows the distribution frequencies of the students in the both groups across age:

Table 4.4 Demographic Information about Participants' Age

Category	Level	<i>F</i>	%
Experimental Group	<i>18-22</i>	31	88.6
	<i>23-27</i>	3	8.6
	<i>28-over</i>	1	2.9
Control Group	<i>18-22</i>	27	90.0
	<i>23-27</i>	2	6.7
	<i>28-over</i>	1	3.3

F: Frequency; %: percentage

Table 3.5 indicates that of the 35 Experimental Group students, the majority of them were aged between 18 to 22 while merely 3 of them (8.6%) were between 23 to 27 and 1 of them (2.9%) was over 28. As for the Control Group students, 27 of them (90.0%) were between 18-22 whereas only 2 of them (6.7%) were between 23 to 27 and 1 of them (3.3%) was over 28. The figures related to the participants' age reflect that the groups had similar distributions across age.

As for the participants' language proficiency level, they had, on average, an upper-intermediate level of English language proficiency. The participants attended the university after having passed a very challenging university placement test certifying a minimum upper-intermediate level of English proficiency at the onset of a four-year teacher training programme and had been studying English for more than 4 years at the time of the study. The participants were all pursuing the same teacher training curriculum that aimed at training them to be EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers.

4.5.3. Instruments

To investigate the hypotheses in the main study, three different data collection instruments were employed: English Motivation Scale (EMS), Computer and Short Story Integration Scale (CSSIS) and a semi-structured face-to-face interview which were subjected to a pilot study.

EMS consisted of two parts: (a) The first part had 12 items and aimed at seeking data about the participants' characteristics in relation to their gender, age, high school from which they graduated, computers, and short stories. (b) The second part aimed to gather data about the participants' language learning motivation. It was directly taken or adapted from Gardner's Attitude and Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) (1985) and had 24 items with Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient .914 obtained through the pilot study. It was designed as a 5-point Likert scale with response categories of: *strongly agree, agree, no idea, disagree, strongly disagree*.

CSSIS measures how the integration of short stories into computer technologies (used synonymous with CALL) influence the language motivation level of the participants. The scale incorporated 26 items in total, 20 of which were directly taken or adapted from AMTB and 6 of which were developed by the researcher. The items were rated on a 5-point scale with the same anchors as those in the second part of EMS. The scale was subjected to reliability analysis in the pilot study, and Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was found to be .952, hence indicating a high reliability (Büyüköztürk 2002).

Finally, in order to obtain further data about the hypotheses in concern and enrich the data coverage of the present study, a semi-structured interview was conducted with 12 ($N_{\text{Female}}=7$ and $N_{\text{Male}}=5$) of the students participating in the Experimental Group. The interview had 10 questions concerned with the objectives of the study, and the questions were piloted to 6 students in order to determine whether they were relevant to the study and had any ambiguities. The participants of the pilot study reported that they had no difficulty or problem in terms of understanding the questions; hence, they were used for the data collection procedure of the study without making any changes on them.

4.5.4. Materials

The present experimental research study incorporates two different groups, namely Experimental Group and Control Group. Consequently, the materials and thus the activities used in each group differed from each other.

In the Control Group, in general teacher-prepared language learning materials that met the characteristics of the traditional language learning and teaching methods and techniques were used (see *Appendix H* for the sample materials used in the Control Group).. The texts to be read and utilized for the ascribed activities were prepared by the researcher, and the activities and tasks to be done were designed in such a way that they matched with the ones used in the Experimental Group, hence avoiding any bias that might result from the differences between rationales behind the types of activities. In other words, the activities were designed with the aim of teaching the same language learning points; however, the materials and consequently the flow of the activities/tasks used to achieve these objectives differed between the groups.

In the Experimental Group, a number of computer/internet-based programmes and classic short stories written by well-known authors were used together in order to measure the impact of the integration of short stories into computers on students' motivation level. Following are the materials used in the Experimental Group:

Computer/Internet-based Programmes

The present study mainly utilized three different computer/internet-based programmes: JingTM, Screencast.comTM, and Instant Messaging.

JingTM is a free and downloadable computer program that allows users to capture a picture or video of what they see on their computer monitor. As introduced in the pilot study, *JingTM* incorporates several features that provide users with a variety of opportunities to carry out different and various activities and tasks that augment their language learning process. It is also possible to share these recordings through social networking sites or send the links of recordings via an e-mail.

*Screencast.com*TM is, as aforementioned in the pilot study, a free social-networking site that enables users to upload various recordings and share them with other users. It also allows users to comment on or give feedback about each other's works, and thus provides interaction between users in order to enhance the efficiency and quality of language learning tasks and activities (see Figure 1 for a sample image prepared by a student nicknamed Murat).

Figure 4.4 A sample image taken from one of the participants' *Screencast* account

The screenshot displays a user's profile page on Screencast.com. The top navigation bar shows 'Murat's Library' and the current video title 'a dead woman's secret > letters'. The video player shows a close-up of a handwritten letter with a red-bordered text box containing the following text:

Her father opened the package with his shaking hands. It was going to be a surprise for them. Suddenly many family pictures fell on the ground from his hands. The one from her childhood with her smiling cute face was on the top of the pictures. The father bended slowly and took it by crying. He was not able to stop his tears. His lovely daughter were not going to smile like that anymore. All family members took one of the pictures. They also started think about her and cried silently. Time was stopped for them. Every second that passes was like a knife that stabs them. All they feel was pain.

Below the video player, there are three tabs: 'Comments', 'Details', and 'Share'. The 'Comments' tab is active, showing three comments:

- Recipient** (Nov 17, 2011 - 3:38 PM): be sure it is better than mine;-)))
- The Teacher** (Nov 18, 2011 - 4:11 AM): Very effective ending for the story! Be careful with the following points:
Her lovely daughter WAS not going
They also started TO THINK/THINKING
Every second that PASSED was like a knife that STABBED THEM IN THE HEART.
- Murat** (Nov 22, 2011 - 7:53 AM, Content Owner): Thank you sir. I have realized my mistakes.

At the bottom of the comments section, there is a 'Post a Comment' button.

Instant Messaging programmes ('Windows Live Messenger' formerly known as MSN, gmail, yahoo) were used in conjunction with *Screencast.com* to send and receive the links of the recordings so that the students could get access to recordings shared with them.

After uploading their recordings into their Screencast.com accounts, the students sent them to their friends and their friends made comment on these recordings.

The Stories

In the present study, three different classic short stories chosen by the researcher were used: *A Dead Woman's Secret* by Guy de Maupassant, *Eveline* by James Joyce, *Hills like White Elephants* by Ernest Hemingway.

The selection of the short stories was based on three main criteria that met the research purposes of the study (Nuttall, 1996): suitability, exploitability, readability.

Suitability is concerned with whether the stories attract the students' interest and attention, which is considered to be of great importance in terms of enhancing the students' language learning motivation. In that sense, the stories were chosen carefully to actuate interest in the readers in order to abstain from a sense of burden and boredom (Erten & Karakaş, 2007). Besides, since the topics dealt with in the stories were related to real-life phenomena and relevant to the students' lives, they were assumed to draw the participants' attention.

Exploitability is related to implementing the stories in such a way that they should foster the participants' linguistic and communicative competences. In that aspect, the stories' length and frame were deemed convenient to carry out the activities ascribed for the study within the time allocated for each story.

Readability pertains to the complexity level of the grammatical structures and the number of unknown words used in the stories. Since the students might feel discouraged and unwilling to participate in the activities and tasks because of the high number of complex sentence structures and new vocabulary in the stories, the stories were carefully chosen in order to meet that particular criterion. Keeping this notion at the back our minds, the stories used in the present study were at an appropriate level of language complexity, hence serving effectively for the research objectives of the study.

4.5.5. Activities Used

In the study, several types of reading, writing and speaking activities described by different authors in the field (Wallace 1992; Lazar 1993; Collie and Slater 1987; Cunningsworth 1984) were designed for each of the stories. The activities used in the both groups can be seen in Figure 5, 6 and 7 (see *Appendix G* for a sample flow of the tasks/activities ascribed to one of the stories used in the Experimental Group):

Figure 4.5 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the First Story Read (A Dead Woman's Secret by Guy de Maupassant) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group

CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
<u><i>Pre-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>Pre-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Brainstorming & Predicting</i>	<i>Brainstorming & Predicting</i>
<u><i>While-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>While-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Predicting & Previewing</i>	<i>Predicting & Previewing</i>
<i>Comparing & Contrasting</i>	<i>Comparing & Contrasting</i>
<u><i>Post-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>Post-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Describing (the protagonist)</i>	<i>Describing (the protagonist)</i>
<i>Summarizing</i>	<i>Summarizing</i>

Figure 4.6 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the Second Story Read (Eveline by James Joyce) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group

CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
<u><i>Pre-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>Pre-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Brainstorming & Surveying</i>	<i>Key-words & Previewing</i>
<u><i>While-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>While-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Predicting & Previewing</i>	<i>Predicting & Previewing</i>
<i>Scanning & Describing</i>	<i>Scanning & Describing</i>
<i>Comparing and Contrasting (Speaking)</i>	<i>Comparing and Contrasting (Speaking)</i>
<u><i>Post-reading Activities</i></u>	<u><i>Post-reading Activities</i></u>
<i>Paraphrasing</i>	<i>Twisting</i>

Figure 4.7 Tasks/Activities Ascribed to the Third Story Read (*Hills like White Elephants* by Ernest Hemingway) in the Experimental Group and Related Tasks/Activities Used in the Control Group

CONTROL GROUP	EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
<u>Pre-reading Activities</u>	<u>Pre-reading Activities</u>
<i>Brainstorming & Previewing</i>	<i>Key-words & Previewing</i>
<u>While-reading Activities</u>	<u>While-reading Activities</u>
<i>Comprehension Questions for Literal Comprehension</i>	<i>Comprehension Questions for Literal Comprehension</i>
	<i>for Seeking Evaluation</i>
<u>Post-reading Activities</u>	<u>Post-reading Activities</u>
<i>Continuing the story (with the given sequence of events)</i>	<i>Continuing the story (Writing an End)</i>

The activities used for each story were classified according to what they might involve. Activities conducted in the Experimental Group were student-centered and incorporated creativity in terms of manipulating the original stories with the opinions and imagination of the students whereas those carried out in the Control Group tended to be more teacher-centered and spared limited room for creativity. Besides, since the Experimental Group students could share their tasks/activities with the other students and the teacher and receive comments/feedback from them, they had a more interactive and flexible environment which enabled them to feel comfortable with the activities; nevertheless, the Control Group students could share their tasks/activities with only a limited number of students such as their partners or group members they worked together, hence limiting them to receive various comments/feedback.

4.5.6. Sample Lesson

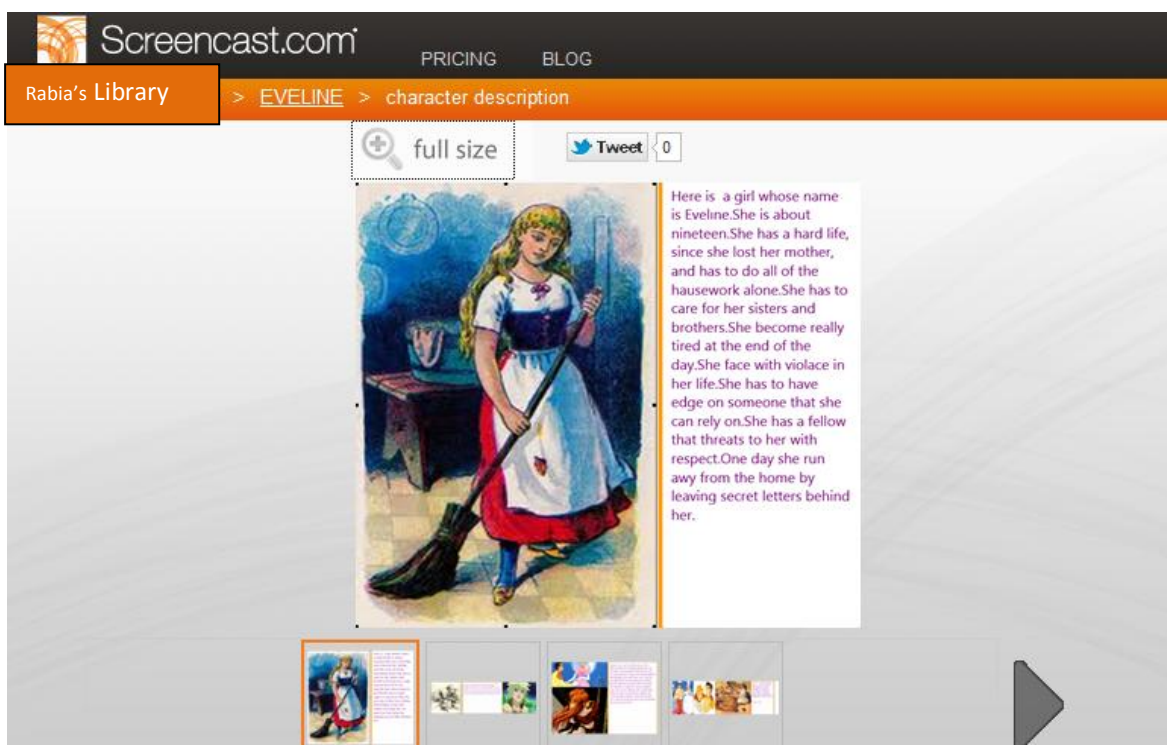
As indicated in Figure 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7, a number of tasks and activities were carried out in both the Experimental and Control Groups after the both groups received the pretest. In this part, the lessons conducted with one of the stories (*Eveline* by James Joyce) used in the Experimental Group and the Control Group's activities designed and carried out with the same rationale as those in the Experimental Group will be explicated.

At the pre-reading stage, both of the groups were given one activity. The Control Group received *brainstorming* and *surveying* (see *Appendix H* for all the activities pertaining to the teacher-prepared text) while the Experimental Group received *key-words* and *previewing* (see *Appendix G* for all the activities related to the story). The students in the both groups carried out this activity as a transition step activity into the story in order to enable them to build familiarization with the story and text they were going to read.

In the *brainstorming* activity in the Control Group, the title of the text and the name of the protagonist were written on the board, and the students were asked to tell anything that came to their minds about these words. Writing what the students told about the title and the protagonist of the text on the board, the teacher asked the students to do a *surveying* activity in which they tried to predict and cultivate a general notion about the social background and status of the woman, and her relationship with the other people around her.

The Experimental Group received a *key-words* and *previewing* activity in which they were provided with a number of words that tended to depict Eveline's personality, family life, and relations with other people. Bearing the key words in their minds, the students were asked to predict what type of a person Eveline was and what probable problems she might have. They were asked to search on the Internet and find a sample picture/video that would depict what they thought, and then capture the picture/video using Jing. After capturing it, they were asked to describe, using the key words provided, their picture/video through utilizing the features of Jing that enabled them to add texts to whatever they had captured. Later on, they were asked to share their recordings with their friends via their Screencast.com accounts and write comments on or give feedback about the recordings they had received (see *Figure 4.8* for a sample image by one of participants nicknamed Rabia).

Figure 4.8 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the *Key-words & Previewing* activity



At the while-reading stage, the Control Group students were asked to read the text until the part where the while-reading activities began, and at this stage they were offered three different activities: *predicting and previewing*, *scanning and describing*, *comparing and contrasting*. In the *predicting and previewing* activity, the students were asked to work in pairs and try to predict and write the rest of the story together. For the second activity (*scanning and describing*), the students were asked to scan the text and underline any expression used to describe the main character in the text (Doris), and then using these expressions they were asked to describe the woman in their own words. For the last activity of the while-reading stage (*comparing and contrasting*), the students were asked to read the real end of the text and compare and contrast it, in groups of five, with the one they had prepared beforehand.

The Experimental Group students were also asked to read the story until the part where the while-reading activities began, and this stage they were given the same type of activities as those in the Control Group, namely *predicting and previewing*, *scanning and describing*, *comparing and contrasting*. However, the procedure and the materials they

were expected to carry out the activities with differed from those in the Control Group. In the *predicting and previewing* activity, they were asked to anticipate the rest of the story, find an appropriate picture/pictures or video, on the Internet, related to what they thought, capture it via Jing and then add text to it through utilizing Jing's adding text features. After executing these steps, they were asked to share their recordings with their friends and make comments on the ones they received (see *Figure 4.9* for a sample image by one of participants nicknamed Cemre).

Figure 4.9 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the *predicting and previewing* activity



In the *scanning and describing* activity, the Experimental Group students were asked to scan the story and find any utterance used for describing Eveline's father and her lover Frank. Basing on these expressions, they were asked to search on the Internet to find suitable pictures that could describe these two characters in the story. Afterwards, they were required to capture the pictures via Jing, describe the pictures trough the expressions they scanned in the story, and then share their recordings with the other students. After sharing their pictures with each other, they were asked to make comments on each other's recordings (see *Figure 4.10* for a sample image by one of participants nicknamed Hülya).

Figure 4.10 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the *scanning and describing* activity



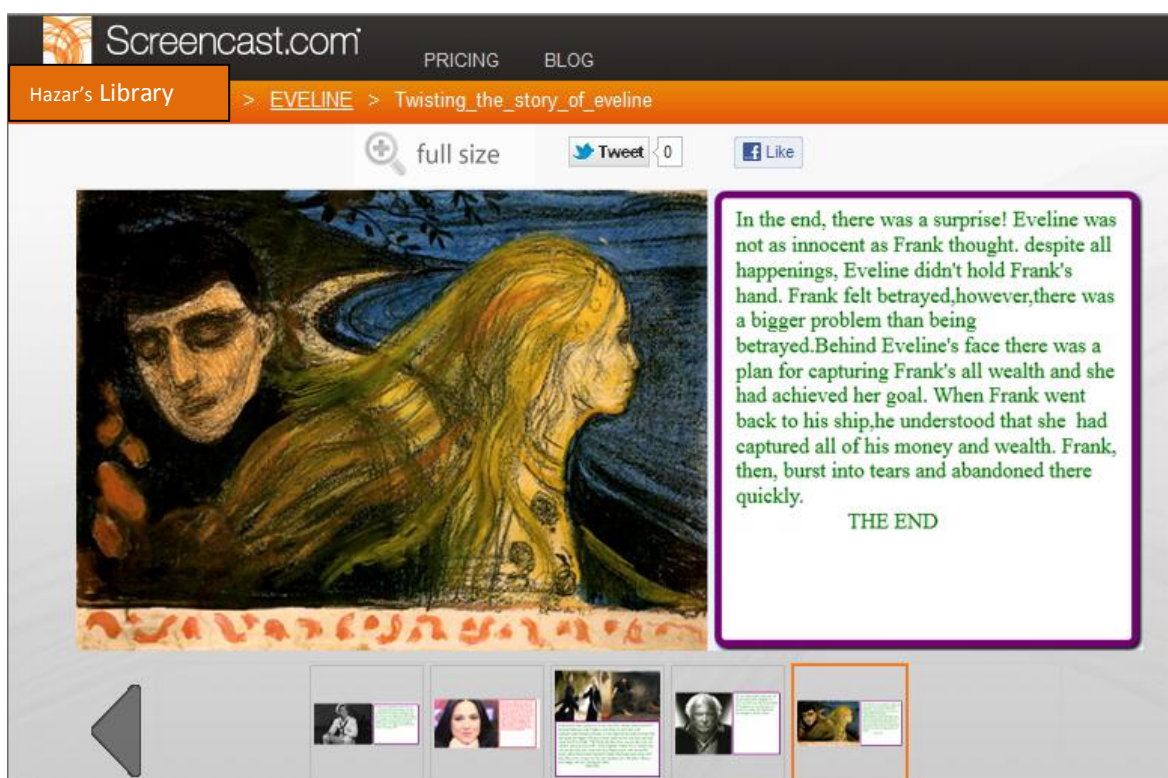
After finishing the scanning and describing activity, the students were asked to read the rest of the story and carry out the last activity, namely *comparing and contrasting*. They were asked to compare and contrast the real end with the ones they had prepared beforehand. This oral practice was designed as a whole-class activity in order to enable the students to get involved in activities that enabled them to discuss the studies they had carried out via incorporating short stories into computer/internet-based programmes.

At the post-reading stage, the Control Group students did a *paraphrasing* activity whereas the Experimental Group students did a *twisting* activity, which enabled the students to carry out activities that can contribute to their writing skill substantially.

In the *paraphrasing* activity, the Control Group students were given the last paragraph of the text and asked to paraphrase it through using different grammatical structures and words.

In the *twisting* activity, the Experimental Group students were asked to read the end of the story (beginning from the part which was given to them during the compare and contrast activity) and twist it. They were expected to write an end that was totally different from the original one. They were asked to find an appropriate picture/pictures or video that best matched with what they thought of, capture it via Jing, add their text to it, and then share it with their friends. After sharing their recordings, they were asked to make comments on the recordings that they received from their friends (see *Figure 4.11*).

Figure 4.11 A sample image prepared by one of the participants for the *twisting* activity



4.5.7. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The present pretest-posttest control group study was conducted at Dicle University in the Fall Semester of 2011-2012 academic year. 65 ($N_{\text{Experimental}}=35$ & $N_{\text{Control}}=30$) English Language Teaching (ELT) Department students studying at Ziya Gokalp Faculty of Education participated in the study. In order to collect data for the present study, some steps were pursued with regard to the design of the pretest-posttest control group study:

Step 1

In the initial step of the study, the students were randomly assigned to the Experimental and Control Groups. There were 35 students ($N_{\text{Female}}=22$; $N_{\text{Male}}=13$) in the Experimental Group and 30 students ($N_{\text{Female}}=18$; $N_{\text{Male}}=12$) in the Control Group. Since the present study was established on experimental research design, no population or sampling group process was mentioned.

Step 2

Following the first step, the pretest was run. Before distributing the questionnaires, the purpose and different terms of the questionnaire were explained. While the Experimental Group students were given the EMS and CSSIS as the pretest, the Control Group students were given merely the EMS. During the completion process of the questionnaire, the researcher was present physically in order to monitor and also assist the respondents to understand certain parts. Conducting the pretest, the data gathered via the EMS were fed into a computer and subjected to Independent-Samples T-test via SPSS (version 17.0) to find out whether there was a significant difference between the Experimental Group and Control Group's L2 motivation level on the pretest in order to analyze and warrant the homogeneity of the both groups so that the study could be carried out. Table 4.5 presents the test results related to the mean value of the both groups' L2 motivation level:

Table 4.5 Homogeneity of the Groups

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental	35	3.8726	.60287	.877	63	.384
Control	30	3.7556	.44699			

$p=.384$ $p>.05$

According to Table 4.5, the mean value of the L2 motivation level of the groups is 3.8726 for the Experimental Group, and 3.7556 for the Control Group, which indicates that the groups had similar L2 motivation level on the pretest. The difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group was statistically insignificant with ($p=.384$, $p>.05$) with .877 "t" value, and 63 degree of freedom. As the test results indicate, the

groups were equivalent to each other in terms of their mean value of L2 motivation level on the onset of the study.

Step 3

In third step which is identified as the treatment stage, the Experimental Group students were subjected to a two-month study in which they did several language learning tasks and activities via the incorporation of short stories into computer technologies (the treatment) while the Control Group students were subjected to a two-month study in which they carried out conventional (traditional) language learning activities and tasks.

In order to practise the computer/internet-based programmes to be used in the study, the Experimental Group students received a one-week intensive tutorial through the steps explained in the pilot study. As for the main application, the students read three different stories written by well-known authors (explained in the materials part) and did a number of activities ascribed to each story through the computer/internet-based programmes introduced.

The Control Group students did traditional L2 learning activities/tasks which were based on teacher-prepared language learning materials and matched with the characteristics of the traditional language learning and teaching methods and techniques.

The rationale behind the distinction between the types of activities and tasks implemented in the groups was to observe the impact of the integration of short stories with computer technologies, which acted as the treatment given to the Experimental Group in the present study.

Step 4

In this step which is characterized as the posttest stage of the study, the Experimental Group students were given the EMS and CSSIS again whereas the Control Group students were given only the EMS in order to determine the significance value of the mean scores in terms of L2 motivation level within the group and between the groups on the pretest and posttest.

After the implementation of the questionnaires, of the 35 Experimental Group students, 12 of them (34%) were randomly chosen in order to conduct the semi-structured face-to-face interviews. Of these 10 students, 5 of them were male and 7 of them were female. The interviews were held in the researcher's room in order to avoid any problems that might emerge during the interviews. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher introduced himself and the interviewee was informed about the purpose and content of the interview. Prior to the interview, both oral and written permission of the interviewees (see *Appendix 3* for sample interview form) was taken to record the interviews. The interviews were recorded by iPod Touch device which enable the researcher to make sound recordings for the data richness of the study. Each interview lasted between 5-8 minutes and was transcribed by the researcher after the interviews.

4.5.8. DATA ANALYSIS

In the light of the hypotheses aforementioned, the quantitative data obtained were analyzed by the help of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 17.0). The programme was utilized in order to measure frequency rates, means, percentages, standard deviations, and reliability and significance values of the data collected. In order to derive information about the participants' demographic features as well as their characteristics in relation to computers and short stories, the data gathered via the first part of EMS were analyzed through taking the frequency rates and percentages. Following the calculation of the frequency rates and percentages, Independent Samples T-test was run to determine the significance value of the mean scores between the groups on both the pretest and posttest respectively. Besides, in order to determine the degree of difference in the mean scores within each group between the pretest and posttest, Paired Samples T-test was carried out. Apart from these tests, Independent Sample T-test and One-Way ANOVA were employed to compare the motivation level of the participants across the variables aforementioned (gender, frequency of the Internet use per week, computer self-efficacy, and frequency of reading short stories written in English). When the anchors of an independent variable was two, Independent Samples T-test whereas when the anchors were more than two, One-Way ANOVA was used in order to analyze the data. A Post-hoc Scheffe test was also

implemented in order to find out whether there was a significant difference observed among the groups.

In the interpretation process of the mean values, boundaries of each response categories in the 5-point Likert scales from 1 to 5 were determined by dividing the serial width 4 by the number of responses 5 and found to be 0.8. Grounding on this calculation, the accepted boundaries for each response categories are suggested as follows:

1	= 1 + 0.8	= 1.8
2	= 1.8 + 0.8	= 2.6
3	= 2.6 + 0.8	= <u>3.4</u>
4	= 3.4 + 0.8	= 4.2
5	= 4.2 + 0.8	= 5

A score between 3.4 and above on the scale was considered as the indicator of moderate (average) L2 motivation level whereas 4.2 and above a high one. Any score below 3.4 was taken as an indicator of low L2 motivation level.

Qualitative data obtained via the interview were analyzed through pursuing the qualitative data content analysis procedures. Shortly after conducting the interviews, the recorded data were transcribed and translated into English by the researcher since the interviews were held in the students' first language in order to create a comfortable environment for them. The transcribed data were checked by another expert English language lecturer. The responses of the interviewees were classified for the goals of appropriate use of the data gathered. A category for each of the groupings was formed and similar patterns and arguments were listed in the same category, thus enabling the researcher to present the qualitative data in a convenient and proper way.

4.6. CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the methodology applied in the study was explicated. Firstly, the objectives and hypotheses of the study followed by the research design were presented. Then the data collection tools and the methodology for pilot study were explained in detail. Finally, the methodology pursued in the main study was presented.

The next chapter will present the findings of the main study together with their discussions in the light of the related literature.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings obtained via the statistical analyses of the questionnaires and the content analysis of the semi-structured interviews will be presented. Depending on the hypotheses under investigation, the results and findings of the analyses will be discussed with reference to the related literature.

5.1. ANALYSES AND FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This study is primarily concerned with the impact of the integration of short stories into computer technologies on the second/foreign language (L2) motivation level of university students studying English as a foreign language.

This chapter will discuss the analyzed data of the questionnaire and the interview, thus the quantitative and qualitative data, in order to shed light on the hypotheses under investigation and provide a broad picture of the results.

In the first section of the chapter, demographic information about the participants' type of high school and department that they graduated from will be provided. Following the demographic information of the participants, the statistical data pertaining to the participants' characteristics in relation to computers and short stories will be presented via figures for a better understanding of the research.

The second section will focus on the hypotheses under investigation and discuss the findings obtained in the light of the related literature. Since the study was grounded on a pretest-posttest control group research design, the quantitative data obtained from main

study will be compared between the groups by the support of the qualitative data in order to find out the effect of the technique applied in the treatment stage of the study. Besides, since there are some variables that might have a significant influence on the L2 motivation level of students, the data obtained from the main study will be compared across four basic variables in order to detect the relationship between these variables and the L2 motivation level of the participants in the study, thus casting further light on the technique implemented. These variables are:

Gender differences

Frequency of computer use per week

Computer self-efficacy perception

Frequency of short story reading

In the final section of the chapter, participants' opinions about the use of short stories through computers in the process of L2 learning will be further explicated by the support of the qualitative data analysis.

Briefly, this chapter will discuss the analysis and results for the study with regard to the comparison of the both groups' L2 motivation level and the relationship between the variables stated above and the L2 motivation level of the participants.

5.2. PARTICIPANTS' DEMOGRAPHIC FEATURES IN RELATION TO EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

In order to derive information about the participants' characteristics in relation to their backgrounds of English language, they were asked two questions concerned with the type of high school and department they graduated from (5.1).

The descriptive analysis of quantitative data showed that the frequencies of the students in terms of high school type they graduated from were not distant between the groups. Of the 35 Experimental Group students, 16 of them (45.7%) graduated from Standard High School, 10 of them (28.6%) from Anatolian High School, 5 of them

(14.3%) from Language –Oriented High School, 3 of them (8.6%) from Anatolian Teacher Training High School, and only 1 of them (2.9%) from other types of high schools. Of the 30 Control Group students, 14 of them (46.7%) graduated from Standard High School, 9 of them (30.0%) from Anatolian High School, 4 of them (13.3%) from Language –Oriented High School, and 3 of them (10.0%) from Anatolian Teacher Training High School.

Table 5.1 Participants' Demographic Features in relation Type of High School and Department

Category	Groups		<i>F</i>	%
Type of High School	<i>Experimental Group</i>	Standard High School	16	45.7
		Language-Oriented High School	5	14.3
		Anatolian High School	10	28.6
		Anatolian Teacher Training High School	3	8.6
		Others	1	2.9
	<i>Control Group</i>	Standard High School	14	46.7
		Language-Oriented High School	4	13.3
		Anatolian High School	9	30.0
		Anatolian Teacher Training High School	3	10.0
		Others	0	0.0
Type of Department	<i>Experimental Group</i>	Foreign Language (English)	33	94.3
		Verbal Sciences	2	5.7
		Computational Sciences	0	0.0
		Computational and Verbal Sciences	0	0.0
	<i>Control Group</i>	Foreign Language (English)	27	90.0
		Verbal Sciences	2	10.0
		Computational Sciences	0	0.0
		Computational and Verbal Sciences	0	0.0

The descriptive analysis of the quantitative data also revealed that the groups had similar frequencies of students in terms of departments in which they earned a high school diploma. In the Experimental Group, while 33 of the students (94.3%) reported to hold a high school diploma in the English Language department, merely 2 of them (5.7%)

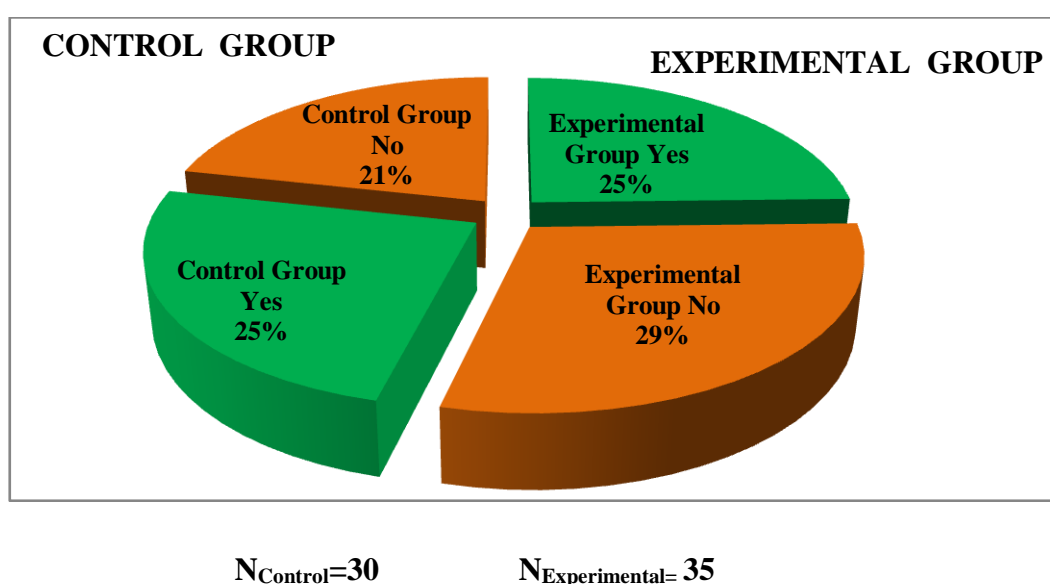
reported to hold a diploma in Verbal Sciences Department. Of the 30 students in the Control Group, 27 of them (90.0%) stated to have a diploma in English Language department whereas only 2 of them (10.0%) stated to have a diploma in Verbal Sciences Department.

As is evident in the table presented above, the groups had similar distribution of students across the type of high schools and departments in which they held a high school diploma, which indicated a similarity between the groups in terms of students' demographic features and thus their background related to language learning in the schools and departments they graduated from.

5.3. PARTICIPANTS' CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO COMPUTERS

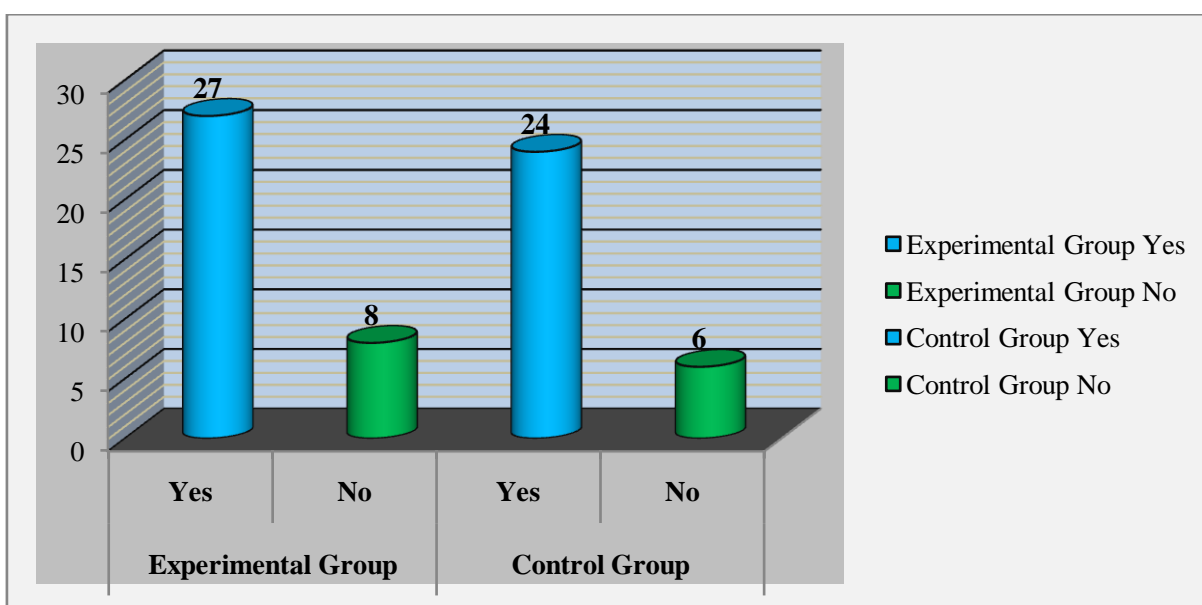
The students in the study were also asked to answer five questions in order to cast light on their relation to computers. The following figures provide information that describes the participants' possessing a computer connected to internet in their houses, having a social networking account, frequency of access to the Internet, computer self-efficacy perceptions, and past experience of computer use in L2 learning.

Figure 5.1 Possessing a Computer Connected to the Internet at Home



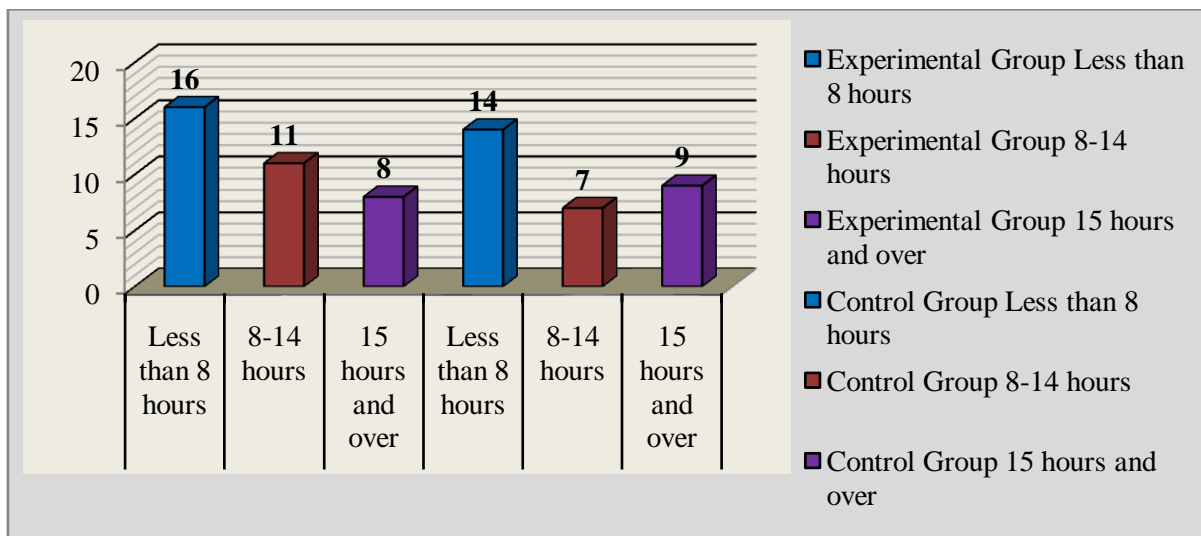
Of the 35 students in the Experimental Group, 25% of them (n=16) reported to have computers connected to the internet in their houses, while 29% of them (n=19) stated that they did not possess computers. In the Control Group, 25% of them (n=16) stated that they owned computers connected to the Internet in their houses, while 21% of them (n=14) reported that they did not have computers. As a general outcome of the descriptive data presented in Figure 4.1, it can be interpreted that the both groups had similar distributions in terms of possessing a computer connected to the Internet in their houses.

Figure 5.2 Having a Social Networking Account



As for having a social networking account, 27 of the participants (77.1%) in the Experimental Group reported that they had social networking accounts, while 8 of them (22.9%) stated that they did not have social networking accounts. Of the 30 students in the Control Group, 24 of them (80%) noted that they had social networking accounts whereas 6 of them (20%) reported that they did not have social networking accounts.

Figure 5.3 Frequency of Computer Use per Week

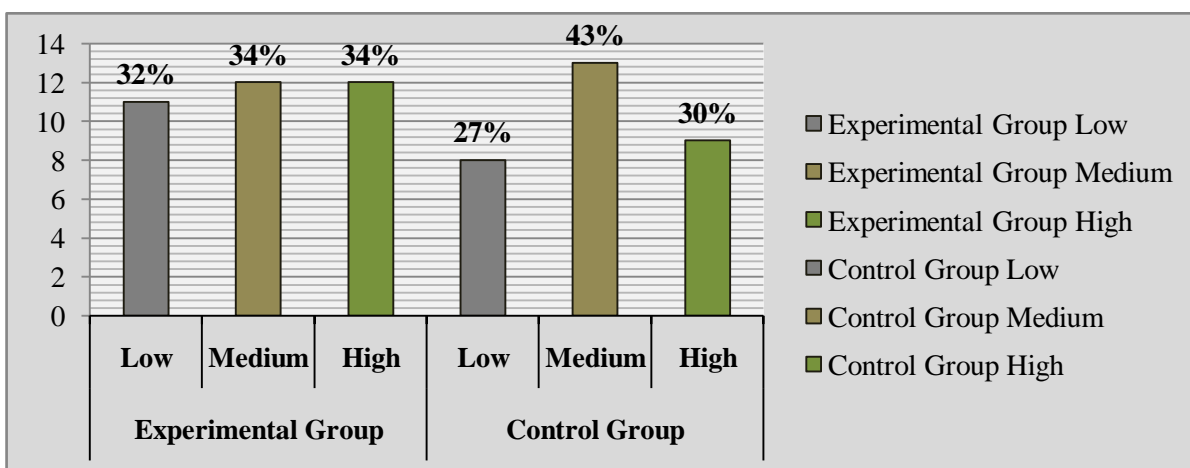


$N_{\text{Experimental}}= 35$

$N_{\text{Control}}=30$

The statistical data related to the participants' frequency of Internet use per week revealed that of the 35 students in the Experimental Group, 16 of them (45.7%) used the Internet less than eight hours, 13 of them (37.4%) used between eight to fourteen hours, and 8 of them (22.9%) used fifteen hours and over per week. As for the answers given by the Control Group students, 14 of them (46.7%) stated that they used the Internet less than 8 hours per week, 7 of them (23.3%) between eight to fourteen hours, and 9 of them (30.0%) used it fifteen hours or over per week.

Figure 5.4 Computer Self-efficacy Perceptions

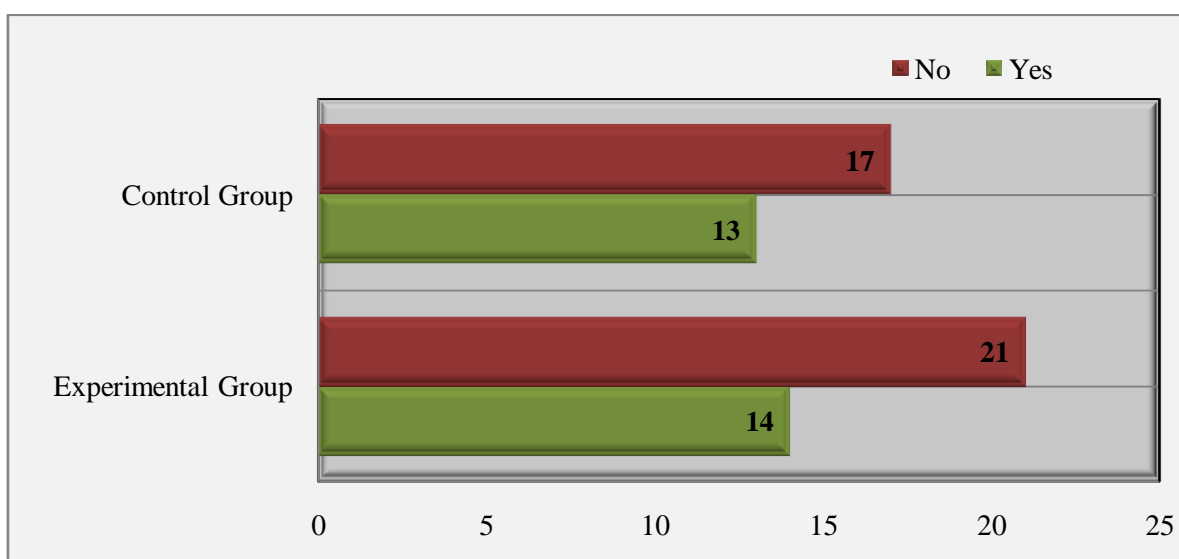


$N_{\text{Experimental}}= 35$

$N_{\text{Control}}=30$

The answers of the participants to the question about their computer self-efficacy varied within and between the groups. Of the 35 students in the experimental group, 32% of them (n=13) reported a low computer self-efficacy perception, 34% of them (n=12) a medium one, and 34% of them (n=12) a high one. In the Control Group, 27% of the students (n=8) reported a low computer self-efficacy perception, 43% of them (n=13) a medium one and 30% of them (n=9) a high one.

Figure 5.5 Participants' Past Experience of Computers in L2 Learning



The participants' responses to the last question pertaining to their past experiences of computer use in language learning indicated that a majority of them, in both groups, did not made use of computers in their language learning process. Of the 35 Experimental Group students, 21 of them (62.0%) stated that they did not use computers their language learning process while 14 of them (40.0%) reported having used before. As for the control group, 17 of the participants (43.3%) articulated that they did not use computers in their language learning process whereas merely 13 of them (56.7%) stated having used before.

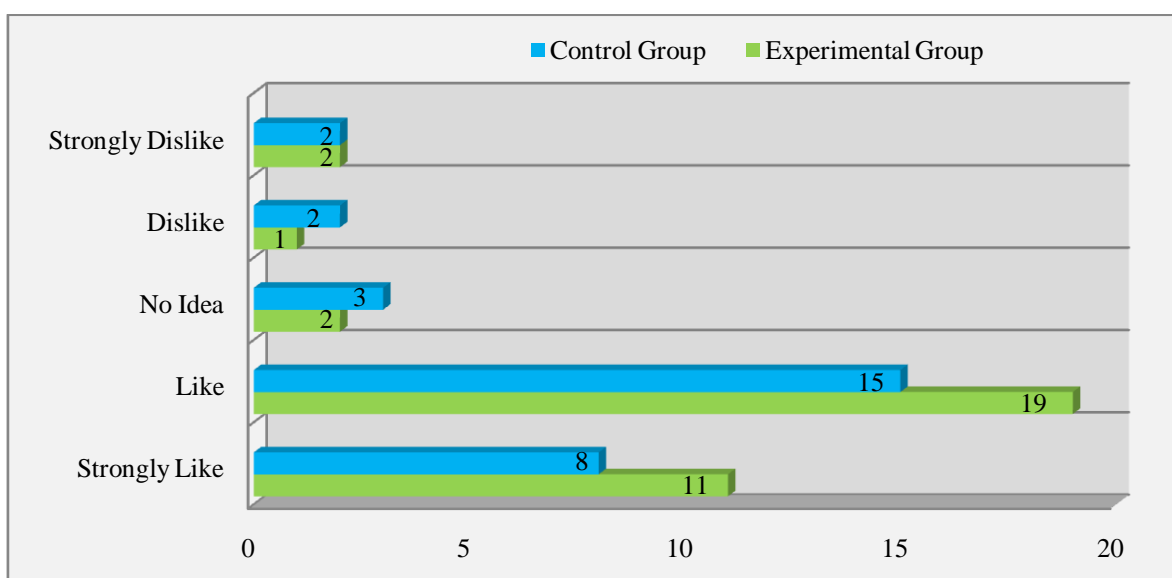
As a general interpretation of the answers given to five questions about the participants' characteristics in relation to computers, it can be said that the virtually all the participants are familiar with computers and the participants' distribution across the groups revealed similar outcomes. As informally observed, every year the number of students

having computers is increasing. Consequently, it can be interpreted that students will integrate computers more into their language learning process since different and various research findings reveal that familiarity is an important element in the use of computers in both language learning and teaching (Aşan 2003; Edwards 2005 cited in Zehir Topkaya 2010: 146).

5.4. PARTICIPANTS' CHARACTERISTICS IN RELATION TO SHORT STORIES

The survey designed to obtain data about the participants' background also included three items concerned with the participants' relation to short stories written in English. The following figures provide information that describes the participants' likes and dislikes of reading short written in English, frequency of reading short stories written in English and frequency of using short stories in their language learning process in past.

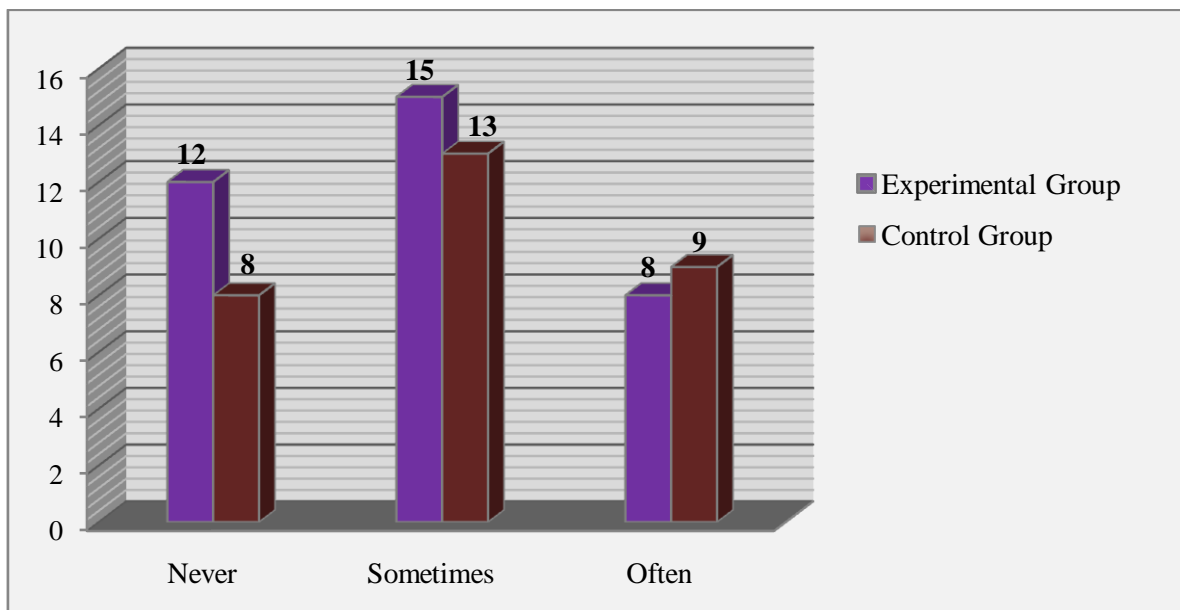
Figure 5.6 Like/Dislike of Reading Short Stories



Regarding the first question concerned with the students' like or dislike of reading short stories written in English, the statistical data revealed that in the Experimental Group

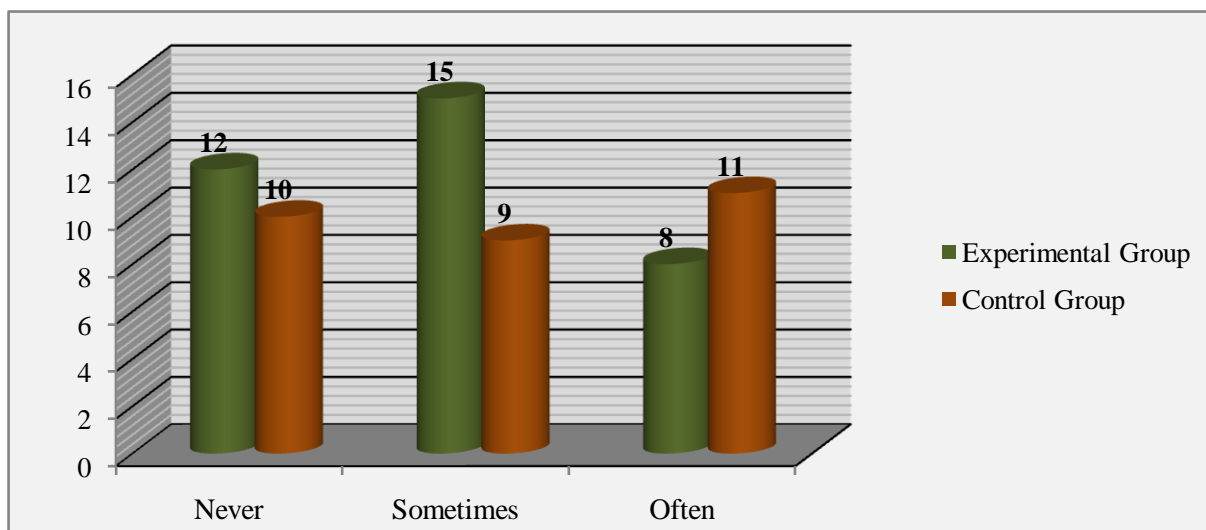
30 of the students (85.7%) reported to like reading short stories, 2 of them (5.7%) stated to have no idea about it, and 3 of them (6.6%) reported a dislike of reading short stories. Of the 30 Control Group students, 23 of them (76.7%) stated to like reading short stories, 3 of them (10.0%) had no idea, and 4 of them (13.3%) reported a dislike of reading short stories written in English.

Figure 5.7 Frequency of Short Story Reading



Regarding the question about the frequency of short story reading in English, the participants' answers in the Experimental Group indicated that 12 of them (34.3%) never read; 15 of them (42.9%) sometimes read, and 8 of them (22.9%) often read short stories written in English. As for the Control Group, the responses showed that 8 of them (26.7%) never read; 13 of them (43.3%) sometimes read, and 9 of them (30.0%) often read short stories written in English.

Figure 5.8 Frequency of Short Story Use in Language Learning in Past



The answers given to the final question related to the participants' frequency of using short stories in their past language learning processes revealed that in the Experimental Group, 12 of the participants (34.3%) never used; 15 of them (42.9%) sometimes used, and 8 of them (22.9%) often used short stories in their past language learning processes. In the Control Group, 10 of the participants (33.3%) never used; 9 of them (30.0%) sometimes used, and 11 of them (36.7%) often used short stories in their language learning processes in past.

The questions pertaining to short stories pointed out that the both groups had similar frequencies of students in terms of their characteristics in relation to short stories. The statistical data also showed that although the majority of the participants reported to like reading short stories written in English, they did not very often read short stories in the process of L2 learning, hence showing a lack of interest in the preference of using short stories in language learning.

5.5. HYPOTHESES UNDER INVESTIGATION

5.5.1. A comparison of the Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest

To find out whether there is a significant difference between the mean scores of Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their L2 motivation level on the pretest, Independent Samples T-test was carried out. The following table presents the statistical data related to the hypothesis concerned:

H₀₁: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of Experimental and Control Groups.

Table 5.2 Independent Samples T-test Statistics of EMS between the Experimental Group and Control Group on the Pretest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental	35	3.8726	.60287	.877	63	.384
Control	30	3.7556	.44699			

p=.384 p>.05

According to Table 5.2, the mean values of the Experimental Group (M=3.8726) and the Control Group (M=3.7556) in terms of their L2 motivation are close to each other on the pretest, and thus the difference between the Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their mean scores of L2 motivation is not statistically significant (p=.384, p>.05). Consequently, the null hypothesis asserting no existence of significant difference between the both groups on the pretest was accepted, and the both groups could be treated as equivalent on the onset of the study, which is consistent with the characteristics of the experimental research design type applied in the study. That is, basing on the features of the pretest-posttest control group research design, it is stipulated that both the Experimental Group and the Control Group should be equivalent to each other at the pretest stage in order to detect the impact of the treatment at the posttest stage.

In order to determine the difference between the Experimental Group and Control Group in relation to their mean scores of L2 motivation on the posttest, Independent Samples T-test was used. Table 5.3 shows the statistical information pertaining to the difference concerned.

H₁₁: There is a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of Experimental and Control Groups.

Table 5.3 Independent Samples T-test Statistics of EMS between the Experimental Group and Control Group on the Posttest

Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental	35	4.1940	.44049	6.212	63	.000
Control	30	3.4681	.50175			

p=.000, p<.05

As is evident in Table 5.3, there is a significant difference between the Experimental Group and the Control Group in terms of their L2 motivation level on the posttest ($p=.000$, $p<.05$). The Experimental Group students reported higher L2 motivation (Mean=4.1940) when compared to L2 motivation level of the Control Group students (Mean=3.4681), and consequently the alternative hypothesis stating ‘the existence of a significant difference in terms of L2 learning motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups’ was accepted.

The findings of the qualitative data obtained via the semi-structured face-to-face interviews indicated similar results to the findings of the quantitative data collected through the questionnaires. Interviewees’ responses to the questions (particularly to Question five and six) revealed the positive change in their opinions of and the enthusiasm for the use of short stories via computers in the L2 learning and teaching process, hence indicating an increase in the L2 motivation level of the students. The interviewees’ answers to the fifth question (see Appendix C/F) investigating their preference of activities between those based on the integration of short stories into computer technologies and those based

on the traditional techniques pointed out that all the 12 interviewees preferred to study English through the activities organized around the incorporation of short stories into computers. The following responses given by the students cast light on their opinions related to the technique applied:

“We will both be in a close relationship to technology and will be able to benefit from a variety of sources by getting access to different media sources via computers.” (Interviewee 4)

“I prefer the activities that you have done through the integration of short stories into computers because the traditional activities usually address at merely one sense of us, whereas since people can do much more practice for listening and speaking skills through computers to better learn, of course I think the integration of short stories is far more effective than the traditional ones.” (Interviewee 7)

“Since the applications that did were was computer-assisted and included visuals and written language in addition to literary texts, they were much more enjoyable. Therefore, I prefer the activities that we have done rather than the traditional ones.” (Interviewee 9)

As for the analysis of the interviewees' responses given to the sixth question trying to cast light on their L2 motivation level, it was seen that all the interviewees reported a high level L2 motivation. Some of the sample responses given to the sixth questions by the interviewees are as follows:

“It influenced my motivation in a positive way because my former learning activities were grounded on techniques that solely utilized paper and board. Using short stories together with computers contributed a great deal to my language learning process.” (Interviewee 4)

“If the teacher had given me the handouts and asked me to do them, I wouldn’t have done them. Yet, I did the ones on the computer because I liked those activities.” (Interviewee 11)

“It surely helped me build self-confidence. It also helped me improve my ability to express myself in English.” (Interviewee 3)

“It was really very effective. I would have felt bored if it hadn’t been that way. Yet, since it included activities that incorporated finding pictures and writing texts about these pictures and writing the end of the stories, it was very motivating.” (Interviewee 6)

These findings regarding a higher level L2 motivation on the part of the Experimental Group are consistent with the literature related to the impact of short stories and computers on L2 motivation level (see Guariento and Morley 2001; Nuttall 1996; Meng and Hong 2007; Warschauer 2001; Lee 1998; Nguyen 2010) and the research studies investigating the relation between L2 motivation and the integration of short stories into computer technologies (Yeh 2005; Meskill and Ranglova 2000; Wang 2005; Chun and Plass 1996; Lee 2000). A study carried out by Meskill and Ranglova with Bulgarian students (2000) serves effectively to support the result of the present study since the findings of the study reported that the students favored a revised curriculum integrating technology and literature. The approach used by Meskill and Ranglova is characterized by three principles: the use of short stories as content, collaboration as a method of learning, and technology as the medium through which the collaboration is designed and enabled. The writers start the discussion of technology with low-level technology – incorporation of audiotaped selections from the short stories into the programme; use of concordancing and corpora in order to access to the linguistic issues arising from the literary selections; extensive use of word processing; email collaboration with a partner group in the USA. In order to cast light on the benefits of the approach applied, the language gains of a group studying the revised curriculum and a group studying the traditional curriculum were compared, and the results indicated that the revised curriculum group outperformed the other group on three out of five measures, namely reading and vocabulary, writing and grammar. Consequently, basing on the statistical data in Table 5.3 and the literature concerned, it can be concluded that the integration of short stories into computer

technologies increases learners' L2 motivation level. Similarly, Fraser (1999) and King (2000) contend that the Internet and web can be utilized for a variety of objectives while carrying out tasks or activities with literary texts, such as getting access to additional resources, doing project work, using chat software for role play which in this case might mean assuming the role of characters from the texts studied or of writers. Likewise, Louw (1997) takes the issue from a linguistics perspective and shows how L2 learners can use corpora and concordancing in order to check and verify their thoughts related to the connotations of the words that they encounter in the literary texts, which one way or another indicates the contributions of computer technologies to the use of literary texts in L2 classrooms. As stated in the related literature, the use of computer technologies in conjunction with literary texts (referring to short stories in the scope of the present study) has several benefits for L2 learners, hence indicating a positive impact of L2 motivation of learners as well.

5.5.2. A comparison of the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest

A Paired Samples T-test was used in order to find out whether there was a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest (Table 5.4).

H₁₂: There is a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and the posttest.

Table 5.4 Paired Samples Statistics of EMS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Experimental Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental							
<i>Pretest</i>	35	3.8726	.60287	.10190	-3.192	34	.003
<i>Posttest</i>	35	4.1940	.44049	.07446			

P=.003, p<.05

As Table 5.4 indicates, the difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest of the Experimental Group students in relation to their L2 motivation is statistically significant ($p=.003$, $p<.05$). The students reported a higher level of L2 motivation on the posttest (Mean=4.1940) when compared to that on the pretest (Mean=3.8726). As a result, the alternative hypothesis asserting the existence of a significant difference in relation to L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and the posttest was accepted.

An analysis of the interview questions (particularly question one and ten) aiming to highlight the change in the interviewees' emotions and perceptions related to the integration of short stories into computers before and after the study contributes substantially to the results of the quantitative data reporting an increase in the participants' L2 motivation level on the posttest. Approximately all the students participating in the interviews mentioned that they felt rather nervous and anxious on the onset of the study when they were told that they would carry out language activities and tasks that integrated short stories into computer technologies since it was the first time they would carry out such tasks. However, after receiving a one-week intensive tutorial and doing activities that pursued similar patterns, they felt much more comfortable with the computer/internet-based programmes. The following quotations serve effectively in order to illustrate the point in concern:

"I felt rather nervous because I was not sure whether I could do it and what it would be like. However, once I was introduced the activities and started to do them, I overcame those worries." Interviewee 10)

"I didn't feel good at the beginning because it was not an application that we were used to. However, after I had practiced, I understood how enjoyable it was since merely reading short stories is not sometimes sufficient enough. I think using activities that encompass utilizing visuals, writing the rest of the story are very effective." Interviewee 8)

“...I recognized that I could write. Besides, there were some writers, particularly James Joyce, whom I liked very much. It was an easy story, but I felt very happy because my friends had read those stories since most of them did not know James Joyce. I think this was an advantage.” (Interviewee 2)

“I was prejudiced, I was really very prejudiced; but it helped my overcome my prejudice since it was quite enjoyable.” (Interviewee 12)

In line with these findings, there is a vast literature dealing with the motivating aspect of computer technologies and literary texts in the process of language learning and teaching. One of the primary alleged benefits of computers is that they enhance student motivation, supposedly via providing students a less threatening means to communicate and enabling work on meaningful and fruitful projects (Kelm 1992; Kroonenberg 1994, 1995; Barson et al. 1993; Vilmi 1995 cited in Warschauer 1996c). Likewise, Hall (2005: 48) adduces a number of benefits for the use of literature in the L2 learning and teaching process, which are implied to enhance L2 motivation in one way or another. Hall suggests three arguments as the primary effects of literary texts on L2 motivation of language learners: (a) affective arguments: pleasurable, motivating, personalizing, (b) cultural arguments: cultural knowledge, intercultural experience, and (c) psychological arguments: focus on form, discourse processing skills – inferencing, processing of non-literal language, tolerance of ambiguity and others. He further maintains that literary texts more miscellaneously expands vocabulary, aids language acquisition in unspecified but general ways, gives a feel for the language, develops more fluent reading skills, promotes interpretative and inferential skills, contributes to cultural and inter-cultural understanding in addition to being particularly linguistically memorable (some poetry perhaps qualifies) and, above all, creating a pleasurable language learning environment. Similarly, Lao and Krashen (2000) note that integrating short stories into computer technologies has positive effects on learners' L2 learning process. In their study, they showed the students films of most of the books that the students read, and the students responded positively to this approach. Similarly, Yeh (2005) describes the way in which PowerPoint and online video were incorporated into a poetry lesson as well as in students' assignments after the lesson in order to highlight the impact of integrating new technologies into teaching literature in language classrooms.

In order to shed further light on the Experimental Group students' perception and thus L2 motivation level in relation to the integration of short stories into computer technologies, a Paired Samples T-test was employed to determine the difference between the mean scores of CSSIS on the pretest and the posttest (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Paired Samples Statistics of CSSIS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Experimental Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental							
<i>Pretest</i>	35	3.6593	.81227	.13730	-3.759	34	.001
<i>Posttest</i>	35	4.2290	.58702	.09922			

p=.001, p<.05

As can be seen in the table, a statistical significance was found between the mean scores of CSSIS on the pretest and the posttest (p=.001, p<.05). The students responded positively to the integration of short stories into computers with a mean score of 3.6593 for the pretest and 4.2290 for the posttest, which points out a positive perception towards the integration, and hence an increase in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students.

The interview results also revealed similar findings to the statistical data presented in Table 5.5. The flowing responses given to question four which investigated participants' opinions about the use of short stories via computers in learning English support the statistical data effectively:

“I personally think that the activities that you did were very effective. This was because it encouraged students to make researches. The students did not only search for pictures; they also searched for words, subjects, and even the stories that you gave if they hadn't read them. Besides, I also think that since students could express their inner worlds via the activities that they did, it was a really important application.” (Interviewee 8)

“In fact, this must be something new. I think this will be something very useful because computers attract a great deal of attention. I believe that they can attract even more attention if short stories are incorporated into them.” (Interviewee 1)

“I think the integration of short stories in to computers makes the activity more enjoyable and raises more curiosity, and also encourages us to think creatively. Consequently, I consider it very useful.” (Interviewee 12)

“I think this is an application about reading through traditional techniques. I assume that it is very beneficial because it enables students to do a variety of activities.” (Interviewee 5)

In line with the findings of the both questionnaires (EMS and CSSIS) and the semi-structured interviews, there are various research studies in related literature that report similar outcomes about the use of computers and literary texts in L2 teaching and learning. For instance, in the studies carried out by Chun (1994), Kern (1995) and Warschauer (1996b), university-level L2 students' opportunities to participate in discussion, their motivation and anxiety, and turn-taking patterns have been investigated with regard to a comparison between computer-assisted classroom discussion (CACD) and face-to-face class discussion. According to the findings of the studies, CACD motivates student-centered discussions more than teacher-initiated discussion and increases opportunities for students to produce more output regardless of their individual differences. Some other studies have also found that the integration of literature into computers serves effectively in order to bridge the technological gap between outside world and school setting in addition to offering a number of benefits to students (Ohler 2008; Ware and Warschauer 2005). These benefits are posited as: increasing L2 motivation of learners, particularly struggling readers and writers, allowing for personal practice and individualized learning, and promoting learner autonomy in the process of L2 teaching and learning (see Kenning and Kenning 1983; Lee 2004; Chen 2005; Chiu 2008; Elliott 1990; Lazar 1993).

5.5.3.A comparison of the Control Group students' L2 motivation level between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest

H₀₂: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Control Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest.

As for the difference in terms of L2 motivation level of the Control Group students between the mean scores on the pretest and posttest, an Independent Samples T-test was carried out. The results of the Paired Samples T-test are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Paired Samples Statistics of EMS between the Pretest-Posttest of the Control Group

Group	N	Mean	SD	SE	T	Df	Sig.
Control							
<i>Pretest</i>	30	3.7556	.44699	.08161	2.542	29	.017
<i>Posttest</i>	30	3.4681	.50175	.09161			

p=.017, p<.05

Considering the statistical data presented in the table, there is a statistical significance between the pretest and posttest of the Control Group (p=.017, p<.05) with a mean score of 3.7556 for the pretest and 3.4681 for the posttest, revealing a significant decrease in L2 motivation level of the Control Group students. As a result, the null hypothesis advocating no existence of significance in relation to L2 motivation level of the Control Group students between the mean scores of pretest and posttest was rejected.

The findings of many research studies pertaining to teaching materials support the decrease in the Control Group students' L2 motivation level. In that aspect, Good and Brophy (1997) contend that accommodating students' diverse needs and maintaining a realistic, manageable plan of instruction is a big challenge for professional teachers. Besides, the teacher needs to determine what works best to sustain standards and adopt a way that leads to the predetermined objectives. Likewise, Darling-Hammond (1997: 74)

advocates that, “There is no prepackaged set of steps or lessons that will secure understanding for every learner in the same way.” Consequently, when students are presented with an activity, there is usually a possibility in which some of the students will feel engaged, some will be frustrated and some will feel bored because of their language proficiency level to handle challenges, and their language needs. Although such varieties are considered inconvenient by the majority of language teachers, they are assumed to be irreversible and unavoidable (Sizer 1996: 6); hence, language teachers are expected to design activities or tasks that are at an optimum level of challenge and interest and that will link learners’ mental and emotional perspectives in order to create a stream of knowledge enabling teachers to reinforce and maintain learning (Goleman 1995). Besides, language teachers are expected to provide learners with appropriate and stimulating materials that would assist them in the process of language learning in order to achieve the goals predetermined. Keeping these notions at the back of minds, it can be concluded that the decrease in the Control Group students’ L2 motivation level could be attributed to the traditional language teaching materials through which the students were instructed.

5.5.4. The Impact of gender differences on participants’ L2 motivation level (EMS)

Gender is considered as one of the personal variables that have been related to differences found in L2 motivation level of learners. Different research studies have demonstrated the existence of various motivational patterns in male and female learners in the process of L2 learning and teaching (Gardner 1985; Massey 1994; Netten, Riggs and Hewlett 1999; Pagliaroli 1999). For example, several research studies indicate that while male learners have a higher degree of extrinsic motivation (Anderman and Anderman 1999; Roeser, Midgley and Urdan 1996; Midgley and Urdan 1995 cited in Rusillo and Arias 2004: 100), female learners have a higher degree of intrinsic motivation (Meece and Holt 1993; Nolen 1988 cited in Cerezo Rusillo and Casanova Arias 2004: 100). However, there are also other studies which reveal that there is no evidence of such differences existing (Gebelko 1997; Amezcua and Pichardo 2000 cited in Rusillo and Arias 2004: 105).

Basing on the notions presented above, the following hypothesis are investigated in order to illustrate the role of gender differences in the L2 motivation of the Experimental Group students, thus casting light on the relationship between the L2 motivation level of the students and the approach in which short stories are incorporated into computers in L2 learning and teaching:

H₀₃: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Experimental Group.

H₀₄: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Experimental Group.

Table 5.7 Experimental group students' L2 motivation level in relation to gender differences on the pretest and posttest

Group	Test	N	Mean	SD	SE	T	Df	Sig.
Experimental Group	Pretest							
	Female	22	3.9261	.58034	.12373	.678	33	.503
	Male	13	3.7821	.65289	.18108			
	Posttest							
	Female	22	4.1932	.48821	.10409	-.015	33	.988
	Male	13	4.1955	.36419	.10101			

According to the Independent Samples T-test results presented in Table 5.7, the difference in terms of L2 motivation level between the mean scores of female and male participants in the Experimental Group on the pretest is not statistically significant ($p=.503$, $p>.05$). However, it is seen that the female students had a higher L2 motivation level (Mean= 3.9261) when compared to L2 motivation level of the male students (M= 3.7821) with a difference of 0.144. As for the analysis of the posttest data, a similar result was found in terms of L2 motivation level difference between the mean scores of female and male participants, indicating that there is no statistically significant difference between the female and male participants in relation to their L2 motivation level ($p=.988$, $p>.05$). Contrary to the pretest results, the female students reported a lower L2 motivation level

(M=4.1932) when compared to the male students' L2 motivation level (M=4.1955) with a difference of 0.0023, revealing that the female and male students had virtually the same L2 motivation level. Nevertheless, it is important to note that there is an increase in both the female students' (+0.2671) and male students' (+0.4134) L2 motivation level. As a general outcome of Table 5.7, it can be concluded that the null hypotheses concerned with the L2 motivation of the Experimental Group students in relation to gender differences on pretest and posttest were accepted since statistically no significant differences were observed. Keeping this very result at the back of our minds, it can be interpreted that the increase in the L2 motivation level of the participants is likely to result from the effect of the treatment applied, namely the impact of the integration of short stories into computer technologies.

A general analysis of the responses given to the interview questions contributes positively to the findings of the statistical data presented in Table 5.7, revealing that the female (N=7) and male (N=5) interviewees had similar opinions pertaining to the integration of short stories into computer technologies, and thus its impact on their L2 motivation level. The following quotations by a female and male interviewee reveal the similarity between the female and male learners' L2 motivation level:

“The students of our era are, as you know, fond of technology. They would not read a book that you give. However, if you upload the book on a computer, a student who usually works on a computer will, I think, spare some time for it as well.” (Interviewee 1: Male)

“I would certainly like to use such a technique in my future classes because as it is known, we are in the information age, technology age and students do not receive education in the traditional methods and techniques through which we were educated. They are also in a close relationship with computers and spend most of their time on computers. As a result, I think it will be very beneficial to integrate computers and short stories into language education.” (Interviewee 7: Female)

In order to find out whether there is a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest and posttest between the male and female students in the Control

Group, Independent Samples T-test was carried out. Table 5.8 shows the results concerned with the following hypotheses:

H₀₅: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Control Group.

H₀₆: There is no significant difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the mean scores of the male and female students in the Control Group.

Table 5.8 Control group students' L2 motivation level in relation to gender differences on the pretest and posttest

Group	Test	N	Mean	SD	SE	T	Df	Sig.
Control Group	Pretest							
	Female	18	3.7662	.50733	.11958	.157	28	.876
	Male	12	4.7396	.35849	.10349			
	Posttest							
	Female	18	3.4606	.46868	.11047	-.097	28	.923
	Male	12	3.4792	.56923	.16432			

As expected, the findings support that the difference in terms of L2 motivation level between the mean scores of female and male participants in the Control Group on the pretest is not statistically significant ($p=.876$, $p>.05$). Nonetheless, it is evident that the male students had a higher L2 motivation level (Mean= 4.7396) than that of the female students (M= 3.7662) with a difference of 0.9734. The findings of the posttest data report a similar result to the one on the pretest in that the L2 motivation level difference between the mean scores of female and male participants is not statistically significant ($p=.923$, $p>.05$). The male students had a higher L2 motivation level (M=3.4792) when compared to the female students' L2 motivation level (M=3.4606) with a difference of 0.0186, reporting similar L2 motivation level between the female and male students. Nevertheless, it is important to note that there is a decrease in both the female students' (-0.3056) and male students' (-1.2604) L2 motivation level. To put it briefly, the statistical data presented in

Table 5.8 verify the null hypotheses concerned with the L2 motivation of the Control Group students in relation to gender differences on pretest and posttest since statistically no significant differences were observed. In addition, it can be interpreted that the traditional approach pursued in the Control Group in the process of carrying out the language tasks and activities did not have any positive effect on the students' L2 motivation level but rather a negative influence that diminished their L2 motivation level.

Parallel to one of the assumptions of the study (no significant difference between L2 motivation level and gender differences) and the findings presented in Table 5.7 and 5.8, the outcomes of some research studies indicate similar results. For instance, Bacon and Finnemann (1992) note that there is no significant difference between male and female learners with a regard to their L2 motivation level in general. In line with Bacon and Finnemann, Kim (2004) conducted interviews with the students in literature circles that she observed, and reported that approximately all the students had positive response which indicated involvement in and enthusiasm for the use of literature in the L2 learning process, and thus implying a positive attitude towards the incorporation of short stories into computer technologies. Similarly, in a study with 521 students aged between 14 to 18 (N Female= 285 and N Male=236) by Rusillo and Arias (2004: 105), no significant difference is observed between female and male students in terms of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. In another study with 167 university students in 12 ESL and EFL academic writing classes in the United States, Hong Kong, and Taiwan, Warschauer (1996c) notes that no significant difference was observed in relation to L2 motivation between male and female participants who were taught via computers for writing and communication classes ($Mean_{male}=3.575$; $Mean_{female}=3.641$). Beauvois and Eledge' study (1996) with university students further contributes to the findings of the present study in that they examined the attitudes of university students towards using a synchronous tool and found that a great majority of the students, regardless of their personality profiles, perceived computers to be linguistically, affectively and interpersonally beneficial.

However, there are other studies which present contradictory findings with the present study. In that aspect, a study by Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) involving over 8000 13-14 year old Hungarian learners reveals that male learners have less L2 motivation than female learners. Likewise, in a study carried out by Williams, Burden and Lanvers with

228 adolescent students learning French and German in Grades 7 to 9, L2 motivation level of female learners is reported to overwhelm that of male learners. In some other studies, male learners are stated to have a higher level of instrumental motivation than female learners while in some other ones female learners are found to be more instrumentally motivated than male learners (Bacon and Finnemann 1992; Gardner 1985; Ellis 1994).

5.5.5. The impact of the frequency of computer use on participants' L2 motivation level (EMS)

In literature, one of the factors influencing L2 motivation level of learners in relation to computer technologies, thus the integration of short stories into computers, has been identified as the frequency of computer use. In order to illustrate the impact of the integration of short stories into computers upon the participants' L2 motivation level, the Experimental Group and Control Group students' mean scores of L2 motivation level were compared across their frequency of computer use per week both on the pretest and posttest.

The following hypotheses related to the Experimental Group were investigated in the scope of the present study:

H₀₇: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Experimental Group.

H₀₈: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Experimental Group.

Table 5.9 presents descriptive information pertaining to the relation between the Experimental Group students L2 motivation level and their frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest.

Table 5.9 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students at different response categories of computer usage frequency on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Less than 8 hours per week	16	3.8203	.56391
	8-14 hours per week	11	3.8636	.48523
	15 hours and over per week	8	3.9896	.85180
	Total	35	3.8726	.60287
Posttest	Less than 8 hours per week	16	4.2760	.37046
	8-14 hours per week	11	4.1136	.54775
	15 hours and over per week	8	4.1406	.43697
	Total	35	4.1940	.44049

As can be seen in the table, a gradual increase in the L2 motivation level of the learners parallel to the rise in frequency of computer use was observed on the pretest. The students who reported to use computers 15 hours and over appeared to have higher L2 motivation level (Mean=3.9896) than the other two response categories (Mean=3.8203; Mean=3.8603 respectively). However, it is also notable that none of the response categories' L2 motivation level is above 4.2. In other words, all through the categories, the L2 motivation level of the learners was observed to be moderate, not going beyond high level. As for the posttest results, an increase was detected in all the three categories' mean values of L2 motivation level. However, it is evident that unlike pretest results, the students who reported to use computer less than 8 hours appeared to have the highest L2 motivation level (Mean=4.2760) of the three categories. It is also notable that the rise in the L2 motivation level of this category went over 4.2, hence indicating a high level of L2 motivation. That is, while the other two categories were still at moderate level of L2 motivation, only the category reporting to use computer less than 8 hours went beyond moderate level.

To further cast light on whether this change in L2 motivation level regarding frequency of computer use was statistically significant, One-way ANOVA test was employed (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	.154	2	.077	.202	.818
		Within Groups	12.203	32	.381		
		Total	12.357	34			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.202	2	.101	.504	.609
		Within Groups	6.395	32	.200		
		Total	6.597	32			

The ANOVA test revealed that there was no significant difference between Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their frequency of computer use on both the pretest and the posttest ($P_{\text{Pretest}}=.818$; $P_{\text{Posttest}}=.609$, $p>.05$). Post Hoc Scheffé test also pointed out similar relationship between different frequency levels of computer use.

Table 5.11 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Less than 8 hours per week	8-14 hours per week	-.04332	.984
			15 hours and over per week	-.16927	.819
		8-14 hours per week	Less than 8 hours per week	.04332	.984
			15 hours and over per week	-.12595	.908
		15 hours and over per week	Less than 8 hours per week	.16927	.819
			8-14 hours per week	.12595	.908
	Posttest	Less than 8 hours per week	8-14 hours per week	.16241	.654
			15 hours and over per week	.13542	.784
		8-14 hours per week	Less than 8 hours per week	-.16241	.654
			15 hours and over per week	-.02699	.992
		15 hours and over per week	Less than 8 hours per week	-.13542	.784
			8-14 hours per week	.02699	.992

As expected, the findings of Post Hoc Scheffé test support the outcomes of One-way ANOVA test presented in Table 5.10 in that no significant differences were observed between different frequency levels of computer use in terms of L2 motivation on both the pretest and posttest ($p > .05$), and thus the null hypotheses above were accepted. In other words, the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students who use computer for different periods of time did not differ significantly from each other at a significance level of $p < .05$, meaning the amount of time spent using computers has no impact upon L2 motivation level of learners. As a result, it can be interpreted that the rise in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students on the posttest is more likely to result from the method that incorporated short stories into computers in the process of L2 learning and teaching.

This finding regarding no difference in L2 motivation level between the students who use computer for different periods of time is inconformity with the literature related to the use of literary texts and CALL in L2 learning and teaching process (see Berardo 2006; Akyel and Yalçın 1990; Wallace 1992; Schoepp and Eroğul 2001; Chen 2005; Kenning and Kenning 1983). For instance, it is asserted that computers enhance L2 motivation of learners in general by providing them a less threatening means to communicate and facilitating work on meaningful projects (Kelm 1992; Kroonenberg 1994, 1995; Wang 1993; Barson et al. 1993; Vilmi 1995 cited in Warschauer 1996c). Likewise, in a study with two classes which experienced a student-centered approach to the use of literature, Yang (2002) conducted interviews with the students and found that the students showed a much more positive attitude towards the approach applied since the students were able to develop their language skills and critical attitude to their reading. In the same vein, Dunkel (1990) asserts that benefits of computer technologies as a medium in L2 learning and teaching include increasing L2 learners' self-esteem, vocational preparedness, language proficiency and overall academic skills. In some other studies, it is claimed that computer technologies allow more equal and increased participation than those classes which employ traditional techniques (Blake 2000; Bump 1990; Chun 1994; Warschauer 1995, 1996b), positive attitudes (Beauvois 1994), greater student-centeredness and decreased teacher-dominance (Kern 1995; Sullivan and Pratt 1996), and a vast plethora of discourse functions and interactional modifications (Chun 1994; Sotillo 2000). As the studies above concerned

with computers and literature imply, the integration of short stories into computers can similarly augment L2 motivation level of learners.

As for the analysis of the relation between the Control Group students' L2 motivation level and their frequency of computer use, the same procedures were employed in order to test the hypotheses below:

H₀₉: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Control Group.

H₀₁₀: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of computer use in the Control Group.

Table 5.12 shows the descriptive information concerned with the relation between the participants L2 motivation level and their frequency of computer use on both the pretest and posttest:

Table 5.12 Mean Values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students at different response categories of computer usage frequency on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Less than 8 hours per week	12	3.7222	.45999
	8-14 hours per week	9	4.0185	.42498
	15 hours and over per week	9	3.5370	.34576
	Total	30	3.7556	.44699
Posttest	Less than 8 hours per week	12	3.5625	.46551
	8-14 hours per week	9	3.4306	.33398
	15 hours and over per week	9	3.3796	.69236
	Total	30	3.4681	.50175

According to the findings presented in the table, the Control Group participants' mean values of L2 motivation level in relation to their frequency of computer use varied both on the pretest and posttest; therefore, no parallelism was observed in terms of reporting a rise between the L2 motivation level of the participants and their frequency of computer use. The pretest findings indicate that those students who reported to use computer 8-14 hours appeared to have a higher L2 motivation level than the other two categories (see Table 13). Nevertheless, it is evident that none of the categories' L2 motivation level went beyond 4.2, which reveals that all the three categories had a moderate level of L2 motivation on the pretest. As for the posttest findings, in general the Control Group students showed a decrease in their L2 motivation level, which runs counter with the Experimental Group students' posttest results. Besides, a reverse correlation was observed between the L2 motivation level of the students and their frequency of computer use. In other words, those students who reported to use computer less than 8 hours seemed to have the highest L2 motivation level (Mean=3.5625) of the three categories. It is also notable that while those students who reported to use computers 15 hours and over had a moderate L2 motivation level on the pretest, they showed a low L2 motivation level on the posttest (Mean=3.3796).

In order to further detect whether the differences in means observed at different levels on both the pretest and the posttest were statistically significant, One-way ANOVA test together with Post Hoc Scheffé were carried out (Table 5.13 and 5.14).

Table 5.13 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	1.065	2	.533	3.042	.064
		Within Groups	4.729	27	.175		
		Total	5.794	29			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.190	2	.095	.361	.700
		Within Groups	7.111	27	.263		
		Total	7.301	29			

The ANOVA test revealed no significant difference between the L2 motivation level of the students and their frequency of computer use on both the pretest and posttest ($P_{\text{Pretest}}=.064$; $P_{\text{Posttest}}=.700$, $p>.05$). The Post Hoc Scheffé, correspondingly, showed no significant relationship between different frequency levels of computer use on both the pretest and posttest.

As Table 5.14 illustrates, no significant differences were found between different frequency levels of computer use in terms of L2 motivation level on both the pretest and posttest ($p>.05$), hence the null hypotheses stating no existence of significant difference between the Control Group students' L2 motivation level and their frequency of computer use both on the pretest and the posttest were accepted. To put it differently, the amount of time spent using computers had no impact upon the L2 motivation level of Control Group students. Consequently, it can be interpreted that the decrease in the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students on the posttest is likely to result from the traditional language learning methods and materials used to exploit the activities specified in the methodology section.

Table 5.14 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency of computer use on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Less than 8 hours per week	8-14 hours per week	-.29630	.292
			15 hours and over per week	.18519	.610
		8-14 hours per week	Less than 8 hours per week	.29630	.292
			15 hours and over per week	.48148	.068
		15 hours and over per week	Less than 8 hours per week	-.18519	.610
			8-14 hours per week	-.48148	.068
	Posttest	Less than 8 hours per week	8-14 hours per week	.13194	.845
			15 hours and over per week	.18287	.724
		8-14 hours per week	Less than 8 hours per week	-.13194	.845
			15 hours and over per week	.05093	.978
		15 hours and over per week	Less than 8 hours per week	-.18287	.724
			8-14 hours per week	-.05093	.978

In related literature, it is noted that language learning materials play a significant role in terms of enhancing L2 motivation level of learners. Tomlinson (2011) asserts that language learning materials “should stimulate learner interaction with the input rather than just passive reception of it” (14). He further maintains that language learning materials should achieve impact via meeting such principles as: (1) novelty (e.g. new and interesting topics, illustrations, and activities); (2) variety (e.g. breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity; using various text-types taken from many different sources; using several different instructor voices on CD); (3) attractive presentation (e.g. enabling the use of attractive colors and photographs); (4) appealing content (e.g. topics that attract learners’ interest; engaging stories; universal themes; local references); (5) achievable challenge (e.g. tasks or activities which challenge learners to think). Keeping these principles posited by Tomlinson at the back of our minds, it can be interpreted that the traditional language learning materials used in the Control Group failed to meet these principles and thus resulted in a decrease in the L2 motivation level of the students, whereas the integration of short stories into computers served effectively to meet these principles and thus enabled a rise in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental group students. In line with Tomlinson, it is stated that computer technologies support educational objectives such as collaboration, reflection, knowledge synthesis and creation, dispositions for learning and development of all language skills more than traditional approaches (Cowie and Jones 2009), which indicates the importance of computers – thus the integration of short stories into computers – in L2 learning and teaching.

5.5.6. The impact of computer self-efficacy perception on participants’ L2 motivation level (EMS)

In relation to frequency of use, computer self-efficacy perception of learners was another point considered to be a probable variable that might have an effect on L2 motivation of learners. In some research studies, it is noted that there are a number of factors that might influence both learners and teachers’ preferences (thus motivation) of what, when, and how to utilize computer technologies in their processes of L2 learning and

teaching, and these factors are suggested as individuals' skills, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, opinions, personality, knowledge (Nespor 1987; Bitner and Bitner 2002 cited in Topkaya 2010: 143). Of these variables, computer self-efficacy perceptions of learners are perceived to have profound impact on learners' L2 motivation level. Bearing this notion in mind, the Experimental Group and Control Group students' L2 motivation levels on the pretest and posttest were compared across their computer self-efficacy perceptions in the scope of the present study, respectively.

Grounding on the notion mentioned above, the following hypotheses were tested in order to detect the connection between the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students and their computer self-efficacy perceptions, hence illustrating the relationship between L2 motivation level and the approach in which short stories are incorporated into computers in L2 learning and teaching:

H₀₁₁: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Experimental Group.

H₀₁₂: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Experimental Group.

Table 5.15 presents the descriptive information pertaining to the relation between the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest:

Table 5.15 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Low	11	3.4356	.58995
	Medium	12	3.8750	.52884
	High	12	4.2708	.40417
	Total	35	3.8726	.60287
Posttest	Low	11	4.0227	.49594
	Medium	12	4.2292	.38167
	High	12	4.3160	.42842
	Total	35	4.1940	.44049

As the table reveals, a gradual increase in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group participants parallel to the rise in their computer self-efficacy perception was observed both on the pretest and posttest. On the pretest, the students who reported a high level of computer self-efficacy perception appeared to have higher L2 motivation level (Mean=4.2708) than the other two categories (Mean=3.4356; Mean=3.8750 respectively). It was also observed that while the students who reported to have a low and medium level of computer self-efficacy perceptions showed a moderate level of L2 motivation, those who reported a high computer self-efficacy perception showed a high level of L2 motivation level. According to the posttest results, an increase was seen in all three categories' mean values of L2 motivation level, indicating a parallelism to the rise in the computer self-efficacy perception. Unlike pretest results, only the students who reported a low level of computer self-efficacy perception showed a moderate level of L2 motivation (Mean=4.0227) while those who reported a medium or high level of computer self-efficacy perception had a high level of L2 motivation (Mean=4.2292; Mean=4.3160 successively).

In order to shed further light on whether the differences in means observed at different levels on both the pretest and the posttest were statistically significant, One-way ANOVA test together with Post Hoc Scheffé were employed (Table 5.16 and 5.17).

Table 5.16 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	4.004	2	2.002	7.668	.002
		Within Groups	8.354	32	.261		
		Total	12.357	34			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.516	2	.258	1.358	.272
		Within Groups	6.081	32	.190		
		Total	6.597	34			

As a result, a statistical significance was found between the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students and their computer self-efficacy perception on the pretest ($P=.002$; $p<.05$). However, the posttest results indicated a contradictory result to the pretest in that no significant difference was detected between the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students and their computer self-efficacy perception ($P=.272$; $p>.05$). Further analysis was carried out to better understand within which groups the significance was seen (Table 5.17).

As is evident in Table 5.17, on the pretest Post Hoc Scheffe test revealed a significant difference only between the L2 motivation levels of the group that reported a low level of computer self-efficacy perception and the one that reported a high level of computer self-efficacy perception. Consequently, the null hypotheses stating no existence of significant difference between the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perception on the pretest was rejected. Unlike pretest results, the outcome of the posttest indicated no statistical significance between the categories in terms of L2 motivation level ($p>.05$). Therefore, the null hypothesis stating no existence of significant difference between the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perception on the posttest was accepted. As a general interpretation of the results presented in the table, it can be suggested that the difference found between the pretest and posttest results may be a result of the students'

computer experience gained in through the study and/or in the courses that require them to carry out some activities or tasks via computers.

Table 5.17 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Low	Medium	-.43939	.136
			High	-.83523	.002
		Medium	Low	.43939	.136
			High	-.39583	.182
		High	Low	.83523	.002
			Medium	.39583	.182
	Posttest	Low	Medium	-.20644	.532
			High	-.29324	.287
		Medium	Low	.20644	.532
			High	-.08681	.888
		High	Low	.29324	.287
			Medium	.08681	.888

The results of the qualitative data also revealed similar findings to statistical data presented above. Particularly, the second and third questions of the interview investigated the problems that the students experienced during the study and the effect of these problems on their L2 motivation level. In fact, the rationale behind these questions was to derive information about the impact of the computer self-efficacy perceptions of students on their L2 motivation. The outcomes of the interviews indicated that the majority of students participating in the interviews did not have any problems with using the program due to their previous computer competence and the tutorial they were provided by the teacher. As for those having problems with using the program at the beginning of the study, they reported to handle the problems through the tutorials provided and the help of their friends. They further added that these problems did not diminish their L2 motivation

level. Consequently, no significant difference was detected between the answers of the students in terms of L2 motivation, which pointed out that students' computer self-efficacy perceptions or computer competence levels did not have significant effect on their L2 motivation level. The following responses given to the interview question two and three complement the data coverage of the study:

“During the study, you guided us really well. I also downloaded the program on my laptop and did practise it. I did not have any serious problems, so it did not decrease my motivation.” (Interviewee 12)

“At the beginning, I did not know how to use the program, but thanks to your guidance and help I overcame these problems. Then it was like an ordinary program for me because I could easily use it. Therefore, my motivation did not decrease.” (Interviewee 4)

“I had problems at the beginning, but I got over these by trial and error method. In fact, these problems did not decrease my motivation because they were minor problems, and after a few trials I understood how enjoyable and effective the program was. We did not merely read short stories. We searched for pictures on the Internet, integrated the pictures into stories, and we also wrote the rest of the stories. In such a way, I understood how effective the program was.” (Interviewee 7)

“I did not have any problems while using the program. It was quite easy to use program as the program itself was quite simple. As a result, it did not influence my motivation in a negative way.” (Interviewee 8)

In related literature implying similar findings, it is noted that since naturally over the course of time students spend more time working with computers because of certain course requirements, they tend to build similar computer self-efficacy perceptions (Zehir Topkaya 2010: 150), which may, as a result, diminish the significance observed between their L2 motivation levels. In line with Zehir Topkaya, it is noted that those who always use computers report higher computer self-efficacy perceptions than the ones who do not

(Özçelik and Kurt 2007), which implies that when students achieve similar computer self-efficacy perceptions, they are likely to assume similar L2 motivation levels as well. However, more research should be done on computer self-efficacy perception before definite conclusions may be drawn in order to shed light on the effect of the integration of short stories into computers on the L2 motivation level of students.

As for the Control Group students, the following hypotheses concerned with the relation between their L2 motivation level and computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest were tested:

H₀13: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Control Group.

H₀14: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to computer self-efficacy perceptions in the Control Group.

The following tables present the statistical information related to the hypotheses under investigation.

Table 5.18 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Low	8	3.6146	.57896
	Medium	13	3.8462	.42026
	High	9	3.7500	.36443
	Total	30	3.7556	.44699
Posttest	Low	8	3.3698	.54483
	Medium	13	3.5032	.51214
	High	9	3.5046	.49627
	Total	30	3.4681	.50175

As illustrated in the table, there is no parallelism between the Control group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest whereas a parallelism was detected on the posttest. On the pretest, the students who reported a medium level of computer self-efficacy perception appeared to have to higher L2 motivation (Mean=3.8462) when compared to that of other two categories (Mean=3.6146; Mean=3.7500 respectively). However, it was noted that none of the categories L2 motivation level went beyond moderate level. As for the posttest, the results indicated a parallelism between the L2 motivation of the students and their computer self-efficacy perceptions. The students who stated to have a high computer self-efficacy perception reported the highest L2 motivation level (Mean=3.5046) of the three categories. Nevertheless, it is significant that a decrease was observed in the L2 motivation level of the three categories. It is also notable that while the students who reported a low computer self-efficacy perception held low L2 motivation level (Mean=3.3698), going below moderate level, those who reported medium and high computer self-efficacy perceptions assumed moderate L2 motivation level.

Considering the descriptive statistics presented in Table 5.18, further analyses were carried out through employing One-way Anova and Scheffe tests in order to investigate whether there were any significant differences between groups (Table 5.19 and 5.20).

Table 5.19 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	.266	2	.133	.649	.530
		Within Groups	5.528	27	.205		
		Total	5.794	29			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.105	2	.053	.198	.822
		Within Groups	7.196	27	.267		
		Total	7.301	29			

The ANOVA test revealed no significant difference between the L2 motivation level of the Control group students and their computer self-efficacy perceptions on both the pretest and posttest ($P_{\text{Pretest}}=.530$; $P_{\text{Posttest}}=.822$, $p>.05$). The Post Hoc Scheffe Test, similarly, revealed no significant relationship between different levels of computer self-efficacy perceptions.

Table 5.20 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Low	Medium	-.23157	.531
			High	-.13542	.828
		Medium	Low	.23157	.531
			High	.09615	.887
		High	Low	.13542	.828
			Medium	-.09615	.887
	Posttest	Low	Medium	-.13341	.848
			High	-.13484	.866
		Medium	Low	.13341	.848
			High	-.00142	1.000
		High	Low	.13484	.866
			Medium	.00142	1.000

As expected, the findings support that no significant differences were observed between different levels of computer self-efficacy perceptions in terms of L2 motivation level on both the pretest and posttest ($p>.05$). Consequently, the null hypotheses asserting no significant difference between the Control Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perceptions on both the pretest and posttest were accepted. In other words, it was detected that the level of computer self-efficacy perception had no effect on the students' L2 motivation level. As a result, it can be interpreted that although similar activities were used in the both groups, a decrease was observed in the L2

motivation level of the Control Group students, and this decrease is likely to result from the traditional language teaching and learning materials described in the methodology section of the study.

This finding regarding a decrease of L2 motivation in the Control Group is consistent with literature that highlights the significance of language teaching and learning materials and the benefits of integrating short stories and computer technologies into L2 education (see Warschauer and Meskill 2000; Akyel and Yalçın 1990; Erkaya 2005; Vandrick 1997; Pennington 1996). The most frequently-cited motivating aspects of computer-assisted language learning and teaching are posited as (a) the novelty of working with a new means, (b) the opportunities of carrying out individualized tasks, (c) the advantage of learner control over time and speed, and (d) the opportunities for immediate, frequent non-judgmental feedback (Fox 1998; Pollock and Sullivan 1990; Waldrop 1984 cited in Warschauer 1996c). Likewise, Nuttall (1996) notes that since short stories solidify that language is used for real-life goals by real people, they create a motivating language learning atmosphere in which more effective and fruitful language learning activities/tasks can be exploited. In the light of the present study's findings and the related literature, it can be concluded that the increase in the Experimental Group students' and the decrease in the Control Group students' L2 motivation levels can be attributed to the use of different materials.

5.5.7. The impact of the frequency of short story reading on participants' L2 motivation level (EMS)

In literature on reading skill, reading in a second/foreign language is considered to enable students to get exposed to the target language and receive valuable linguistic input that promotes language proficiency (Erten and Karakaş 2007: 113), which indirectly may contribute to the L2 motivation level of learners. Particularly with the shift in reading processes from a perception of reading as a rather passive process to that of an interactive process (Grabe and Stoller 2002; Koda 2005 cited in Erten and Karakaş 2007), the impact of reading in the target language on L2 motivation level has increased. Consequently, in the scope of the present study, the frequency of short story reading was perceived to be one

of the variables that might have a direct or indirect impact on the L2 motivation level of the students and thus interfere with the effectiveness of the technique that include the integration of short stories into computers and its influence on the students' L2 motivation.

In the light of the notions mentioned above, the following hypotheses were tested in order to illustrate the relationship between the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students and their frequency of short story reading, thus shedding light on connection between L2 motivation level and the trend in which short stories are incorporated into computers in L2 learning and teaching:

H₀15: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Experimental Group.

H₀16: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Experimental Group.

Table 5.21 presents the mean values for the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to their frequency of short story reading.

Table 5.21 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students in relation to frequency of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Never	12	3.6215	.69732
	Sometimes	15	3.8611	.54887
	Often	8	4.2708	.33034
	Total	35	3.8726	.60287
Posttest	Never	12	4.0833	.44452
	Sometimes	15	4.1806	.48404
	Often	8	4.3854	.31635
	Total	35	4.1940	.44049

As is obvious in the table, the students' L2 motivation level rose as their frequency of short story reading increased on both the pretest and the posttest. On the pretest, the students who reported to read short stories often appeared to have higher L2 motivation (Mean=4.2708) when compared to that of other two categories (Mean=3.6215; Mean=3.8611 respectively). Besides, it was detected that while the students who reported to never or sometimes read short stories showed a moderate level of L2 motivation, those who reported to often read showed a high level of L2 motivation level, going beyond moderate level. With an increase in the L2 motivation of the students in the three frequency levels of short reading, the posttest results also revealed similar outcomes to the pretest measurements. Only the students who stated to often read short stories showed a high level of L2 motivation level with a mean score of 4.3854 while the other two categories reported a moderate level of L2 motivation (Mean=4.0833; Mean=4.1806 respectively).

The statistical analysis of the quantitative data via One-way ANOVA and Post Hoc Scheffe tests yielded no significant difference between the L2 motivation level of the students and their frequency levels of short story reading. Table 5.22 shows the results of the One-way ANOVA test.

Table 5.22 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	2.027	2	1.014	3.140	.057
		Within Groups	10.330	32	.323		
		Total	12.357	34			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.443	2	.221	1.151	.329
		Within Groups	6.154	32	.192		
		Total	6.597	34			

An examination of the table reveals that there was no significant difference between the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students and their frequency levels of short story reading on both the pretest and posttest ($P_{\text{Pretest}}=.057$; $P_{\text{Posttest}}=.329$, $p>.05$).

The Pos Hoc Scheffe test pointed out similar results to the One-way ANOVA test findings. A close examination of Table 5.23 indicates that there were no significant differences between different frequency levels of short story reading in relation to L2 motivation level on both the pretest and posttest ($p>.05$). Thus, the related null hypotheses were accepted. That is, it was observed that the frequency levels of short story reading had no statistically significant effect on the students' L2 motivation level. As a result, the increase detected in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students can be attributed to the technique employing the integration of short stories into computers in the present study.

Table 5.23 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Never	Sometimes	-.23958	.559
			Often	-.64931	.057
		Sometimes	Never	.23958	.559
			Often	-.40972	.272
		Often	Never	.64931	.57
			Sometimes	.40972	.272
	Posttest	Never	Sometimes	-.09722	.850
			Often	-.30208	.333
		Sometimes	Never	.09722	.850
			Often	-.20486	.572
		Often	Never	.30208	.333
			Sometimes	.20486	.572

The results of the qualitative data support the findings of the statistical information presented above. The following answers given to question eight which investigated students' notions related to using short stories via computer technologies in their future teaching activities reinforces the statistical data even further:

“Reading literary texts are considered to be boring by people and students as well as me. There is a thick book over there waiting to be read, but you are just standing and looking at it. It is rather difficult to read it; however, the way you handled the issue makes it really very enjoyable and doesn't bore students. I didn't feel bored during the study, and I think this is the biggest contribution of the study to me.” (Interviewee 9)

“Taking a book and reading it is at the discretion of people. They do whatever they like. I am not a person who likes reading books, but since I like reading something on the screen of a computer, I think using short stories together with computers is a good idea to draw attention.” (Interviewee 1)

In literature, it is noted that short stories have robust impact on language teaching and learning because they create authentic contexts in which students have the opportunity to observe how the target language functions (Brumfit and Carter 1986), thus reinforcing students' ability to use the language. Similarly, Guarienta and Morley (2001) assert that since short stories are authentic language learning materials and hence enable students to gain real information, they can promote students' L2 motivation level by exposing them to real language. Grounding on these notions, it can be inferred that the more students read short stories, the more they feel encouraged and motivated in the L2 learning process. However, in the present experimental study, it was detected that the frequency of short story reading had no statistical effect on students' L2 motivation level. Therefore, more research should be done on frequency of short story reading before definite conclusions may be drawn.

As for the relationship between the Control Group students' L2 motivation level and their frequency of short story reading on the pretest and posttest, the following hypotheses were tested:

H₀17: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the pretest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Control Group.

H₀18: There is no significance difference in terms of L2 motivation level on the posttest between the response categories' mean scores related to the frequency of short story reading in the Control Group.

Table 5.24 presents descriptive statistics concerned with the Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to their frequency of short story reading.

Table 5.24 Mean values for L2 motivation level of the Control Group students in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

		N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Never	8	3.5156	.21586
	Sometimes	13	3.7468	.36303
	Often	9	3.9815	.60886
	Total	30	3.7556	.44699
Posttest	Never	8	3.3125	.57087
	Sometimes	13	3.4679	.54543
	Often	9	3.6065	.36806
	Total	30	3.4681	.50175

An examination of the table shows that there is a gradual increase in the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students parallel to the rise in their frequency of short story reading on both the pretest and posttest. However, it is notable that a decrease was detected in students' L2 motivation level on the posttest. On the pretest, the students who reported to often read short stories appeared to have higher L2 motivation (Mean=3.9815) than the other two categories (Mean=3.5156; Mean=3.7468 successively). It was also detected that all the students had a moderate level of L2 motivation level, not going beyond moderate level. With a decrease in the mean values of L2 motivation level in

the three categories, the posttest results revealed that the students who reported to never read short stories had low L2 motivation level (Mean=3.3125), falling below moderate level, while those who reported to sometimes or often read short stories were at a moderate level of L2 motivation (Mean=3.4679; Mean=3.6065 respectively).

Further statistical analysis carried out via One-way ANOVA and Post Hoc Scheffe yielded no significant differences between L2 motivation levels of the students and the frequency levels of short story reading.

Table 5.25 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
L2 motivation	Pretest	Between Groups	.921	2	.460	2.551	.097
		Within Groups	4.873	27	.180		
		Total	5.794	29			
	Posttest	Between Groups	.366	2	.183	.713	.499
		Within Groups	6.935	27	.257		
		Total	7.301	29			

As is indicated in Table 5.25, no statistically significant difference was detected between the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students and their frequency levels of short story reading both on the pretest and the posttest ($P_{\text{Pretest}}=.057$; $P_{\text{Posttest}}=.499$, $p>.05$). The Post Hoc Scheffe test also revealed similar findings to the One-way ANOVA test results.

Table 5.26 Post Hoc Scheffe Test for Control Group students' L2 motivation level in relation to frequency levels of short story reading on the pretest and posttest

	Test	Frequency of computer use (I)	Frequency of computer use (J)	Mean (I-J)	Sig.
L2 Motivation	Pretest	Never	Sometimes	-.23117	.490
			Often	-.46586	.097
		Sometimes	Never	.23117	.490
			Often	-.23469	.455
		Often	Never	.46586	.097
			Sometimes	.23469	.455
	Posttest	Never	Sometimes	-.15545	.794
			Often	-.29398	.499
		Sometimes	Never	.15545	.794
			Often	-.13853	.821
		Often	Never	.29398	.499
			Sometimes	.13853	.821

A close examination of Table 5.26 shows that there were no significant differences between different frequency levels of short story reading in terms of L2 motivation level on both the pretest and posttest ($p > .05$), hence the related null hypotheses were accepted. In other words, it was observed that the frequency of short story reading had no statistically significant effect on the students' L2 motivation level. Consequently, it can be interpreted that as discussed in relation to different variables so far, the decrease in the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students may result from the traditional language teaching and learning materials aforementioned in the methodology section.

5.6. Further Explication: Interview Results

The further content analysis of the interview data revealed some outstanding findings which shed more light on the effectiveness of the technique that included the incorporation of short stories into computers in the process of language teaching and learning. These results also contribute to the findings of the quantitative data by providing richness and further insight into the process during which the students carried out the study.

The analyzed data of the seventh interview question which focused on students' notions pertaining to sharing their "jing recordings" via their "screencast" accounts pointed out that the students had positive reactions to sharing their recordings with both the teacher and their classmates. They emphasized the importance of *cooperation* provided through this sharing process since it helped them overcome the problems they had while using the programs and finding appropriate pictures or videos in order to integrate into their tasks and activities. They also stressed the importance of *receiving feedback* from their teacher and friends and *giving feedback* to them about the recordings they had shared, which enabled *interaction* among the students. In literature related to the use of literary texts and CALL in L2 education, there are numerous studies that point out the positive effects of *cooperation* and *feedback* on L2 motivation (see Brown 2007: 172; Dörnyei 1994a; Williams and Burden 1997; Kern and Warschauer 2000; Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers and Sussex 1985). The following responses given by the interviewees serve effectively in order to explicate the point in concern:

"Working with my friends made me feel happier because I could ask them for help whenever I needed..... As you know, I like writing short stories and have some Turkish ones published in state university's journal. I think sharing my recordings through my screencast account encouraged me to write even further because it enables users to reach audience and see the comments made by them. I think this study was an initial step for me to receive criticism from readers and to be a good writer." (Interviewee 1)

"A network was formed between all of us. I could see and evaluate what my friends had done. Similarly, they could see what I had done and show me

my mistakes. This process evoked the feeling of success in me and also helped me overcome my lacks.” (Interviewee 5)

“Sharing our recordings with other people was like sharing it with the whole world. I did not have any problems during this sharing process, either. Instead of handing our tasks in traditional paper-based form, we sent them to our teacher in an online environment, and he gave very effective feedbacks to improve our language skills.” (Interviewee 9)

“My teacher’s and friends’ comments on my recordings were very motivating because they made me do all the activities with great pleasure. I also think the comments that I had written on my friends’ recordings had the same effect on their motivation because once an activity was finished, more and more people asked me to give my e-mail address to them in order to share their recordings with me.” (Interviewee 10)

According to the content analysis of the interview data, the students also reported a substantial improvement in their command of *vocabulary* and *grammar*. The students stated that the richness of the short stories in terms of vocabulary enabled them to learn new vocabulary items through authentic contexts in addition to using the online dictionaries to look up the meaning of unknown words that they came across in the stories. They further added that since the stories that they read were rich in presenting different linguistic forms, they were able to see the use of those language forms in authentic contexts. In related literature, it is, similarly, noted that both literary texts and CALL contribute considerably to language learners’ knowledge of vocabulary and grammar (see Salli-Copur and Birlık 2007; Lao and Krashen 2000; Kledecka-Nadera 2001; Liu and Huo 2007). This finding regarding an improvement in students’ vocabulary and grammar knowledge is reinforced and solidified by the following responses given by the students:

“This study enabled me to improve my vocabulary knowledge substantially because I read three different stories. It also helped me to make self-evaluations about my studies. Besides, it increased my curiosity to do more reading.” (Interviewee 5)

“It contributed positively to my grammar knowledge because I had the chance to practise tenses through the stories. Using short stories together with computers in order to carry out different activities made this process even more enjoyable.” (Interviewee 6)

“Through this study, I got informed about worldwide-known stories and their writers. These stories helped me improve my vocabulary knowledge considerably.” (Interviewee 12)

“.....These short stories contributed to my vocabulary knowledge in a positive way because they enabled me to activate my passive vocabulary knowledge via expressing my thoughts and inner world in the activities that required us to write the rest of the stories. In that aspect, the study was really very effective.” (Interviewee 8)

The interviewees also pointed out the robust impact of using short stories via computers on their *creativity* and *desire to write* more effective texts in English. The students noted that since the short stories they read constituted some authentic contexts for them, they were able to do more fruitful writing activities. They further added that since they had the opportunity to integrate visuals or videos captured via “jing” into their activities, they were able to produce more creative and visually-enhanced texts that would attract their friends’ attention to read and make comments on them. In line with this finding of the interview, there are numerous studies in related literature that emphasize the importance of using audio and visual aids in L2 learning and teaching (see Spack 1985; Alessi and Trollip 1991). The interviewees also maintained that the types of writing activities attributed to the stories - particularly those based on writing the rest of the stories and describing some characters in the stories through using the pictures or videos that they captured via “jing” - were very influential because they enabled them to improve their “predicting and previewing” skills (see Wallace 1992; Lazar 1993; Collie and Slater 1987; Cunningsworth 1987). The following responses given by the interviewees highlight the significance of these points:

“I learned a lot of vocabulary. The activities that we did also enabled me to improve my creativity. We wrote the end of some stories, answered some questions about the stories etc. by using jing. They all helped me enhance my creativity and ability to evaluate other people’s works.” (Interviewee 11)

“In the activities, we had the opportunity to integrate visuals into our texts. This made the learning process even more enjoyable. Besides, integrating visuals into language learning enables much more retention; consequently, I liked the way how you integrated computers into our activities.” (Interviewee 7)

“I would certainly like to use such activities in my future classes because on a computer screen students have not only written language but also visuals associated with them. I think people do not forget visuals easily; therefore, they are very effective in language learning. For instance, when vocabulary is taught via visuals, they remain in students’ minds much longer. As a result, I would certainly like to use such activities in my future classes.” (Interviewee 3)

A final outstanding finding of the semi-structured interviews was the positive impact of the activities and tasks on students’ *computer skills*. In other words, the interviewees reported that using short stories together with computers in language learning promoted their computer skills substantially because during the study they were asked to carry out different tasks or activities through the computer/internet-based programs that they were introduced. Some of the related quotations are as follows:

“This study enabled me to improve my computer skills. For instance, it helped me master my typing skill via keyboard.” (Interviewee 1)

“This study helped me to learn some of the methods or techniques in which computers can be utilized for language learning objectives. I think this is very important for me because I would like to be an English language teacher who can use computers effectively in his/her classes.” (Interviewee 9)

“If we consider the issue in terms of technology, the study promoted my computer skills considerably because I could carry out various activities through computers during the study.” (Interviewee 7)

5.7. Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the statistical analysis of the data obtained via the questionnaires and the content analysis of the semi-structured interview were presented in order to shed light on the hypotheses under investigation. To build further insight into the results obtained, the findings of the study were discussed with regards to the related literature. In the next chapter, the conclusion of the study followed by the implications and suggestion for further research will be presented.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The present experimental study focused on the integration of short stories into computer technologies and the impact of this integration on students L2 motivation. In this chapter, the conclusion of the study will be drawn and then implications of the study will be presented regarding the pedagogical and methodological facets. Finally, suggestions for further research will be provided.

6.1. CONCLUSION

The present “pretest-posttest control group” experimental research study employed a mixed methods research design in which questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used in order to collect data for the hypotheses under investigation. Along with the findings of the data obtained and their discussion in the light of the related literature, a number of conclusions can be drawn.

A comparison of the Experimental and Control Groups in terms of L2 motivation on the pretest indicated no significant difference between the groups, hence warranting homogeneity of the groups on the onset of the study. However, a significant difference was detected between the groups in relation to L2 motivation on the posttest, which revealed an increase in the L2 motivation level of the Experimental Group students whereas a decrease in the L2 motivation level of the Control Group students. Consequently, grounding on the findings of the study, it is possible to say that the increase in the L2 motivation of the Experimental Group students results from the treatment given to the students. In other words, the integration of short stories into computers (referring to CALL in the present study) promotes students' L2 motivation, which runs parallel to the findings of the studies

in related literature (see Meskill and Ranglova 2000; Yeh 2005; Lee 2000). The finding of the statistical data were further supported by the results of the semi-structured interviews since the interviewees reported positive notions related to the integration of short stories into computer technologies.

A comparison of the Experimental Group's pretest and posttest (EMS and CSSIS) showed significant difference in terms of L2 motivation in that the students had a higher level of L2 motivation on the posttest when compared to that on the pretest. This finding regarding a higher level of L2 motivation on the posttest was in conformity with the results of the semi-structured interviews because the content analysis of the interviews revealed that the students favored the incorporation of short stories into computers in the process of L2 learning and teaching. In literature related to the use of literary texts and computers in L2 learning and teaching, there are numerous studies which point out similar results to the findings of the present study (see Warschauer 1996a; Hall 2005; Lao and Krashen 2000; Chen 2005). Nevertheless, a comparison of the Control Group's pretest and posttest (EMS) showed that the students had a lower L2 motivation level on the posttest, hence indicating a statistically significant difference. In literature concerned with teaching materials, there are a great number of studies that support the findings of the present study (see Good and Brophy 1997; Daling-Hammond 1997; Sizer 1996). Therefore, it can be interpreted that the increase in the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and reversely the decrease in the Control Group students' L2 motivation level is likely to result from the difference between the teaching materials used in the groups. Basing on the difference between the types of materials in the groups, it can be concluded that the integration short stories promotes students' L2 motivation.

In the scope of the present study, the L2 motivation level of the students were also compared across four different variables both on the pretest and the posttest, namely gender differences, frequency of computer use, computer self-efficacy perception, and frequency of short story reading. On the pretest and posttest, no significant differences were detected between both the Experimental and Control Group students' L2 motivation levels and their gender differences, frequency levels of computer use, and frequency levels of short story reading. However, a statistically significant difference was detected between the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy

perceptions on the pretest. The Post Hoc Scheffe test revealed a significant difference in terms of L2 motivation between those who reported to have a low computer self-efficacy perception and those who reported to have a high computer self-efficacy perception. Unlike pretest results, the posttest analysis indicated no significant differences in that no significant differences were found out between the Experimental Group students' L2 motivation level and their computer self-efficacy perceptions. In related literature, it is noted that as naturally over the course of time students spend more time working with computers because of certain course requirements, they tend to build a similar computer self-efficacy perceptions (see Zehir Topkaya 2010: 150; Özçelik and Kurt 2007), which may, as a result, diminish the significance observed between their L2 motivation levels. Nonetheless, more research should be conducted on computer self-efficacy perception before definite conclusions may be drawn in order to highlight effect of the integration of short stories into computers on L2 motivation level of students.

Further analysis of the semi-structured interview data revealed that the students perceived the integration of short stories into computers as very useful and fruitful in L2 education since they reported a number of positive outcomes for this novel trend which enabled them to carry out a variety of activities or tasks grounded on using short stories together with computers. The students stated *cooperation* and *receiving and giving feedback* as two of the primary benefits of the activities and tasks in which they were engaged. They were able to interact with each other through the programs they used in the study, which made the L2 learning process even more enjoyable. In related literature, there are numerous studies that highlight the significance of interaction provided through computer-based programs (see Blake 2000; Blin 1999; Chen 2005; Shield and Weininger 2004; Sokolik 2001). Consequently, it can be inferred that the integration of short stories into computers has positive impacts on students' L2 motivation.

Another outstanding point revealed in the semi-structured interviews was the positive effect of the technique on students' *grammar and vocabulary knowledge*, which is also supported by the related literature (see Kledecka-Nadera, 2001; Collie and Slater 1994; Ur 1996). The students reported a considerable improvement in their command of vocabulary and grammar thanks to the activities and task that were based on the integration of short stories into computers. Since the stories that the students read are rich in presenting a

variety of lexical and grammatical items, the students had the opportunity to see how these items are used in authentic contexts. Besides, since the students had the opportunity to look up the unknown words in online dictionaries via their computers, they were able to better comprehend the stories. Therefore, in the light of the semi-structured interview, it is possible to say that learners feel much more motivated by implementing short stories through computers in L2 teaching and learning.

A last but not least noted impact of the integration of short stories into computers is referred to as promoting L2 learners' *writing skill* and *ability to use computers*. According to content analysis of the semi-structured interviews, the students reported that carrying out writing tasks and activities that were based on a combination of short stories written by well-known authors and computers helped them to produce more creative and effective texts. The students noted that since they had the opportunity to integrate visuals and videos into their texts, they felt much more encouraged to write, which also promoted their *creativity*. According to the content analysis of the interview data, it was found out that the students liked writing the rest of the story tasks much more than other tasks and activities because these tasks provided them freedom to work on the stories as they wished. They had opportunity to reflect their own understanding of the story and conclude the as they liked; consequently, they reported to enjoy these tasks a lot more. As for the improvement in their ability to use computers, the interview results indicated that since the students were engaged in a variety of activities and tasks that entailed using computers together with short stories, the students had the opportunity to develop their computer skills, particularly keyboarding. These findings regarding an improvement in writing skill and the ability use computers are parallel to the outcomes of numerous studies in related literature (see Murdoch 2002; Oster 1989; Salli-Copur and Birlik 2007; Warschauer and Meskill, 2000; Ferris 2002; Warschauer and Healey, 1998). These findings imply that the integration of short stories into computer technologies promote L2 motivation in one way or another.

6.2. IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study present some implications that are significant towards understanding the impact of the integration of short stories into computers on L2

motivation level of learners. It is known and supported by the findings of numerous empirical studies that a higher level of L2 motivation influences the learning process positively. In other words, the more learners feel motivated, the better they perform and learn in the process of L2 learning.

The results of the study showed that students used computers for a variety of purposes in the process of language learning. It was also found that since students had limited access to both computers and the Internet due to lack of the required infrastructure at the university, they could not benefit from computers as much as possible. Although the Council of Higher Education supports and promotes the computer and Internet infrastructure at universities, it seems that there is still a considerable lack of equipment needed for the use of technology in classrooms. The computers at schools are by and large located at computer laboratories or at teaching staff's rooms; therefore, students cannot utilize these devices for language learning goals effectively. In this respect, it is highly recommended that the infrastructure should go beyond these boundaries, and classrooms should be equipped with such technological devices as smart boards, overhead projectors and at least one computer per class. Computer labs should be allowed to the use of students for language learning aims through the guidance of teachers as fast and free Internet provided via language labs would promote the educational use of computers and the Internet.

Another significant implication of the present is concerned with students' ability to use computers effectively and efficiently for language learning objectives. During the study, some of the students participating in the study had problems using the basic features of computers and the Internet. Although ELT students have computer courses in the first year of their education, they do still lack the very basic knowledge to be able use some computer programs. In that sense, students should be provided with more effective computer courses apart from the ones they have in the first year in order to be able benefit from computers substantially in the process of L2 learning.

Regarding the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data, it was found out that a big number of the students did not often use literary texts in their past language learning experiences, which reveals language teachers' unwillingness to implement literary texts in their classrooms. In that aspect, language teachers adduce a number of reasons for their

unwillingness to use literary texts in L2 education: the length of the texts, the language level of the texts, appropriateness of the texts, and so forth. However, the enormous plethora of literary texts enables language teachers to choose the most appropriate literary texts that address at different types of learners. Accordingly, Bassnett and Grundy (1993: 8) note that a careful selection and adaptation process of short stories may help language teachers to select the most suitable and appropriate short story not only for advanced level adult learners but also for young learners and lower level students. As a result, it can be suggested that language teachers should be encouraged to make more use of literary texts in their classrooms in order to provide learners with authentic learning materials rich in grammar and vocabulary.

Last but not least, the present study implies that the implementation of teaching materials in the classroom environment is of great importance. Due to the huge number of distractors in the classroom, language teachers are expected to design their lessons in such a way that they can easily get their students engaged in the activities or tasks prepared beforehand. In that respect, teaching materials play a significant role as they can attract and maintain learners' attention on the topic longer if organized properly. Consequently, instead of using traditional teaching materials (as in the Control Group), more appealing and interesting teaching materials should be used in order to engage students in activities and facilitate more language gains. Regarding this point, the use of the integration of short stories into computers in the process of language teaching serves effectively because it provides authentic and multifaceted learning environments in which students feel encouraged and motivated (see Gedhard 1996; Melvin and Stout 1987; Lee 2000; Vilmi 1999; Beckman 1999).

6.3. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The present experimental study focused on the impact of the integration of short stories into computers on the L2 motivation level of students. As the present study was conducted with the ELT students studying at Faculty of Education in Dicle University, the findings of the study may not be generalized to students studying at different institutions. Consequently, similar studies should be conducted with students studying at different

universities. Similar studies may also be carried out with primary and secondary school students in order to shed further light on the effectiveness of the technique applied in the present study.

In the present study, the L2 motivation level of the students was compared across four different factors: gender differences, frequency of computer use, computer self-efficacy perception, and frequency of short story reading. A comparison of the Experimental group students' L2 motivation with computer self-efficacy perceptions on the pretest showed a significant difference, whereas a reverse result was obtained on the posttest. The computer self-efficacy perceptions of the students were determined by students' self-reports. Therefore, more research should be done on computer self-efficacy perception before definite conclusions may be drawn about the relation between students' L2 motivation and the integration of short stories into computers in L2 teaching and learning.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ENGLISH MOTIVATION SCALE (EMS)

Dear Participants,

This questionnaire is designed to find out university students' opinions about English language learning and their motivation level to learn English. There is no **RIGHT** or **WRONG** answer in this questionnaire. Therefore, sincerity and honesty of your answers is very important.

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire.

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Please answer the following questions.

1. Gender: Female Male
2. Age : _____
3. Full name of the high school you graduated from: _____
4. Name of the department you graduated from: _____
5. Is there a computer connected to the Internet in your house, which you can always use?
 Yes No
6. Do you have a social networking account? (Facebook, Twitter etc.)
 Yes No
7. How many hours per week do you use the Internet?
 Less than 8 hours 8- 14 hours 15 hours and over

8. How would you evaluate your current level of using the Internet?
 Low Medium High
9. Have you used computers in your language learning process before?
 Yes No
10. Do you like reading short stories written in English?
 Strongly Like Like No Idea Dislike Strongly Dislike
11. How often do you read short stories written in English?
 Often Sometimes Never
12. How often did you use short stories written in English in your previous language learning experiences?
 Always Often Sometimes Rarely Never

Specify your opinions related to the items in the following table by putting an “X” into the appropriate anchor (Strongly agree, Agree, No Idea, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

		Strongly Agree	Agree	No Idea	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Learning English is very enjoyable.					
2	I learn English because I will be able to interact more easily with speakers of English..					
3	I study English in order to learn about the lives of people whose mother tongue is English.					
4	Learning English is a really waste of time.					
5	I make a point of trying to understand all the English I see and hear.					
6	I think learning English is necessary in order to get a good job.					
7	I learn English because I like speaking English.					
8	I study English in order to learn about other cultures.					
9	I really enjoy learning English.					
10	Learning English is necessary for me in order to be able to become a well-educated person.					

11	I learn English so as to write to foreign people.					
12	I learn English because my parents wanted it.					
13	I learn English to understand English films and music.					
14	I learn English to be able to do researches on the Internet easily.					
15	I learn English to meet people from other cultures.					
16	Studying English is boring.					
17	I study English because I will need it for a much better career.					
18	I learn English to read English books.					
19	I learn English to have better position in the society.					
20	I learn English because it gives me sense of success.					
21	While learning English, I ignore the things that distract me.					
22	I learn English because learning a language makes feel happy.					
23	I study English to be able take part in the activities of people who are from different cultures.					
24	I learn English to be able to earn much more money in the future.					



APPENDIX B

COMPUTER AND SHORT STORY INTEGRATION SCALE (CSSIS)

Dear Participants,

This questionnaire is designed to find out the impact of the integration of short stories into computers (*JingTM*, *Screeencast.com*) on the motivation level of university students. There is no **RIGHT** or **WRONG** answer in this questionnaire. Therefore, sincerity and honesty of your answers is very important. Please specify your age and gender.

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire.

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Specify your opinions related to the items in the following table by putting an “X” into the appropriate anchor (Strongly agree, Agree, No Idea, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

		Strongly Agree	Agree	No Idea	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my motivation.					
2	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important because it will allow me to communicate with people who speak English.					
3	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is very important because it will allow me to learn about English culture.					

4	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important for me to meet new people.					
5	Using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my motivation to learn every aspect of English language.					
6	Using short stories through computers in English language learning makes me feel successful.					
7	Using short stories through computers in English language learning causes a waste of time.					
8	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important because it allows me to understand English films easily.					
9	Using short stories through computers in English language learning makes me feel bored.					
10	Using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my desire to speak English.					
11	Using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my chance to find a much better job in the future.					
12	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important for me to be able to read English books.					
13	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important for me to be able to write texts English.					
14	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is NOT important.					
15	Using short stories through computers in English language learning does NOT attract my attention.					
16	Using short stories through computers in English language learning enables me to learn about the lifestyles of people whose mother tongue is English.					
17	Using short stories through computers in English language learning encourages me to meet new people.					
18	Writing short stories through computers makes me feel happy.					

19	Since using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my knowledge of English language, people respect me.					
20	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is important for me to be able to understand English much better.					
21	In English language learning, I would prefer to do activities other than the ones in which short stories are integrated into computers.					
22	Using short stories through computers in English language learning makes me more active in the process of language learning.					
23	Using short stories through computers in English language learning is much more enjoyable than the traditional language learning methods.					
24	Reading short stories on the computers screen is much more enjoyable than reading them on paper.					
25	Since using short stories through computers in English language learning increases my vocabulary knowledge, it attracts my attention.					
26	Since using short stories through computers in English language learning improves my grammar knowledge, it is very important.					



APPENDIX C

Interview Form

Participant's Name : _____

Participant's Surname: _____

Participant's Gender : Male Female Age : _____

Date of Interview : _____ Interview Place: _____

Name of the Interviewer: _____

Subject of the Interview

The present semi-structured interview is designed to find out university students' opinions about the integration of short stories into computer technologies (JingTM, screencast) in the process of English language learning. The interview is designed with regard to the following concepts:

- Language learning and computer technologies
- Language learning and short stories
- The integration of short stories into computer technologies in language learning
- The impact of the integration of short stories into computers on *second/foreign language motivation*

Interview Questions

1. How did you feel when you were told that you would carry out language learning activities through the integration of short stories into computers?
2. What kind of problems did you have while using "JingTM"? How did you overcome those problems?
3. Did the problems you had decrease your motivation?
4. What do you think about the use of short stories through computers in language learning?
5. Would you prefer to carry out activities that enable the integration of short stories into computers or the traditional ones (board and chalk-based)? Why?

6. How did the activities that you carried out influence your motivation?
7. What do you think about sharing your activities with your friends through your “screencast” account?
8. Would you prefer to use activities/tasks that enable the integration of short stories into computers in your classes when you become a teacher?
9. What are the benefits of this study to you?
10. Are there any changes in your opinions before and after the study? If yes, how have your opinions changed?

As a participant in the present interview:

I allow the audio-record of this interview.

I certify the sincerity and truthfulness of what I will tell.

Signature : _____

Date : _____

APPENDIX D

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENMEYE YÖNELİK MOTİVASYON ANKETİ

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Bu ölçek, üniversite öğrencilerinin İngilizce dersine ve İngilizce öğrenimine yönelik düşüncelerini ve motivasyon düzeylerini belirlemek amacıyla düzenlenmiştir. Unutmayınız ki bu ankette **DOĞRU** ya da **YANLIŞ** cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle ankete içten ve dürüst cevap vermeniz çok önemlidir.

Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

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Aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız:

1. Cinsiyetiniz : Bayan Erkek
2. Yaşınız : _____
3. Mezun Olduğunuz Lise (Tam Adıyla): _____
4. Lisede Mezun Olduğunuz Bölüm: _____
5. Evinizde sürekli kullanabileceğiniz internete bağlı bir bilgisayar var mı?
 Evet Hayır
6. Herhangi bir sosyal paylaşım sitesine üye misiniz? (Facebook, Twitter gibi)
 Evet Hayır
7. Haftada kaç saat bilgisayar kullanıyorsunuz?
 8 saatten az 8- 14 saat 15 saat ve üzeri
8. Şu anki bilgisayar yeterlik düzeyinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?
 Düşük Orta İleri
9. Dil öğrenmede daha önce bilgisayar kullandınız mı?
 Evet Hayır

10. İngilizce kısa hikaye okumayı sever misiniz?

Hiç Sevmem Sevmem Kararsızım Severim Çok Severim

11. Ne sıklıkla İngilizce kısa hikaye okursunuz?

Sık sık Bazen Hiç

12. Dil (İngilizce) öğrenmede daha önce ne sıklıkla kısa hikaye kullandınız?

Her zaman Sık sık Bazen Nadiren Hiç

Aşağıdaki ankette yer alan maddelere ilişkin görüşlerinizi, verilen ölçekte (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum, Katılıyorum, Fikrim Yok, Katılmıyorum, Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) size uygun derecelendirmeye “X” koyarak belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	İngilizce öğrenmek oldukça eğlencelidir.					
2	Yabancı insanlarla daha iyi iletişim kurmak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
3	Ana dili İngilizce olan insanların yaşam tarzlarını öğrenmek için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
4	İngilizce öğrenmek bir zaman kaybıdır.					
5	Duyduğum ve gördüğüm İngilizce ifadeleri anlamak için çaba sarf ederim.					
6	Gelecekte iyi bir iş sahibi olmak için İngilizce'nin gerekli olduğuna inanırım.					
7	İngilizce konuşmak hoşuma gittiğinden İngilizce öğrenirim.					
8	İngilizce'yi değişik kültürleri tanımak için öğrenirim.					
9	İngilizce öğrenmeyi severim.					
10	Daha donanımlı bir insan olmam için İngilizce önemlidir.					
11	Yabancılarla yazışabilmek için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
12	İngilizce'yi ailem istediği için öğrenirim.					

13	İngilizce film ve müzikleri anlamak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
14	İnternette daha rahat araştırma yapmak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
15	Farklı ülkelerden insanlarla tanışabilmek için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
16	İngilizce öğrenmek sıkıcıdır.					
17	İyi bir kariyer sahibi olmak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
18	İngilizce kitap okuyabilmek için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
19	Toplumda daha iyi bir konuma sahip olmak için İngilizce öğrenmem önemlidir.					
20	Dil öğrenmek bana başarı hissi verdiğinden İngilizce öğrenirim.					
21	İngilizce öğrenirken ilgimi dağıtan şeyleri göz ardı ederim.					
22	Dil öğrenmek beni mutlu ettiği için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
23	Farklı kültürdeki insanların etkinliklerine rahatça katılmak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					
24	İlerde daha çok para kazanmak için İngilizce öğrenirim.					



APPENDIX E

BİLGİSAYAR VE KISA HİKAYE ENTEGRASYONU ANKETİ

Sevgili Öğrenciler,

Bu ölçek, kısa hikayelerin “JingTM” bilgisayar programı aracılığıyla dil (İngilizce) öğrenmede kullanılmasının üniversite öğrencilerinin dil öğrenme motivasyonu üzerindeki etkisini belirlemek için düzenlenmiştir. Unutmayınız ki bu ankette **DOĞRU** ya da **YANLIŞ** cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle ankete içten ve dürüst cevap vermeniz çok önemlidir.

Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederim.

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Aşağıdaki ankette yer alan maddelere ilişkin görüşlerinizi, verilen ölçekte (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum, Katılıyorum, Kararsızım, Katılmıyorum, Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum) size uygun derecelendirmeye “X” koyarak belirtiniz.

		Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
1	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması motivasyonumu artırır.					
2	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce konuşan insanlarla kolaylıkla iletişim kurabilmem için önemlidir.					
3	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, ana dili İngilizce olan insanların kültürlerini tanımam için önemlidir.					

4	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, daha çok insanla tanışmam için önemlidir.					
5	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce'yi tüm yönleriyle öğrenme isteğimi arttırır.					
6	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, bana başarı duygusu hissettirir.					
7	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, zaman kaybına neden olur.					
8	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce filmleri anlamamı kolaylaştırdığından önemlidir.					
9	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması beni sıkır.					
10	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce konuşma isteğimi artırır.					
11	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, ileride daha iyi bir iş bulma şansımı arttırır.					
12	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce kitaplar okuyabilmem için önemlidir.					
13	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce metinler yazabilmem için önemlidir.					
14	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması gereksizdir.					
15	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması ilgimi çekmez.					
16	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, ana dili İngilizce olan insanların yaşam tarzlarını öğrenmemi sağlar.					

17	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, yeni insanlarla tanışabilmem için beni cesaretlendirir.					
18	Bilgisayarda İngilizce kısa hikaye yazmak beni mutlu eder.					
19	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması İngilizce bilgimi arttırdığından insanlar bana saygı duyar.					
20	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, İngilizce'yi daha iyi anlamam açısından önemlidir.					
21	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanıldığı aktiviteler yerine başka aktiviteler yapmayı tercih ederim.					
22	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, beni dil öğrenmede daha da aktifleştirir.					
23	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, geleneksel dil öğrenme yöntemlerinden daha eğlencelidir.					
24	Kısa hikayeleri bilgisayar ekranında okumak, kısa hikayeleri kağıt üzerinde okumaktan daha eğlencelidir.					
25	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, kelime bilgimi arttırdığından ilgimi çeker.					
26	Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğrenmede kullanılması, gramer bilgimi geliştirdiğinden önemlidir.					



APPENDIX F

Görüşme Formu

Katılımcının Adı : _____
 Katılımcının Soyadı : _____
 Cinsiyeti : Erkek Bayan Yaş : _____
 Görüşme Tarihi : _____ Yer : _____
 Görüşmeyi Düzenleyen : _____

Görüşmenin Konusu

Bu görüşme, üniversite öğrencilerinin “JingTM” programı ve kısa hikayelerin İngilizce öğreniminde birlikte kullanılmasına ilişkin görüş ve düşüncelerini belirlemek için düzenlenmiştir. Görüşme aşağıda belirtilen kavramlar çerçevesinde düzenlenmiştir:

Dil öğrenimi ve bilgisayar teknolojisi

Dil öğrenimi ve kısa hikayeler

Dil öğreniminde bilgisayar ve kısa hikayelerin birlikte kullanılması

Bilgisayar ve kısa hikayelerin birlikte kullanılmasının *motivasyon* üzerindeki

Görüşme Soruları

1. Size bilgisayar ve kısa hikayelerin birlikte kullanıldığı dil öğrenme aktiviteleri yapacağınız söylendiğinde kendinizi nasıl hissettiniz?
2. “JingTM” programını kullanırken ne tür problemlerle karşılaştınız? Bu problemleri nasıl aştınız?
3. Yaşadığınız problemler motivasyonunuzu düşürdü mü?
4. Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla İngilizce öğreniminde kullanılması hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
5. Kısa hikayelerin bilgisayar aracılığıyla kullanıldığı dil öğrenme aktiviteleri mi yoksa klasik dil öğrenme aktiviteleri yapmayı mı tercih edersiniz? Neden?
6. Yaptığınız aktiviteler motivasyonunuzu nasıl etkiledi?

7. Yaptığınız çalışmalarını “screencast” hesabınız aracılığıyla arkadaşlarınızla paylaşmak konusunda ne düşünüyorsunuz?
8. İlerde öğretmen olduğunuzda, kısa hikaye ve bilgisayar birleşimini mümkün kılan bu tarz aktiviteleri derslerinizde kullanmak ister misiniz?
9. Bu çalışmanın size katkıları oldu mu? Olduysa ne tür katkıları oldu?
10. Uygulamadan önceki ve sonraki düşüncelerinizde bir değişim var mı? Varsa nasıl bir değişim meydana geldi?

Katılımcı olarak:

Bu görüşmenin ses kaydının yapılmasına izin veriyorum.

Bu bilgilerin doğruluğunu kabul ediyorum.

İmza : _____

Tarih : _____

APPENDIX G

PRE-READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 1: CHARACTER DESCRIPTION

Read the key words below about Eveline. The words are about her personality, family life and relations with other people. Then on the Internet find a picture that you think best describes her. Now, describe her through using the key words provided below and the picture you have found on the Internet. Later send your recording to your friends through your “screencast” account and make comments on the descriptions that you have been sent.

Key words: over nineteen, dead mother, sisters and brothers, keep the house together, work hard, tired, violence, threaten, have an edge on someone, give money, hard life, have a fellow, affair, treat with respect, protect, forbid, secretly, letters, leave home, run away, save

WHILE –READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 2: Read the story below and do the following activities.

EVELINE

by James Joyce

SHE sat at the window watching the evening invade the avenue. Her head was leaned against the window curtains and in her nostrils was the odour of dusty cretonne. She was tired.

Few people passed. The man out of the last house passed on his way home; she heard his footsteps clacking along the concrete pavement and afterwards crunching on the cinder path before the new red houses. One time there used to be a field there in which they used to play every evening with other people's children. Then a man from Belfast bought the field and built houses in it -- not like their little brown houses but bright brick houses with

shining roofs. The children of the avenue used to play together in that field -- the Devines, the Waters, the Dunns, little Keogh the cripple, she and her brothers and sisters. Ernest, however, never played: he was too grown up. Her father used often to hunt them in out of the field with his blackthorn stick; but usually little Keogh used to keep nix and call out when he saw her father coming. Still they seemed to have been rather happy then. Her father was not so bad then; and besides, her mother was alive. That was a long time ago; she and her brothers and sisters were all grown up her mother was dead. Tizzie Dunn was dead, too, and the Waters had gone back to England. Everything changes. Now she was going to go away like the others, to leave her home.

Home! She looked round the room, reviewing all its familiar objects which she had dusted once a week for so many years, wondering where on earth all the dust came from. Perhaps she would never see again those familiar objects from which she had never dreamed of being divided. And yet during all those years she had never found out the name of the priest whose yellowing photograph hung on the wall above the broken harmonium beside the coloured print of the promises made to Blessed Margaret Mary Alacoque. He had been a school friend of her father. Whenever he showed the photograph to a visitor her father used to pass it with a casual word:

"He is in Melbourne now."

She had consented to go away, to leave her home. Was that wise? She tried to weigh each side of the question. In her home anyway she had shelter and food; she had those whom she had known all her life about her. O course she had to work hard, both in the house and at business. What would they say of her in the Stores when they found out that she had run away with a fellow? Say she was a fool, perhaps; and her place would be filled up by advertisement. Miss Gavan would be glad. She had always had an edge on her, especially whenever there were people listening.

"Miss Hill, don't you see these ladies are waiting?"

"Look lively, Miss Hill, please."

She would not cry many tears at leaving the Stores. But in her new home, in a distant unknown country, it would not be like that. Then she would be married -- she, Eveline. People would treat her with respect then. She would not be treated as her mother had been. Even now, though she was over nineteen, she sometimes felt herself in danger of her father's violence. She knew it was that that had given her the palpitations. When they were growing up he had never gone for her like he used to go for Harry and Ernest, because she

was a girl but latterly he had begun to threaten her and say what he would do to her only for her dead mother's sake. And no she had nobody to protect her. Ernest was dead and Harry, who was in the church decorating business, was nearly always down somewhere in the country. Besides, the invariable squabble for money on Saturday nights had begun to weary her unspeakably. She always gave her entire wages -- seven shillings -- and Harry always sent up what he could but the trouble was to get any money from her father. He said she used to squander the money, that she had no head, that he wasn't going to give her his hard-earned money to throw about the streets, and much more, for he was usually fairly bad on Saturday night. In the end he would give her the money and ask her had she any intention of buying Sunday's dinner. Then she had to rush out as quickly as she could and do her marketing, holding her black leather purse tightly in her hand as she elbowed her way through the crowds and returning home late under her load of provisions. She had hard work to keep the house together and to see that the two young children who had been left to her charge went to school regularly and got their meals regularly. It was hard work -- a hard life -- but now that she was about to leave it she did not find it a wholly undesirable life.

She was about to explore another life with Frank. Frank was very kind, manly, open-hearted. She was to go away with him by the night-boat to be his wife and to live with him in Buenos Ayres where he had a home waiting for her. How well she remembered the first time she had seen him; he was lodging in a house on the main road where she used to visit. It seemed a few weeks ago. He was standing at the gate, his peaked cap pushed back on his head and his hair tumbled forward over a face of bronze. Then they had come to know each other. He used to meet her outside the Stores every evening and see her home. He took her to see *The Bohemian Girl* and she felt elated as she sat in an unaccustomed part of the theatre with him. He was awfully fond of music and sang a little. People knew that they were courting and, when he sang about the lass that loves a sailor, she always felt pleasantly confused. He used to call her Poppens out of fun. First of all it had been an excitement for her to have a fellow and then she had begun to like him. He had tales of distant countries. He had started as a deck boy at a pound a month on a ship of the Allan Line going out to Canada. He told her the names of the ships he had been on and the names of the different services. He had sailed through the Straits of Magellan and he told her stories of the terrible Patagonians. He had fallen on his feet in Buenos Ayres, he said, and

had come over to the old country just for a holiday. Of course, her father had found out the affair and had forbidden her to have anything to say to him.

"I know these sailor chaps," he said.

One day he had quarrelled with Frank and after that she had to meet her lover secretly.

The evening deepened in the avenue. The white of two letters in her lap grew indistinct. One was to Harry; the other was to her father. Ernest had been her favourite but she liked Harry too. Her father was becoming old lately, she noticed; he would miss her. Sometimes he could be very nice. Not long before, when she had been laid up for a day, he had read her out a ghost story and made toast for her at the fire. Another day, when their mother was alive, they had all gone for a picnic to the Hill of Howth. She remembered her father putting on her mother's bonnet to make the children laugh.

Her time was running out but she continued to sit by the window, leaning her head against the window curtain, inhaling the odour of dusty cretonne. Down far in the avenue she could hear a street organ playing. She knew the air strange that it should come that very night to remind her of the promise to her mother, her promise to keep the home together as long as she could. She remembered the last night of her mother's illness; she was again in the close dark room at the other side of the hall and outside she heard a melancholy air of Italy. The organ-player had been ordered to go away and given six pence. She remembered her father strutting back into the sickroom saying:

"Damned Italians! coming over here!"

As she mused the pitiful vision of her mother's life laid its spell on the very quick of her being -- that life of commonplace sacrifices closing in final craziness. She trembled as she heard again her mother's voice saying constantly with foolish insistence:

"Derevaun Seraun! Derevaun Seraun!"

She stood up in a sudden impulse of terror. Escape! She must escape! Frank would save her. He would give her life, perhaps love, too. But she wanted to live. Why should she be unhappy? She had a right to happiness. Frank would take her in his arms, fold her in his arms. He would save her.

She stood among the swaying crowd in the station at the North Wall. He held her hand and she knew that he was speaking to her, saying something about the passage over and over again. The station was full of soldiers with brown baggages. Through the wide doors of the sheds she caught a glimpse of the black mass of the boat, lying in beside the

quay wall, with illumined portholes. She answered nothing. She felt her cheek pale and cold and, out of a maze of distress, she prayed to God to direct her, to show her what was her duty. The boat blew a long mournful whistle into the mist. If she went, tomorrow she would be on the sea with Frank, steaming towards Buenos Ayres. Their passage had been booked. Could she still draw back after all he had done for her? Her distress awoke a nausea in her body and she kept moving her lips in silent fervent prayer.

A bell clanged upon her heart. She felt him seize her hand:

"Come"

.....

ACTIVITY 3: THE REST OF THE STORY

Try to predict what Eveline would do next. Explain what you think through using pictures or videos captured by “jing”. Then share your recordings with your friends via your “screencast” account and make comments on their recordings that have received.

ACTIVITY 4: EVELINE’S FATHER AND FRANK

Scan the story and find all the expressions that describe Eveline’s father and Frank. Then find appropriate pictures for each of them on the Internet, capture the pictures via “jing”, and describe them with the expressions that you have found in the story. Later, share your recordings with your friends through your “screencast” account and make comments on the ones that you have been sent.

ACTIVITY 5: Now read the rest of the story and compare the ending that you have written in Exercise 3 with the original ending of the story.

.....

All the seas of the world tumbled about her heart. He was drawing her into them: he would drown her. She gripped with both hands at the iron railing.

"Come!"

No! No! No! It was impossible. Her hands clutched the iron in frenzy. Amid the seas she sent a cry of anguish.

"Eveline! Evvy!"

He rushed beyond the barrier and called to her to follow. He was shouted at to go on but he still called to her. She set her white face to him, passive, like a helpless animal. Her eyes gave him no sign of love or farewell or recognition.

POST-READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 6: TWISTING THE STORY

Twist the end of the story and write your own ending for the story. Embed pictures or videos into your own ending. Then share your recording with your friends through your “screencast” account and make comments on the ones that you have received.

APPENDIX H

PRE-READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 1: BRAINSTORMING AND SURVEYING

Speaking: Reading the title and name of the main character of the story and carrying out a brainstorming and surveying activity.

WHILE –READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 2: Read the story below and do the following activities.

What a Surprise!

It was a long and tiresome day for Doris, the most beautiful woman in the city of Bremen. She had worked nonstop for 10 hours before going home, so she was exhausted. When she arrived home, the door was unlocked and the light was on. She was a little bit frightened. Before she went in, she had a look round the house to see if there was anybody around. There was no one, so she went in and closed the door. There was an absolute silence in the house, and she liked that silence because she was fed up with the noise at work. After she had put her bag on the table close to the door, she decided to go upstairs and get changed. While climbing the stairs, suddenly the light went out. Luckily, a few minutes later the light came back. Now, she was really very happy because it was completely dark and she couldn't see around. While getting changed in her bedroom, she looked at herself in the mirror. She had shoulder-length blonde hair which many women envied, and her big green eyes fascinated all the men in the city. However, her beauty did not help her feel energetic and full. While thinking about these points, she saw a blurry figure in the mirror out of the blue and turned back very quickly but couldn't see anything. She thought that it was because she had worked hard all the day and felt rather tired.

After she had worn her pyjamas, she decided to go downstairs to eat something. Yet, while she was leaving the bedroom, she heard a weird noise. It was like a whisper, but she couldn't understand what it was in fact. She stood silent for a minute, but there was

nothing. Then she got out of the bedroom and went downstairs. She saw somebody sitting on the sofa, but then there was no one.

ACTIVITY 3: THE REST OF THE STORY

Work with your partner and discuss what would happen next. Then write an ending for the story.

ACTIVITY 4: DESCRIBING “DORIS”

Scan the story and find all the expressions that describe Doris. Then describe her using expressions that you have found in the story.

ACTIVITY 5: Now read the rest of the story and compare you’re the one that you have written in Exercise 3 with the original ending of the story.

.....

She thought she was getting crazy. She closed her eyes and breathed deeply. Afterwards, she made her way for the kitchen. After she had switched the light on, she walked towards the fridge. She opened the fridge and took out the meal in the bowl to heat in the microwave. When she looked at the microwave, it had already been opened, but she was sure that she hadn’t opened it. Something strange was happening in the house, but she couldn’t understand what it was. Later, while putting the meal into the plate, she felt a hand on her shoulder. She was terrified and turned back very quickly. She was surprised to see her mother. Using the keys Doris had given her, she got into the house before her daughter arrived home.

POST-READING STAGE

ACTIVITY 6: PARAPHRASING

Read the rest of the story again and rewrite it in your own words.