THE ROLE OF LEARNER TRAINING IN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CALL

A Master's Thesis

by

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ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF LEARNER TRAINING IN THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CALL

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This study investigated the effect of learner training on students' ability to benefit from CALL effectively. The study was conducted at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Foreign Languages Compulsory Preparatory School with 38 participants, who were intermediate level students, and four instructors, who were responsible for the experimental and the control groups. Strategy training activities were used as an instrument for learner training and the data were collected through Longman English Interactive Online, which is a web-based program. The experimental group was observed over a two-week period before strategy training. After a two-week strategy training period, they were observed for five weeks.

The analysis of the performance of students in the pre- and the post-training period revealed that learner training did not make any significant difference on students' attendance in the lab lessons. However, it appeared to have a positive influence on students' engagement in the CALL materials, the number of lab activities, the number of quizzes completed, and achievement on review quizzes. Furthermore, strategy training appeared to have a positive effect on students' motivation to attend the lab lessons and engage in the lab activities.

Key words: CALL, learner autonomy, learner training, language learning strategies.

ÖZET

ÖĞRENCİ EĞİTİMİNİN BİLGİSAYAR DESTEKLİ DİL ÖĞRENİMİNİN ETKİLİLİĞİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

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Bu çalışma öğrenci eğitiminin, öğrencilerin bilgisayar destekli dil öğreniminden daha etkili bir şekilde yararlanabilmeleri üzerindeki etkisini incelemiştir. Çalışma, Zonguldak Karaelmas Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Zorunlu Hazırlık Okulu'nda orta düzeyde İngilizce bilen 38 öğrenci ile deney ve control gruplarından sorumlu dört okutmanın katılımıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir. Strateji eğitimi aktiviteleri, öğrenci eğitimini sağlamak amacıyla bir ölçüm aracı olarak kullanılmıştır. Veri, web tabanlı bir program olan Longman English Interactive Online aracılığıyla toplanmıştır. Deney grubu, strateji eğitiminden önce iki haftalık bir süre boyunca, iki haftalık bir strateji eğitiminden sonra ise beş hafta boyunca gözlemlenmiştir.

Öğrencilerin strateji eğitimi öncesi ve sonrasındaki performanslarının analizi, öğrenci eğitiminin, öğrencilerin labaratuvar derslerine olan devamlılıklarında önemli bir fark yaratmadığını göstermiştir. Fakat, öğrenci eğitiminin, öğrencilerin bilgisayar destekli dil öğrenimi materyalleriyle geçirdikleri süre, yapılan aktivite sayısı, tamamlanan sınav sayısı ve öğrencilerin sınavlardaki başarıları üzerinde olumlu bir

etkisinin olduğu görülmüştür. Buna ek olarak, strateji eğitiminin öğrencilerin labaratuvar derslerine devam etmelerindeki motivasyonları ve labaratuvar aktivitelerine katılımları üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğu saptanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bilgisayar Destekli Dil Öğrenimi, öğrenci özerkliği, öğrenci eğitimi, dil öğrenme stratejileri.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

For more than fifty years, there has been a growing interest in learning English, both as a second and a foreign language, among people all over the world. Therefore, the need for learning English has also brought the need for brand new methods, approaches, techniques, and ways for the best and effective language learning.

In the last decade, with the rapid development of technology and innovations, computer-based programs and web-based resources have become very popular in the English Language Teaching (ELT) world. Accordingly, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has started to be used with increasing interest in many language learning environments thanks to the opportunities it provides, such as audio-visual materials for both improving pronunciation and listening skills and valuable reading activities that include cultural elements. Many studies have been conducted to focus on the advantages of CALL and its effects on the language learning process as well as its effect on promoting learner autonomy (Chang, 2007; Kenning & Kenning, 1983; Pennington, 1996; Wyatt, 1984; Ying, 2002).

It is a common belief that CALL has a significant role in creating a motivating atmosphere with its various and different types of activities which appeal to many students. However, the fact that CALL alone is not sufficient to create an effective and independent language learning environment is sometimes overlooked by many of the researchers. The extent of students' autonomy level may also have a notable influence on their ability to make effective use of CALL, which has not been

taken into account in detail in the language learning process. In an article written by Blin (2004), it is stated that CALL may promote learner autonomy only when learners are autonomous to some extent. It is possible to promote learner autonomy through learner training, which can be defined as raising learners' awareness of language learning strategies, enabling them to discover the learning strategies that suit their learning styles, giving them opportunities to apply these strategies into the language learning environment, and, in turn, encouraging them to take control of their learning (G. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). This study aims at investigating whether language learning strategy instruction has a positive effect on students' ability to benefit from CALL and enhances its effectiveness in the language learning process.

Background of the Study

With the rapid development of technology and the latest innovations in language teaching, CALL has become notably popular and powerful in foreign and second language learning. In addition, it has drawn educators' and researchers' attention. Therefore, many studies have been conducted to investigate the advantages and effectiveness of CALL for successful language learning (Beatty, 2003; Chang, 2007; Felix, 2008; Pennington, 1996; Wyatt, 1984). As well as the benefits of CALL applications, many researchers have focused on the relationship between learner autonomy and CALL and they have claimed that CALL has a significant effect on promoting learner autonomy (Blin, 2004; Figura & Jarvis, 2007; Murray, 1999). However, according to the results of the study conducted by Ying (2002), CALL has a positive influence on learner autonomy to some extent, but it is not sufficient for effective, independent, and permanent language learning if students are not

autonomous enough.

The term "learner autonomy" has recently become a crucial concept in the ELT world, because many researchers have drawn attention to its significant role in effective and successful language learning (Egel, 2009; Jones, 2001; Smith, 2008). In basic terms, Egel (2009) defined learner autonomy as "one's taking responsibility for their learning" (p. 2023). Another definition of learner autonomy is as "a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (D. Little, 1994, p. 81). In addition, Chan (2001) provides a broader definition by describing an autonomous learner as one who can set learning goals, identify and develop learning strategies to achieve such goals, develop study plans, and assess one's own progress. However, many students need the teacher's guidance in the language learning process and expect to be "spoonfed", partly because of their culture or the educational system (Oxford, 1990). Contrary to the traditional way of teaching in which teachers spoonfeed the students, as the one and only authority in the classroom, students should be encouraged to get involved in the learning process and to take responsibility for their own learning. That is, they should be able to evaluate their progress and make decisions for themselves in the language learning process, which makes learning more meaningful and permanent. Therefore, it is our duty to promote the learner autonomy of students, because "autonomy is the key to life long learning" (Egel, 2009, p. 2023).

In order to foster learner autonomy, one of the possible effective ways is to provide students with learner training. Learner training involves raising students' awareness about language learning strategies, and making them more responsible, effective, and independent learners (G. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989). One of the methods

used in the learner training process is to teach students some learning strategies. According to Namlu (2003), "learning strategies are the learners' ways of directing themselves, thus gaining independent learning abilities in [the] learning process" (p. 565). Strategies are tools for active, self-directed involvement, and appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence (Oxford, 1990). With the help of learner training, students can become more conscious about the language learning process. Furthermore, they can be encouraged to make decisions on their own, to set objectives for themselves and to take responsibility for their learning, which enables them to gain self-confidence and be independent in the learning process. In addition, Oxford (1990) states that strategy training is very effective when students learn how to use specific strategies and how to transfer them to new situations.

With respect to developing students' level of autonomy and, accordingly, enhancing their ability to benefit from CALL effectively, Hubbard (2004) puts forward an idea that it is necessary to give learners strategy training in order to make them more independent and autonomous, which affects their performance in CALL applications in a positive way. He adds that teachers should not leave students alone in CALL environments because it is the teacher's responsibility to realize that students cannot make informed decisions about using computer resources effectively to meet their learning objectives.

Many studies support the idea that CALL has a notable role in increasing students' achievement levels in the language learning process and developing learner autonomy by providing learners with opportunities to work on their own and to take control of their learning, which creates independent and permanent learning.

However, no empirical research has been done about the role of learner training on enhancing students' ability to benefit from CALL and its effectiveness in language learning. As mentioned above, it is possible to promote students' level of autonomy by raising awareness of their learning styles, developing their learning strategies, and helping them to make their own decisions in the learning process. Accordingly, language learning strategy training may enable students to be more capable of making the most of CALL programs and enhance their effectiveness in the language learning process.

Statement of the Problem

Learner autonomy and CALL have long been crucial issues in language teaching and learning. There are quite a lot of studies related to the importance of learner autonomy, especially in language learning, in terms of getting students involved in the learning process and enabling them to be more self-directed and active (Benson, 2001; Po-ying, 2007; Scharle & Szabo, 2000). With recent developments and innovations in technology, there is also growing interest in CALL among teachers, instructors, and educators. It is obvious that technology can promote effective, successful, and meaningful language learning (Pennington, 1996; Wyatt, 1984).

Although there are many studies and research on the effectiveness and positive influence of CALL on learner autonomy and promoting independent learning (Kenning & Kenning, 1983; Pennington, 1996), no empirical research has been done to investigate whether developing learning strategies through learner training and providing students with opportunities to apply these strategies in the

CALL environment enhance students' ability to benefit from CALL and enable them to make maximum use of the computer-based programs.

At Zonguldak Karaelmas University, one of the major problems is that most students seem unable to work effectively during lab lessons – a possible sign of a low level of autonomy. Students seem highly dependent on the teacher, needing his or her guidance to do the activities and to set goals for their learning process. In addition, most students seem unaware of the learning strategies which may enable them to work on their own more effectively in lab lessons. Moreover, only a few students attend these lab lessons regularly during the term. This situation prevents the students from taking the utmost advantage of the CALL program. Teaching learning strategies through learner training may increase students' ability to make use of CALL, and in turn, it may also enhance the effectiveness of the CALL program.

Research Question

To what extent does learner training make students more capable of benefiting from CALL in terms of their attendance in the lab lessons, the amount of time spent on the activities, the amount of material covered in the lab lessons, the number of quizzes completed in the lab lessons, and the test scores in review quizzes?

Significance of the Study

To date, the literature has offered valuable findings which support the fact that computer-assisted language learning has proved to be effective as a powerful tool in the language learning process and to increase students' achievement levels in the target language (Chang, 2007; Felix, 2008; Kenning & Kenning, 1983; Pennington, 1989). Furthermore, several studies have shed light on the relationship between learner autonomy and CALL and their effects on one another. However, none of these studies have focused on the ways to make use of CALL applications more effectively. The current study will try to fill in this gap by investigating the effects of learner training on students' ability to benefit from CALL.

When it is taken into consideration that computer technology and web-based resources are becoming more and more common in many schools and it is becoming more widely accepted that CALL can provide valuable language learning opportunities, the results and findings of the current study, which aims to investigate the influence of training students in language learning strategies on enhancing their ability to benefit from CALL, may contribute to language teaching by guiding teachers and curriculum designers to find ways of enhancing students' ability to take advantage of CALL at a maximum level. At the local level, this study may provide valuable information for Zonguldak Karaelmas University, where the CALL program covers a significant part of the curriculum. Through this study, the current curriculum can be modified in a way to provide students with learner training for greater learner autonomy, which may have a positive influence on students' ability to benefit from CALL.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the background of the study, statement of the problem, research question, and significance of the study. The following chapters will review the relevant literature, describe the methodology, the data analysis procedure and the results of the study, and present a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Learner autonomy, learner training and CALL have recently become important issues in language teaching. Therefore, a large amount of research has been carried out related to each of these topics. Many researchers have focused on the importance of CALL, and its advantages and effectiveness in language learning. They have claimed that the opportunities CALL provides create an effective environment for permanent language learning. Meanwhile, many researchers have given much importance to the concept of "learner autonomy" and support the idea that it is essential to develop autonomy for successful and independent language learning. In terms of fostering learner autonomy, some researchers put forward an idea that learner training, which means developing learning strategies, is a good and effective way to make learners take control of their learning.

In order to make CALL applications more effective and enable learners to get maximum benefit from CALL, it is important to raise students' awareness of the language learning process and to make them more conscious about the learning strategies they use, which may promote students' level of autonomy and help them to work in a CALL environment on their own. This chapter reviews the literature on the important aspects of CALL, learner autonomy, learner training, and the relationships among these three.

CALL

A brief history of CALL

In order to learn more about CALL and get maximum benefit from it in the future, it is essential to have a quick look at its evolution from past to present and to see what kind of phases it has gone through.

Computers were first used in the 1950's in research facilities at universities. However, due to their high cost, the time allocated for teaching and learning was quite limited. In time, it was perceived that it was necessary to find efficient and scientific ways to teach language, so time and funds were made available for research (Beatty, 2003).

With the emergence of the audio-lingual approach in language teaching at the end of the 1950's, the process of habit formation, that is, practice, gained more importance. Therefore, in CALL, it was realized by software developers that the drills and practice exercises which were advocated by the audio-lingual method could be programmed easily on the computer because of their "systematic and routine character" and "their lack of open-endedness" (Kenning & Kenning, 1990 as cited in Levy, 1997, p. 15).

In 1959, Programmed Logic/Learning for Automated Teaching Operations (PLATO), one of the first and the most important applications for the teaching and learning of language with computers, was developed by the University of Illinois. PLATO provided learners with interactive and self-paced instruction. It also included tests with directions to complete appropriate activities focusing on the errors a learner had made, and rudimentary spelling and grammar-checkers (Beatty, 2003; Levy, 1997).

In 1971, another system called Time-Shared, Interactive, Computer Controlled Information Television (TICCIT) was developed at Brigham Young University. It was a combination of television technology and the computer. It was regarded as the first example of computer-assisted instruction (CAI) combining text, audio and video. One of the most important features of the TICCIT system was that it enabled learners to have control over the selection of content and learning strategies used for study (Levy, 1997).

An increasing interest in computer-assisted language learning occurred in the early 1980s with the introduction of the microcomputer. In addition, the language teacher-programmer became important. Language teachers started to write simple CALL programs thanks to the availability of inexpensive microcomputers. Before microcomputer CALL, most software was developed with well-funded team efforts because of the complexity of the task and limited access to mainframe computers. However, with the microcomputer, there was a broad range of software developed by teachers including text reconstruction, gap-filling, speed-reading, simulation, and vocabulary games (Wyatt, 1984; Underwood, 1984 as cited in Levy, 1997). One of the programs developed in the 1980s is Storyboard, written by John Higgins. It is a text-reconstruction program where learners are required to reconstruct a text, word by word, using textual clues such as the title, introductory material, and textual clues. In 1983, the Athena Language Learning Project (ALLP) was developed. Its aim was to create communication-based prototypes for beginning and intermediate courses in French, German, Spanish, Russian, and English as a Second Language (Morgenstern, 1986 as cited in Levy, 1997). Two projects came out of ALLP, called No Recuerdos and A la rencontre de Phillippe. In both these programs, learners enter

into computer simulations which require realistic responses to the main characters (Beatty, 2003, p. 27).

In 1993, the International Email Tandem Network, described as language learning by computer mediated communication using the Internet, was established by Helmut Brammerts (Brammerts, 1995 as cited in Levy, 1997). In the Tandem Network, universities from around the world are linked together and students learn languages in tandem via email. The network includes a bilingual forum where learners can get involved in discussions and ask each other for advice in either language, and a database, where students can access and add teaching and learning materials for themselves (Levy, 1997).

In his article, Bax (2003) states that CALL should now be starting to enter a "normalization" stage, in which computers are seen as a part of everyday life just like a wristwatch, pen or shoes. In other words, normalization is a stage "when a technology is invisible, hardly even recognized as a technology, taken for granted in everyday life" (p. 23). Bax supports the idea that if we reach this stage, computers can fulfill their work properly and we can make use of them more efficiently.

Advantages of CALL

When compared to the traditional way of teaching with a blackboard and chalk, we can count many advantages of CALL in language learning with the opportunities it provides. In a traditional classroom environment, there are also projectors and tape recorders to facilitate learning. However, one of the main differences between these pieces of equipment and computers is the latter's interactive capability. In contrast to most books and tape recordings where the rules and right solutions are given, computers can analyze students' mistakes and give

instant and informative feedback which enables students to be aware of the results of their use of language. Computers can also provide alternative correct answers, and possible wrong answers instead of giving only the correct answer (Kenning & Kenning, 1983; Wyatt, 1984). In addition, while giving feedback, they do not cause any threat of face-to-face confrontation or embarrassment (Pennington, 1996).

Another advantage of CALL is that it offers privacy, which means learners do not have the fear of being ridiculed for their mistakes by their classmates. In addition, due to the fact that it enables students to work on their own and at their own pace, it allows students who have fallen behind to catch up with the rest of the class and provides extra materials for those who always finish early. Most importantly, unlike teachers, computers are always patient and they have no off days, so they are always ready to serve students whenever they need (Kenning & Kenning, 1983). Pennington (1996) also states that computers provide learners with various types of activities which expose them to appropriate contexts, create group interactions and develop communicative skills.

Motivation is an essential factor which makes learning more memorable and permanent. With visual effects, it is easy to attract learners' attention and maintain their motivation. Movement of words, syllables or characters around the screen, and simple graphic illustrations of some key lexical items are only some examples of how computers can affect learners' motivation in a positive way (Kenning & Kenning, 1983). Beatty (2003) also claims that most educational games prompt peripheral learning, which means that students are unaware of the objectives of the lesson, they only concentrate on the game and accordingly they learn unconsciously.

Therefore, while learners have fun and learn at the same time, teachers' hidden objectives are achieved.

As for the teachers, computers offer some opportunities to help them to make use of their time more effectively. Instead of checking and marking simple exercises like mechanical drills, they can spend more time on preparation and useful activities such as discussion and project work, which open up the possibility of small group activities (Kenning & Kenning, 1983).

Last but not least, CALL makes learners more autonomous. Beatty (2003) claims that CALL presents opportunities which help learners to develop autonomy by working individually and directing their own learning without the guidance of a teacher.

Students' attitudes towards CALL

After years of experiencing conventional ways of learning, it may take some time for students to get used to working with CALL. At this point, students' attitudes towards CALL are quite important for successful language learning, because students' attitudes have a strong effect on maintaining their motivation to go further and learn more. Several studies have been conducted to investigate students' attitudes towards CALL.

A longitudinal study conducted by Mitra and Steffensmeier (2000) examined the pedagogical usefulness of the computer by focusing on students' attitudes and use of computers in a computer-enriched environment. The results suggested that there was a positive correlation between a computer-enriched environment and students' attitudes towards computers in general, their role in teaching and learning, and their ability to facilitate communication. It was concluded in this study that a

networked institution can foster positive attitudes towards the use of computers in teaching and learning.

Another study was conducted by Ayres (2002) to examine students' attitudes towards CALL and their perceived view of its relevance to their course of study. It also aimed at clarifying how students see the role of CALL – as a competitor with the teacher or as just one useful educational tool. This study was conducted with 157 non-native speaker undergraduates. The results suggest that although learners do not see CALL as a worthwhile replacement for classroom-based learning, they see it as an important and useful aspect of their studies.

When the results of studies mentioned above are taken into account, it can be concluded that students who participated in these studies mostly have positive feelings and attitudes towards learning a language by working with computers and they find computers very useful and valuable in the language learning process. In addition, learners believe that they can learn more effectively when they make use of computers.

The role of the teacher in CALL instruction

With the emergence of different methods and approaches in language teaching, the roles of teachers have changed accordingly. However, first of all, it is important to have a look at the different roles of the teacher throughout the years. Yi-Dong (2007) explained this shift of teacher's roles from the grammar-translation period until the present. In the grammar-translation method, the teacher was regarded as someone who knew the target language and its literature thoroughly but did not necessarily speak fluently. With audiolingualism, the teacher acted as a native speaker of the target language to serve as a good model for students while

conducting repetition drills. This approach mainly focused on performance, so teachers did not have to prepare a lot of analysis of language form. In the communicative approach, due to the fact that language was viewed as a significant system for communication, the teacher's role was to help learners to get involved in communicative activities such as role-plays and dramatizations to use the appropriate language according to the social context.

With the integration of CALL into the learning and teaching process, it has become necessary to redefine the role of the teacher. No matter how effective CALL might be, it is not possible to overlook the teacher's participation in the teaching process for successful language learning. In her article, Yi-Dong (2007) supports this idea by stating that "teachers' roles will get much stronger". She adds "the teacher should be more responsible for directing the learner to sort out the materials they need among a vast sea of information" (p. 61).

There are a number of studies related to teachers' roles in a CALL environment. According to the results of a study conducted by Lam and Lawrence (2002) about teachers' roles in a computer-assisted language environment, the basic duty of the teachers is to answer the students' questions. These questions are about not only language problems but also technical problems, so teachers are also seen as technicians. The other roles revealed at the end of this study also include the teacher as an authority, monitor, guide, facilitator, expert and manager. Therefore, it is not possible to talk about only one responsibility of the teacher in a CALL classroom. In addition, Yi-Dong (2007) states in her article that the teacher has to act as an instructor, an assessor, a supervisor, an information provider and also as a friend, which computers can never achieve.

If teachers, educators and administrators are aware of the valuable opportunities that CALL provides and its power to facilitate language learning, they can create a learning environment which is effective and successful by making the most of CALL applications. Therefore, the success of CALL in the language learning process partially depends on the teacher's performance. As Beatty (2003) pointed out, there is no scientific evidence of anyone who can learn a foreign language from a computer. Therefore, it should be borne in mind that the advantages of CALL can be enhanced with the guidance of teachers.

Learner Autonomy

Definition of learner autonomy

It is not easy to define autonomy due to the fact that for more than two decades, it has been defined by many researchers in many ways (Benson, 2001; Scharle & Szabo, 2000; Smith, 2008). It has been argued that autonomy is not "a single, easily describable behavior" (Little, 1990 as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 47). However, to its supporters, development of autonomy means better language learning (Hansen, 2006). In addition, Benson (2001) claims that it is important to define autonomy for two reasons. Firstly, construct validity is essential for effective research. In order that autonomy can be researchable, it must be describable in terms of observable behaviors. Secondly, programmes, innovations, and methods developed to enhance autonomy are likely to be more effective if they are based on a clear understanding of the behavioral changes they aim to enhance.

Even though there are many definitions of learner autonomy, Chan (2003) prefers to use the most common definition which belongs to Holec, who defines autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 33). In other

words, to have and to hold the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, such as:

- determining the objectives,
- defining the contents and progressions,
- selecting methods and techniques to be used,
- monitoring the procedure of speaking acquisition
- evaluating what has been acquired (Holec, 1981 as cited in Chan, 2003, p.
 33).

Another definition of learner autonomy is given by Little (1994), which is "the capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p. 81). Chan (2001) states that there is one more recent definition for learner autonomy called the "Bergen Definition", which describes autonomy as a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes (p. 506). Benson (2001) puts forward the idea that there are three levels which should be taken into consideration while describing autonomy; "learning management, cognitive processes, [and] learning content" (p. 50).

As mentioned above, there are many definitions and terms related to autonomy. However, in order to understand clearly what autonomy is, Benson (2001) notes that we should also have a look at what autonomy is not;

- Autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- In the classroom context, autonomy does not entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is not a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best they can.

- Autonomy is not something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is not another teaching method.
- Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.
- Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners (Little, 1990 as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 48).

Last but not least, it should be kept in mind that learner autonomy cannot be regarded as a universal concept due to the fact that it depends on the person and the context where it is developed. It is not possible to claim that learner autonomy, whether of Western or Eastern style, can suit the needs and styles of each student. Developing learner autonomy without taking cultural, political, and social contexts into consideration may be misleading and cause inappropriate pedagogies (Egel, 2009). Under these circumstances, we cannot take only one definition of learner autonomy into account because of the fact that the concept of learner autonomy mostly depends on the individual, the place, and the context.

Importance of learner autonomy

Why learner autonomy? Why should it be developed or fostered? There is a quite common Chinese proverb which sheds light on its importance:

"Give a man a fish and you feed him for a day. Teach a man to fish and you feed him for a life time".

Following this idea, learner autonomy has a significant part in our lives for not only language learning but also life-long learning in all fields. Po-ying (2007) claims that learners need to be able to gain the ability to master language learning on their own because of the fact that a teacher cannot be available to help them all the time.

Scharle and Szabo (2000) also state that in order to master language learning and become successful, learners must be aware of the importance of sharing the responsibility for the outcome and they need to realize that successful learning depends on not only the teacher but also the learners themselves. Autonomy – learning how to learn – is necessary for effective learning because even if students learn a great deal through their lessons, there is also a great deal left for them to learn outside the class. Thus, students need to be able to study on their own, which leads us to the importance of developing learner autonomy.

Hansen (2006) puts forward a claim on the importance of autonomy by stating that learning is something individual, which means it depends on the person himself/herself. Therefore, it is essential that learners take control over their learning. Following this idea, it is possible to conclude that effective learning occurs provided that learners are set free to choose a way of learning which is suitable for them. Lee (1998) also emphasizes the importance of autonomy by stating "it is important to help students become aware of the value of independent learning outside the classroom, so that they acquire the habit of learning continuously, and maintain it after they have completed their formal studies" (p. 282).

However, owing to the impact of cultural issues and educational systems, most learners are passive in the language learning process and used to doing what they are told to do (Oxford, 1990). Such fossilized learning habits die hard and make learning much more difficult. Therefore, developing a sense of autonomy in students and clarifying its importance may lead to much more effective learning.

Characteristics of an autonomous learner

According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), an autonomous learner means a responsible learner. There is a strong relationship between responsibility and autonomy. As mentioned above, autonomy can be defined as being independent and having the ability to handle situations on one's own. Responsibility also means being in charge of something. Therefore, both autonomy and responsibility require active participation and they are very much interrelated. On the basis of this information, it is possible to conclude that an autonomous learner is one who can develop a sense of responsibility and get involved in the decision making processes of his/her learning. An autonomous learner has been characterized by many researchers (Po-ying, 2007; Scharle & Szabo, 2000; St Louis, 2007). Characteristics of an autonomous learner can be listed as follows:

- willing and have the capacity to control or supervise learning
- knowing their own learning style and strategies
- motivated to learn
- good guessers
- choosing materials, methods and tasks
- exercising choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen task
- selecting the criteria for evaluation
- taking an active approach to the task
- making and rejecting hypotheses
- paying attention to both form and content
- willing to take risks (St Louis, 2007, Autonomy and second language learning section, para. 3)

Dickinson (1993 as cited in Po-ying, 2007) identifies five features of an autonomous learner as follows:

- they can identify what has been taught
- they are able formulate their own learning objectives
- they select and implement appropriate strategies
- they can monitor these for themselves
- they know how to give up on strategies that are not working for them (p. 226).

According to the characteristics mentioned above, it can be summarized that an autonomous learner is one who is aware of what is happening in the class and his/her strengths and weaknesses, and who is in charge of his/her own learning.

Students' attitudes towards learner autonomy

On account of a shift from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered approach with the emergence of "learner autonomy", it has become necessary for students to take more responsibilities in the language learning process. One of the most fundamental principles of autonomous learning is that the learner is in charge of making decisions or developing the capacity for selecting suitable resources to fulfill learning goals. Therefore, it is crucial for learners who are used to teacher-centered learning to be prepared to take such a responsibility and to maintain more student-centered learning. In order to shed some light on students' attitudes towards autonomous learning, a number of studies have been conducted to investigate learner autonomy from learners' perspectives.

Chan (2001) conducted a study to investigate undergraduate students' attitudes toward and expectations of autonomous learning and their readiness for this learning

approach. Thirty participants aged 18 to 23 took part in the study. The data were collected through questionnaires. The results indicate that students seem to be aware of what autonomous learning is about and they have positive attitudes towards learner autonomy and the opportunity to work autonomously in collaborative work.

Another study was conducted by Chan, Humphreys and Spratt (2002) to explore students' views of their responsibilities and decision-making abilities in learning English, their motivation level and the actual language learning activities they undertook inside and outside the classroom, with a view to gauging their readiness for autonomous learning. The subjects were 508 undergraduates at the Hong-Kong Polytechnic University. Both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered through questionnaires and interviews. The results show that there are some constraining factors, such as the heavy reliance on the teacher and the heavy workload, which hinder the development of autonomy. In addition, the study reveals that even when the students have positive attitudes towards autonomy, they need to be motivated sufficiently to take control of their learning.

The teacher's role and learner autonomy

In the last two decades, language teaching has become more learner-centered as the communicative approach has gained popularity. Accordingly, teachers feel the need to replace their traditional roles with new roles in order to keep up with the innovations (Yang, 1998). In addition, the term "learner autonomy" requires a change in teachers' roles in language teaching accordingly.

Unlike the traditional way of teaching, in which the teacher directs the students and tells them what they have to do, learner-centered instruction, where learners are more active and responsible in the language learning process, gained

popularity with the emergence of the communicative approach (Yang, 1998). Therefore, the teachers should let the students take responsibility for their learning in the language learning process. However, learner autonomy does not mean leaving learners alone and setting them free in the language learning process. According to Little (2009), learners cannot be entirely free and detached from all responsibilities. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to realize the difference between being autonomous and being totally independent. In the autonomous learning approach, the teacher acts as a facilitator, helper, coordinator, counselor, consultant, adviser, knower and resource (Benson, 2001).

One study conducted by Chan (2003) aimed at exploring teachers' views of their roles and responsibilities, their assessment of their students' decision-making abilities, and the autonomous language learning activities they have encouraged their students to do. The participants were 508 undergraduates and 41 English teachers at the Hong-Kong Polytechnic University. A teacher and a student questionnaire were used to collect the data and follow-up interviews were conducted with a selected group of students. In addition, teachers were asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire. The results indicate that teachers had a well-defined view of their own role and responsibilities and regarded themselves as mainly responsible for the majority of the language-related decisions. Moreover, the study reveals that teachers did not encourage students to choose their own materials, activities or learning objectives or make other learning decisions typically associated with the autonomous learner. In addition, they mostly felt uncomfortable with letting students make their own decisions. It can be concluded that the teachers who participated in this study had difficulties in adapting to autonomous learning and they felt their authority was

threatened when they let students make their own decisions and choose the activities or materials suitable for them. In addition, they may have found it ineffective to pass onto the students these responsibilities.

Learner autonomy and learner training

Benson (2001) states that many learners have the ability to develop autonomy independent from the teacher's guidance. However, if developing learner autonomy is a goal of language education, it means that teachers and educational institutions should find ways to foster autonomy through practices that allow learners to get involved in modes of learning which will help them to develop autonomy. Due to the fact that autonomy means control over more than one aspect, it is not possible to speak of only one approach to achieve this goal, because it may take various forms.

In order to foster learner autonomy, one of the possible effective ways is learner training. Learner training is to raise students' awareness of language learning strategies, to enable them to discover the learning strategies that suit their learning styles, to give them opportunities to apply these strategies into the language learning environment, and, in turn, to encourage them to take control of their learning about their learning styles (Sinclair & Ellis, 1989). It is also a good way to help learners to make the most of the language learning process and enable them to work on their own and become more autonomous. Dickinson (1988) defines learner training by identifying three important components:

- training in processes, strategies and activities which can be used for language
 learning
- instruction designed to heighten awareness of the nature of the target language, and instruction in a descriptive metalanguage

- instruction in aspects of the theory of language learning and language acquisition (p.48).

Language learning strategies

Language learning strategies have been defined by many researchers so far (Chamot, 1987; R. Ellis, 1997; Oxford, 1990; Wenden, 1991). According to Oxford (1990), "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations" (p. 8). Furthermore, learning strategies can be defined as the techniques and approaches that learners apply when learning a language and they are generally problem-oriented. In other words, learners use learning strategies in order to solve a problem they come across in the language learning process (Ellis, 1997). According to a definition provided by Wenden (1991), "learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so" (p. 18). It can be concluded from these definitions that language learning strategies make the learning process easier, enable students to master the target language, and give learners power to control their own learning to some extent, which, accordingly, promotes autonomous learning.

Classification of language learning strategies

As well as various different definitions of learning strategies, there is a variety of classifications of learning strategies made by many researchers and educators. Learning strategies are classified by Wenden (1991) as cognitive strategies and self-management strategies, also referred to as metacognitive strategies. According to Oxford (1990), there are two basic types of learning

strategies: direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies consist of memory strategies, cognitive strategies and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies consist of metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. Rubin (1987) classifies language learning strategies under four headings: cognitive learning strategies, metacognitive learning strategies, communication strategies, and social strategies. In this research, the types of learning strategies will be examined under two main categories: cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies.

Wenden (1991) defines cognitive strategies as "mental steps or operations that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic content" (p. 19).

Cognitive strategies include repetition, note-taking, and elaboration (linking new concepts to already existing knowledge). However, a broader list of cognitive strategies has been prepared by Oxford (1990): practicing (repeating, formally practicing with sounds and writing systems, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, practicing naturalistically), receiving and sending messages (getting the idea quickly, using resources for receiving and sending messages), analyzing and reasoning (reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, transferring), and creating structure for input and output (taking notes, summarizing, highlighting) (p. 44). Chamot (1987 as cited in Ellis, 1994) states that cognitive strategies seem to be directly related to the performance of the particular task. According to Oxford (1990), cognitive strategies are considered to be the most popular strategies by language learners.

According to Oxford (1990), "metacognitive strategies are actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices", and they provide learners with opportunities to have control over their own learning process (p. 137). In a definition provided by

Ellis (1994), metacognitive strategies are defined as the strategies which "make use of knowledge about cognitive processes and constitute an attempt to regulate language learning by means of planning, monitoring, and evaluating" (p. 538). Rubin (1987) states that "metacognitive strategies are used to oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning" (p. 25). These metacognitive strategies include centering your learning (overviewing and linking with already known material, paying attention, delaying speech production to focus on listening), arranging and planning your learning (finding out about language learning, organizing, setting goals and objectives, identifying the purpose of a language task, planning for a language task, seeking practice opportunities), and evaluating your learning (self-monitoring, self-evaluating) (Oxford, 1990, p. 137).

It is claimed that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are generally used together and support each other (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990). It is possible to conclude that good combinations of strategies can make language learning better and more effective. Therefore, it is important to make use of a variety of strategies instead of sticking with one single strategy.

The importance of language learning strategies

Chamot (2005) emphasizes the importance of learning strategies by stating two reasons. First, the strategies used by the language learners in the learning process give insights into the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective processes involved in language learning. Second, it is possible to help less competent students to become better language learners by teaching them learning strategies.

According to Oxford (1990), learning strategies are very important because they help students to develop communicative competence, to improve their proficiency and to

become more self-confident. Some studies have been conducted in order to investigate the effect of learning strategies in the language learning process.

In a study conducted by Huang (2003), the effects of language learning strategies on the learning process were investigated. The participants were 47 Taiwanese students who were divided into one experimental and one control group. The experimental group attended a strategy training course, while the control group did not receive strategy training. The data were collected through both qualitative and quantitative methods with interviews, questionnaires and the TOEFL. The results of the study showed that strategy training helped students to improve their learning and language proficiency and enhanced their motivation in the language learning process.

Another study was conducted by Wei (2008) to investigate the effect of metacognitive awareness training on developing learner autonomy. One experimental group with 64 students and one control group with 64 students participated in the study. The data was collected through questionnaires. In the experimental group, the teacher conducted his usual classroom activities with metacognitive awareness teaching. The teacher encouraged the students to set objectives in the learning process, to plan and organize their learning, and to evaluate their progress, which was likely to promote learner autonomy. On the other hand, in the control group, the teacher conducted classroom activities with some guidance of how to use some strategies, but not emphasizing students' metacognitive awareness. The results revealed that metacognitive awareness training enabled students to organize and evaluate their learning effectively, which promoted learner autonomy.

It can be deduced from the results of these studies that strategy training helps

learners to become more successful learners in the language learning process. In addition, when students realize that they can apply the strategies effectively, strategy training is likely to increase students' motivation to learn the target language.

Furthermore, teaching students metacognitive strategies enables students to be more autonomous learners, which leads to successful language learning.

Language learning strategies and learner training

O'Malley (1987) defines a good language learner as someone who uses a variety of language learning strategies to help them gain control over new language skills. In addition, he supports the idea that with successful training, all learners can gain the ability to apply language learning strategies and to transfer them into new situations. Ellis and Sinclair (1989) state that learner training enables students to discover the language learning strategies that are suitable for them. Hence, "they may become more effective learners and take responsibility for their own learning" (p. 2). Learner training draws learners' attention to how to learn rather than what to learn. According to Ellis and Sinclair (1989), there are two main assumptions related to learner training:

- Learners have different learning styles and they use a variety of language learning strategies. These different strategies depend on their mood, motivation and the learning task.
- When learners are more informed about language and the language learning process, they can be more successful in managing their own learning.

 Furthermore, there are three advantages of students' taking more responsibilities for their own learning:
- Since learners are aware of what they can learn, learning can be more

effective.

- Learners can continue learning when they are outside the classroom.
- When learners are aware of the learning process and the strategies, they can transfer these learning strategies to new situations (Sinclair & Ellis, 1989).

Cohen (2000) claims that it is necessary to train students explicitly to help them become more aware of and competent with the language learning strategies. He states that with the help of strategy training,

[s]tudents can improve both their learning skills and their language skills when they are provided with the necessary tools to self-diagnose their learning difficulties, become more aware of what helps them learn the language they are studying most efficiently, experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar learning strategies for dealing with language tasks, monitor and evaluate their own performance, and transfer successful strategies to new learning contexts. (p. 15)

Furthermore, with the help of strategy training, learners are likely to maintain their motivation as they become actively involved in their own learning and, accordingly, they build up confidence and make progress (Sinclair & Ellis, 1989).

In a study conducted by Chen (2007), the impact of strategy training was investigated. The participants were 69 Taiwanese students who were explicitly trained in listening strategies. The data were gathered qualitatively through "working journals", in which students wrote their opinions about the tasks and strategies, and interviews. The results of the study revealed that after the training session, students developed a positive attitude towards English. Furthermore, some learners reported that strategy training improved their listening comprehension skills and enabled them to make progress. Another result of the study was that students could transfer the strategies they had learned for listening activities to reading and speaking activities.

Lastly, the study indicated that strategy training enhanced students' motivation for strategy use as they realized the effectiveness of strategies.

However, even though strategy training is considered to be effective for successful language learning, there is not enough research on the effectiveness of training students in language learning strategies. Moreover, existing studies on strategy training mostly focus on vocabulary or reading strategies. The major problem about strategy training is that there is not sufficient information about which strategies and what combinations of strategies improve language learning (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990; R. Ellis, 1997; O'Malley, 1987). Another issue related to learner training is whether it should be explicit or implicit and integrated or separate.

Explicit versus implicit instruction

In explicit instruction, it is easier to raise students' awareness of the language learning process and learning strategies. When they receive explicit strategy training, students can consciously participate in the language learning process (Scharle & Szabo, 2000). In addition, when students are informed about the purpose of strategy training, they may easily focus on the learning strategies. Hence, the more conscious they are, the more beneficial and effective strategy training can be. According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), explicit training provides learners with opportunities to work with the teacher collaboratively. In addition, they state that "in the case of learning strategies, the conscious realization of what strategies are applied in a given activity may increase the chances of transfer to other tasks" (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p. 10).

In implicit instruction, students are supposed to infer the use of strategies from the activities and the materials presented to them, but it is not explained to them

why this strategy or approach is being learned (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990). Chamot (2008) states that even though implicit instruction enables learners to reinforce strategic awareness, most researchers are in favor of explicit strategy instruction. Chamot and O'Malley (1990) support this claim by reporting a study related to uninformed strategy training. One experimental and one control group participated in the study. The experimental group was trained in reading strategies and they were provided with reading comprehension exercises intended to teach students basic reading strategies; however, they were not informed about the aim of this strategy instruction. At the end of the training, they showed improvement in reading comprehension, but the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, many researchers suggest that strategy training should be explicit rather than embedded.

Integrated versus separate instruction

There is another debated issue about whether strategy training should be conducted separately or whether it should be integrated into the language curriculum. Some researchers agree on the effectiveness of separate strategy instruction in which students focus on language learning strategies, which will help them understand these strategies more effectively rather than concentrating on both the strategies and the language content at the same time. Furthermore, it is claimed that when students receive separate strategy training, they can perceive that the strategies are generalizable to other contexts. Therefore, they can gain the ability to transfer the strategies to different situations (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990).

Those who support integrated strategy instruction claim that "learning in context is more effective than learning separate skills whose immediate applicability may not be evident to the learner" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1990, p. 152). In addition,

they claim that practicing strategies on authentic tasks makes it easier for learners to transfer the strategies to similar contexts.

Learner Autonomy and CALL

In the previous sections, it was mentioned that CALL has many advantages for both teachers and students. In addition to the advantages and effectiveness of CALL, it is claimed by some researchers that there is a relationship between learner autonomy and CALL, and that CALL enables learners to develop autonomy with the opportunities it provides, making them independent and self-directed (Beatty, 2003; Pennington, 1996). Some studies have been conducted in order to investigate whether CALL has a positive effect on promoting learner autonomy.

One small-scale study conducted by Ying (2002) focused on how a CALL research project promotes learner autonomy at Suzhou University. Thirty-two junior students who had never participated in any CALL projects before took part in the study. The results indicate that learners took responsibility for most aspects of learning and the CALL project proved to be effective in enhancing learner autonomy to some extent with the help of the teacher.

Moreover, St Louis (2007) carried out a study to investigate whether technology can help students to develop learner autonomy and raise their awareness of learning styles and strategies. Students were exposed to consciousness-raising activities enabling them to start thinking about the way they learn and making them aware of the strategies they use. Then, they were provided with authentic input from the Internet. The results of the study indicate that students started to take control of their learning by participating in decision-making with regard to materials, activities and evaluation and practicing different kinds of exercises that the Internet provides.

Blin (2004) states that from the beginning, CALL applications give learners control over some aspects of language learning to some extent by promoting independent learning. He also states that while earlier CALL applications mainly allowed control over the pace of learning and provided a limited choice of materials, recent applications provide broader opportunities to improve learner autonomy. However, Little (1996 as cited in Blin, 2004) claims that learner autonomy is essential in order that tandem learning, which is defined as language exchanges between two language learners, each of whom wishes to improve his/her proficiency in the other's native language (Calvert, 1999), could be successful. Therefore, some CALL applications may promote learner autonomy, only when learners are already autonomous to some extent.

Learner Training and CALL

If students are not autonomous enough, they may have difficulty in working with computers because of the fact that CALL requires students to take a significant amount of responsibility for their own learning by providing opportunities for students to work on their own. Similar to the strong relationship between CALL and learner autonomy, Hubbard (2004) also claims that learner autonomy is strongly related to learner strategy training. Therefore, he believes that it is our duty to prepare our students for learning environments in order that they can use computer resources to reach their learning goals. Hubbard (2004) gives a five-step procedure to train our students in CALL to help them get more benefits from computer-assisted language learning:

- Experience CALL yourself to get some firsthand CALL experience as a learner and feel empathy before attempting to guide the students;

- Give language learners the level of training given to language teachers to inform them how to make use of computers in their language learning;
- Use a cyclic approach to remind students of points they may easily forget over time;
- Use collaborative debriefings to add a social dimension for both motivational purposes and for increasing target language contact;
- Teach general exploitation strategies to make students familiar with some general CALL-oriented strategies (p. 51–55).

There are not many studies related to language learning strategies and CALL. However, those that have been conducted give some insights into students' attitudes towards learning strategies and the effect of learning strategies on CALL environments.

Namlu (2003) conducted an experimental study to investigate the effect of learning strategy training on computer anxiety and achievement among 37 students attending a computer programming languages II course. Pre- and post-test instruments were used in the study. The subjects in the experimental group were trained on how to improve their learning strategies and the subjects in the control group were only given a seminar on the issue without being given any training. The study revealed that the development of learning strategies decreased learners' anxiety towards computers and increased their academic achievement. Therefore, it can be concluded that administrators should organize educational settings to enable learners to acquire these types of strategies.

As previously stated, there is a lot of research about the advantages and effectiveness of CALL in the language learning process. It has also been investigated

whether CALL has an influence on fostering learner autonomy. Additionally, there are many studies which aim to explore the role of learner training on promoting learner autonomy and increasing students' achievement in language learning. However, there has not been any empirical research which has been conducted in order to investigate the effect of learner training on enhancing students' ability to benefit from CALL applications.

Conclusion

This literature review provides an overview regarding CALL, learner autonomy, learner training and language learning strategies and makes a connection between them. The studies mentioned here show the impact of these concepts on one another and how they are interrelated. However, no empirical research has been conducted in an order to investigate the role of learner training in the effectiveness of CALL. The next chapter will cover the methodology used in a study conducted to attempt to fill this gap, including participants, instruments, data collection and the data analysis procedure.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of this exploratory study was to determine whether training students in cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies has a positive effect on students' ability to benefit from CALL and, correspondingly, enhances its effectiveness in the language learning process.

The following research question was addressed in this study:

To what extent does learner training make students more capable of benefiting from CALL in terms of their attendance in the lab lessons, the amount of time spent on the activities, the amount of material covered in the lab lessons, and the test scores in review quizzes?

This chapter consists of five sections: the setting, the participants, the instruments, the data collection procedure and the data analysis. Firstly, the setting where the study was conducted and the participants who took part in this study will be described. Next, the instruments used in order to collect the data will be explained. Then, the development of materials and the procedure followed in a chronological order during the data collection process will be explained in detail. Lastly, the data analysis procedure will be described.

Setting

This study was conducted at Zonguldak Karaelmas University Foreign

Languages Compulsory Preparatory School. The aim of this institution is to provide

undergraduate students with opportunities to acquire English for general purposes.

At the beginning of each academic year, students take a proficiency test to determine whether they have to attend courses at preparatory school. Since it is compulsory for students to attend some courses of their actual departments in English, those who cannot succeed in passing the proficiency test are obliged to study at preparatory school. The students who score over 60 points on the test are exempted from attending the courses at preparatory school. Those who score lower than 60 points take another test called the "Placement Test" to determine their levels. Three levels are formed, B, C and D, as a result of this placement test. Students are placed in the appropriate classes according to the scores they received in the placement test.

The curriculum in this institution consists of five basic courses: writing, speaking, video, lab lessons and the main course, in which the Success set is used. Students have to attend two two-hour lab lessons per week. In addition, there is a two-hour free lab lesson which is optional for students. Students study English in these labs when they need to do extra exercises or assignments. In the lab lessons, students are expected to work on their own. There is always an instructor who is responsible for each class. However, the teacher mostly acts as a guide when students come across a problem or need help, rather than conducting a lesson. It is students' preference what activity to do or in what order the exercises or activities are done.

Participants

The participants were 38 intermediate level students who were attending

Zonguldak Karaelmas University Foreign Languages Compulsory Preparatory

School in their first year at university and four instructors who were responsible for

the two groups. Two of the instructors were responsible for the main course and the lab lessons attended by the experimental group and the other two instructors were responsible for main course and the lab lessons of the control group. Those who were responsible for the experimental group gave strategy training to the students in the experimental group and kept records of what they had done in the lab lessons. The other two instructors were responsible for only keeping records of the behaviors of the control group in the lab lessons. Both the experimental and the control groups were D level students who were placed in their classes according to the scores they received from the placement test at the beginning of the term. When the participants first started the term, they were elementary level students. However, in the period when the data collection process was initiated, they had reached intermediate level according to the course book they were studying. The control group consisted of 20 students, with 12 females and 8 males, and the experimental group consisted of 18 students with 11 females and 7 males.

While choosing the teachers, their teaching experience, their attitudes towards students in the lab lessons and their willingness to participate in the study was taken into account. Both the experimental and the control groups were intact main course classes chosen based on their teachers' willingness. On the other hand, the equivalence between the levels of students was also taken into account. It was judged that the students were equal in terms of proficiency levels based on the scores they received from the placement test. In addition to their instructors' willingness and the equivalence between the students, the groups who had different lab hours and different teachers were chosen in order that they could not have a chance to interact with each other for the reliability of the results.

Materials and Instruments

Two different types of materials were used to conduct this study and to collect data. These materials included strategy training activities carried out within regular classroom time, and Longman English Interactive Online used in the lab lessons.

Strategy training activities

These activities were provided by the researcher in an attempt to train students in some specific language learning strategies and raise their awareness of cognitive and metacognitive strategies which would enable them to develop autonomy and improve their language skills. The activities which were used in the strategy training process included materials and exercises focused on teaching listening, reading, vocabulary and grammar strategies to students (see Appendix A for the strategy training activities). Some of these materials were retrieved from different books and sources and some of them were modified for training purposes. For the reading strategies, students were explicitly taught basic strategies such as skimming, scanning, making predictions, guessing the meaning from the context, and completing a KWL chart, which aims to enable students to make a connection between new material and existing knowledge (Fisher, Frey, & Williams, 2002). For the listening strategies, students were encouraged to make predictions before and during listening, which made it easier to understand the listening text in general. They were also taught listening for the main idea and listening for the details. In addition, for the gap-filling exercises, students were encouraged to try to understand the text which was incomplete. Then, it was explained to students that it is a good way to find the parts of speech of the words which are missing in the listening text.

With respect to the vocabulary learning strategies, students first studied basic vocabulary learning tips. Then, they were encouraged to keep vocabulary notebooks in and out of the classroom and in the lab lessons as well. With these vocabulary notebooks, it was aimed to make students acquire the habit of taking notes of the new vocabulary and organizing what they learned. Regarding the grammar strategies, students were provided with two texts in one of which the target structure appeared. They were encouraged to elicit the grammar rule on their own by comparing these two texts. Students did the same activity for all grammar subjects. In addition, they were asked to write their own grammar exercises for each grammar subject they had learned. During this training process, students were informed about the rationale of the strategy training activities to raise their awareness of the learning strategies. Activities intended to improve speaking and writing skills were excluded from strategy training owing to both technical problems related to speaking exercises and the inadequacy of the writing sections in the online program. In addition, students received training in some metacognitive strategies which were likely to enable them to deal with CALL materials more effectively. First of all, students were given a metacognitive strategies questionnaire in order to determine whether they had been using specific strategies while learning the target language (see Appendices B and C for the English and Turkish versions of the questionnaire). Another aim of the questionnaire was to raise students' awareness of some metacognitive strategies that they could apply in the lab lessons. In the second phase, the procedure followed to teach metacognitive strategies was adapted from a study conducted by Flaitz, Feyten, Fox and Mukherjee (1995). In small groups, students were encouraged to discuss their studying habits and some of the strategies they already knew. Then,

they wrote their ideas and opinions on a piece of paper and stuck it on the board so that everybody could see each other's ideas. Lastly, a metacognitive strategies handout was distributed to students and the items in the handout were explained to students by the instructor in detail (see Appendix D for the metacognitive strategies handout).

In addition, the students in the experimental group were provided with checklists which included the basic cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies that they had learned in the strategy training period (see Appendix E for the checklist). The students were asked to complete these checklists every time they studied in the lab lessons. The aim of the checklists was to encourage students to apply the strategies they had learned when they were studying English in lab lessons on their own. With the checklists, it was also aimed to remind students of these language learning strategies from time to time in order that they would get used to making use of them regularly.

Longman English Interactive Online

At Zonguldak Karaelmas University, in the lab lessons, a web-based program called Longman English Interactive (LEI) is being used, some parts of which are parallel to the Success set. There are four levels of this program, each of which consists of three sections, Module A, Module B and Module C. Each module includes grammar, speaking, listening, pronunciation, writing, reading and vocabulary sections. The lab lessons are a part of the curriculum; therefore, students are obliged to attend these lessons. At the beginning of the term, an orientation session is conducted to inform students about the features of this web-based program. The first few weeks, teachers help students to learn what they can do with

the program. Then, students start to work independently in the lab lessons. The teacher who is responsible for a class guides the students and helps them when they are in need. In the lab lessons, students choose the activities and the exercises on their own and they are not graded for the activities and exercises they do. The aim of the lab lessons is to create a self-study environment for students to choose what they think they need to work on more.

One of the most useful features of this program is that it enables the administrators and the instructors to monitor what students do during the lab lessons and record detailed information about the number of activities they complete, the amount of time spent on activities and tests, and the scores they receive from the review quizzes at the end of each unit. Thanks to this feature of LEI, some detailed data about the extent of students' engagement in lab activities and their performances were recorded and stored in the program itself.

Data Collection Procedure

After official permission was granted from the institution, the data collection process was initiated on the 15th of February. Before the experimental group received strategy training, both groups were observed in the lab lessons over a two-week period in terms of their attendance in the lab lessons, the number of activities they completed, the amount of time they spent on the activities and quizzes, and the scores they received from review quizzes. As mentioned in the previous sections, all these data were automatically saved by the program cumulatively. However, since the weekly data were needed by the researcher, the teachers responsible for each lab lesson kept weekly records of the data. Because Longman English Interactive Online is a web-based language learning management system which can be accessed from

everywhere where is internet service, the researcher was able to observe and record the students' data as well.

On the 1st of March, the strategy training process, which lasted for two weeks, started. In this process, the students in the experimental group received training in cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies from two different instructors. On the other hand, the students in the control group did not receive any strategy training and they continued attending their regular courses and the lab lessons as they always did. Strategy training was incorporated into the regular main course rather than being given as separate strategy instruction. In the first week, students were trained in reading and vocabulary strategies in their regular main course. In the second week, they received training in listening and grammar strategies and some metacognitive strategies. Twenty hours of strategy training were given to students, in total. During the training process, the experimental group was reminded to apply the strategies as much as possible in the lab lessons. Subsequent to the training process, both groups continued to attend the regular lab lessons as they did before and they were observed for five weeks considering the same indicators recorded at the beginning of the data collection process.

Data Analysis

All of the data collected at the end of the study were statistically analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11.5. The data were analyzed in three phases.

The data related to the performance and the achievement levels of both the groups which were obtained from LEI before the strategy training process were analyzed to identify whether there were any differences between the experimental

and the control groups. Then, the same data analysis procedure was followed after strategy training to determine whether any difference occurred between the two groups.

As the last step, the data related to the performance and the achievement level of the students in the experimental group prior and subsequent to the strategy training process were analyzed to compare their performance and achievement levels in the pre- and the post-training period and to explore whether any remarkable difference occurred.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the research methodology of the study including the aim of the study, setting, participants, instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis were described. In the following chapter, the methods used to analyze the data and the results of the study will be presented in detail.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify whether teaching students cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies through learner training has a positive effect on their ability to benefit from computer-assisted language learning and, in turn, enhances its effectiveness in the language learning process.

The following research question was addressed in this study:

To what extent does learner training make students more capable of benefiting from CALL in terms of their attendance in the lab lessons, the amount of time spent on the activities, the amount of the material covered in the lab lessons, the number of the quizzes completed in the lab lessons, and the test scores in review quizzes?

The quantitative data for this study were gathered from two groups of intermediate level students: one control group, with 20 students, and one experimental group, with 18 students. The experimental group received learner training in language learning strategies focused on enhancing the effectiveness of CALL over a two-week period, while the students in the control group followed their regular lab lessons without any training.

The data were collected through attendance records kept by the instructors who were responsible for each group and the records of what students had done in the lab lessons which were automatically collected and saved by Longman English

Interactive Online – a web-based program used in the lab lessons. These lab records included the number of quizzes completed, quiz scores, the number of activities completed and time spent on the activities. Quantitative methods were used in order to analyze these data.

This chapter will present the process of organizing the data gathered before analyzing them by means of SPSS, brief information about the data analysis procedure and the detailed analysis of each variable included in the research question.

Data Analysis Procedure

After the data were entered into the Statistics Package for the Social Sciences 11.5 (SPSS), tests of normality were conducted in order to determine whether the data were normally distributed. The results showed that the data were not normally distributed. Therefore, non-parametric two independent samples and related samples tests were employed in order to analyze the data.

Firstly, the performances of both the experimental and the control groups before the strategy training process were compared. As a second step, the performances of the two groups after the strategy training process were investigated and compared. Lastly, the performances of the experimental and the control groups in the pre- and the post-training period were compared to determine whether any differences occurred.

Results

Attendance

Before the data obtained from students' attendance records were entered into SPPS, the number of lab sessions attended by students was converted into a percentage of the total number of sessions, for both the pre- and post-training periods. Table 1 shows the median attendance levels of both groups, before and after strategy training.

	N	Medians	Interquartile range
Experimental			
attendance pre	18	75	31.2
attendance post	18	81.5	28
Control			
attendance pre	20	87.5	25
attendance post	20	78	22

Table 1 – Medians for attendance, pre- and post-training

The data were analyzed in three phases. First of all, the attendance levels of both the experimental and the control groups were compared to each other before strategy training in an attempt to identify if there were any differences between the two groups.

As it is shown in Table 1, the attendance level of the control group appears to be higher than that of the experimental group before strategy training. However, a Mann-Whitney test revealed that the difference between the groups in terms of their attendance level was not statistically significant in the pre-training period (T= 339, U= 168, p>.05).

As a second step, the attendance levels of the experimental and the control groups were compared after strategy training in order to explore whether any

difference occurred between the two groups after the experimental group received strategy training.

As can be seen in Table 1, almost no difference occurred between the two groups after strategy training. According to the results of a Mann-Whitney test, the difference between the attendance level of the experimental and the control groups in the post-training period was not statistically significant (T= 336, U= 122, p > .05). It can be inferred from the results that strategy training did not seem to have had an influence on the students' motivation to attend the lessons more and did not create any difference between the experimental and the control groups in terms of attendance.

Lastly, the attendance levels of the experimental and the control groups were measured before and after the strategy training in order to explore if training had any effects on the attendance of the experimental group in the lab lessons when compared with the attendance of the control group in the pre- and the post-training period.

According to Table 1, there appears to be an increase in the experimental students' attendance in the lab lessons after strategy training. The results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test revealed that the difference was not statistically significant (T= 66.5, p>.05). Regarding the medians of the control group's attendance level in pre- and post-training, there appears to be a decrease in students' attendance in the lab lessons. However, according to the results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, the decrease in the attendance level of the control group was not statistically significant (T= 62, p>.05). In other words, strategy training caused neither an increase nor a decrease in the attendance level of the experimental group.

Therefore, it can be concluded from the results that training students in language learning strategies did not appear to have any impact on students' attendance in the lab lessons.

The amount of time spent on the activities in the lab lessons

Before the data gathered from the lab reports of students were entered into SPSS as a variable, the average time spent on the activities per session by each student in both the experimental and the control groups was calculated, for both the pre- and post-training periods. The medians for the average number of minutes spent on the lab activities per lab session by both groups in the pre- and post-training periods are presented in Table 2.

	N	Medians	Interquartile range
Experimental			
minutes pre	18	46.6	13.5
minutes post	18	59.9	16.8
Control			
minutes pre	20	66.5	12.3
minutes post	20	58.5	13.5

Table 2 – Medians, time spent on lab activities, pre- and post-training (minutes per session)

The same analysis procedure was followed as for the previous variable.

Firstly, the time devoted by the experimental and the control groups to the activities in the lab lessons was measured and compared so as to identify the difference between the two groups.

Table 2 illustrates that the students in the control group appeared to spend much more time on the lab activities before strategy training than the experimental group did. In order to discover whether the difference was statistically significant, a Mann-Whitney test was conducted. The output showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of the amount of the time they

spent on the CALL materials (U= 26, p<.05, r=.73). Before the strategy training process, the time devoted to lab activities by the control group was strikingly higher than the experimental group.

Secondly, the time allocated to CALL materials by both groups in the post-training period was measured and compared. According to Table 2, the experimental and the control groups appeared to spend almost the same amount of time on the lab activities in the post-training period. The output of a Mann-Whitney test revealed that the difference between both groups was not statistically significant (T= 339.5, U= 129.5, p>.05). These results suggest that after the strategy training process, the experimental group spent about the same amount of time as the control group in the post-training period.

Lastly, the number of minutes the experimental and the control groups spent on the activities in the lab lessons in pre- and post-training sessions was investigated to explore whether strategy training had a notable effect on how long the experimental group used CALL materials in the lab lessons.

As shown in Table 2, there appears to be a remarkable difference between the time spent on the activities by the experimental group in the pre- and the post-training sessions. After students received strategy training in language learning strategies, they seemed to begin to spend much more time on the activities in the lab lessons, in contrast to their behavior in the pre-training period. Moreover, the results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test showed the difference to be statistically significant (T=7, p<.05, r=.80). However, with respect to the median amount of time spent by the control group in pre- and post-training, the control group devoted far less time to the lab activities in the post-training period as compared with the time they spent in

the pre-training period. The results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test indicated that the control group spent significantly less time on the lab activities in the post-training period (T=1, p<.05, r=.87). In other words, while there is a significant increase in the amount of time spent by the experimental group in pre-training, there is a considerable decrease in the amount of time spent by the control group in post-training. Therefore, it is possible to conclude from these results that strategy training may have had a notable impact on students' engagement with the lab activities.

The number of activities completed in lab lessons

One of the indicators analyzed in order to determine the effect of strategy training was the number of activities completed by the two groups in pre- and post-training sessions. Before the data were entered into SPSS, the activities completed by each student in the experimental and the control groups per class session were counted and the average number of activities completed by the students in both groups per class hour, for both the pre- and post-training periods was calculated. Table 3 displays the median number of activities completed by the two groups in the lab lessons in the pre- and post-training periods.

	N	Medians	Interquartile range
Experimental			
activity number pre	18	4.8	1.6
activity number post	18	4.2	0.6
Control			
activity number pre	20	4.6	1.6
activity number post	20	2.8	0.7

Table 3 – Medians, number of activities completed, pre- and post-training

The number of activities completed by both the experimental and the control groups before the strategy training process were compared so as to identify whether

there were any differences between the groups in terms of their performance in the lab lessons.

As can be seen in Table 3, there appears to be almost no difference between the experimental and the control groups before the strategy training process. A Mann-Whitney test was employed in order to identify whether the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. The output revealed that the difference was not statistically significant (T= 374, U= 157, p>.05). The results suggest that both groups were equivalent to each other and they started from the same point before the experimental group received strategy training.

As the next step, the performance of both groups in terms of the material covered in lab lessons was compared so as to discover if any difference between the experimental and the control groups occurred in terms of the activities they completed after the experimental group was trained in language learning strategies.

As can clearly be seen in Table 3, the experimental group appeared to complete far more activities than the control group did in the post-training period. In an attempt to determine whether the difference between the groups was significant, a Mann-Whitney test was conducted. The output showed the difference to be statistically significant (U=13, p<.05, r=.79).

Finally, the number of activities completed by the experimental group before and after strategy training was compared to identify whether students were able to complete more activities than they did before they received strategy training.

Similarly, the number of activities completed by the control group in pre- and post-training was compared to explore whether any difference occurred in their performances.

As shown in Table 3, a small decrease is observed in the performance of the experimental group after the strategy training process. In an attempt to determine whether the results are statistically significant, a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was conducted. However, the results of the test showed that the difference was not statistically significant (T= 62, p>.05). Regarding the medians of the average number of activities completed by the control group in the pre- and the post-training period, a decrease in the number of lab activities is observed in post-training. The results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test revealed that there is a statistically significant decrease in the number of lab activities completed by the control group in the post-training period when compared with their performance in the pre-training period (T=10.5, p<.05, r=.79). The results may indicate that because there was no significant difference between the number of activities completed by the experimental group in the pre- and the post-training sessions, the motivation of the control group might have decreased during the term for some reason, while the motivation of the experimental group appeared to have been maintained during the five-week observation process. It can be derived from the results that even though training students in the language learning strategies did not affect the amount of material completed by the students in the lab lessons, it may have had a positive effect on maintaining students' motivation to participate in the lab lessons. As for the decrease in the amount of time spent by the control group, it is possible to speculate that they may have been informed about the aim of the study and the experimental group, which might have affected their motivation in a negative way. However, the regular conversations with the instructors of the control group revealed that no such event had occurred during the data collection process.

The number of quizzes completed in lab lessons

Another variable measured and analyzed to explore the role of the strategy training on the effectiveness of the lab lessons was the number of review quizzes completed by the students in both groups. Before the data was entered into SPSS, the quizzes completed by the students in the experimental and the control groups in the pre- and post-training periods were counted. Then, the data were analyzed by following the same procedure to determine whether strategy training resulted in an increase in the number of quizzes completed by the students. Table 4 demonstrates the median number of review quizzes completed by the students in both groups during the pre- and post-training periods.

	N	Medians	Interquartile range
Experimental			
quiz number pre-training	18	1	3
quiz number post-training	18	4	3
Control			
quiz number pre-training	20	3	2
quiz number post-training	20	5	1

Table 4 – Medians, average number of quizzes, pre- and post-training

Firstly, the number of review quizzes completed by the experimental and the control groups before the experimental group was trained in the language learning strategies was compared with each other to identify whether there were any differences between the groups with regard to their performances in the lab lessons.

According to Table 4, in terms of the number of quizzes completed by the students, it appears that there was a difference between the groups prior to the strategy training process. In order to reveal whether the difference between the two groups was statistically significant, a Mann-Whitney test was run. According to the output of the test, the difference was statistically significant (U= 89.5, p < .05, r =

.44). Prior to strategy training, the control group completed significantly more quizzes than the experimental group did.

As the second step, the number of quizzes completed by the experimental and the control groups were compared after the strategy training process in order to explore whether training students in certain language learning strategies resulted in an increase in the number of quizzes completed by the experimental group as compared with the control group.

As presented in Table 4, there was almost no difference between the experimental and the control groups regarding the number of quizzes completed in the lab lessons, while this difference was statistically significant in the pre-training period. The results of a Mann-Whitney test confirmed that the difference in the post-training period was not statistically significant (U=160.5, p>.05). This result indicates that before the training process, there was a significant difference between the two groups regarding the number of quizzes completed. In other words, the control group completed more quizzes than the experimental group. However, after the experimental group received strategy training, the difference between the two groups decreased and the experimental group was able to catch up with the control group.

The third analysis, which is the comparison of the performances of the experimental and the control groups in the pre- and the post-training period, was not carried out for the number of quizzes completed by students. Since the post-training period was much longer that the pre-training period, it was inevitable that students completed more quizzes as compared to the pre-training period. Therefore, the results of this comparison would not be reliable.

Quiz scores

Another source of data was the quiz scores students received in the lab lessons. Firstly, an average quiz score was calculated for each student in the pretraining and the post-training period. Then, the same three-phase procedure was followed to analyze these data. Table 5 shows the medians of the average quiz scores of the experimental and the control groups before and after the strategy training process.

			Interquartile
	N	Medians	range
Experimental			
quiz pre-training	12	79.2	14.2
quiz post-training	12	83.9	10.2
Control			
quiz pre-training	19	83.6	13.5
quiz post-training	19	82.6	10.6

Table 5 – Medians, average quiz scores, pre- and post-training

As the first step, the medians of the average quiz scores of the experimental and the control groups before strategy training were compared in order to explore whether there were any differences between the two groups in terms of their achievement on quizzes before the strategy training process.

Table 5 suggests that the control group was more successful than the experimental group regarding the quiz scores they received before the experimental group was trained in the language learning strategies. A Mann-Whitney test was employed so as to see whether the difference between the two groups was statistically significant. The results of the test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups with respect to the quiz scores they received prior to the strategy training process (U= 68, p < .05, r = .30). It can be

concluded that in the pre-training period, the control group did better than the experimental group in terms of the review quizzes.

Secondly, the quiz scores of the experimental and the control groups in the post-training period were compared in order to discover whether training students in language learning strategies enabled them to catch up with the control group, whose average quiz scores were higher than the experimental group before strategy training.

As it can be seen in Table 5, in the post-training period, the experimental group appeared to score slightly higher than the control group on the review quizzes they completed. However, a Mann-Whitney test revealed that the difference was not statistically significant (T= 214, p >.05). Even though the control group scored statistically higher on review quizzes than the experimental group in the pre-training period, the experimental group was able to catch up with the control group. The results may indicate that with the help of strategy training, students became more aware of what they should do while practicing specific language skills and how they should handle the questions in review quizzes.

As the last step, in an attempt to further explore whether the strategy training process made any difference in students' achievement on quizzes, the quiz scores of both groups before and after the strategy training process were compared.

As can be seen in Table 5, a notable difference occurred regarding the average quiz scores of the experimental group in the pre- and the post-training period. The results of a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test proved the difference to be statistically significant (T= 16.5, p<.05, r = .42). On the other hand, a decrease was observed in the quiz scores of the control group in the post-training period. In order to determine whether the decrease was statistically significant, a Wilcoxon Signed

Ranks test was employed. The results revealed that a statistically significant decrease occurred in the achievement of the control group in the post-training period as compared with their quiz scores in the pre-training period (T= 40, p<.05, r = .49). According to these results, the students in the experimental group made some progress and scored significantly higher after they received strategy training in the language learning strategies, in contrast to the control group, whose quiz scores decreased in the post-training period. These results suggest that strategy training may have had a positive effect on the achievement of students and enabled them to do the exercises and answer the questions in the review quizzes better.

Table 6 illustrates the summary of all variables for both groups in the preand the post-training period.

		EXPERIMENTAL (Mdn)		CONTROL (Mdn)		
Attendance	pre	75	p > .05	87.5	p >.05	
	post	81.5		78		
Time	pre	46.6	p <.05	66.5	p <.05	
	post	59.9		58.5		
Number of Activities	pre	4.8	p >.05	4.6	p <.05	
	post	4.2		2.8		
Number of Quizzes	pre	1		3		
	post	4		5		
Quiz Scores	pre	79.2	p <.05	83.6	p <.05	
	post	83.9		82.6		

Table 6 – All medians, pre- and post-training

As can be seen, for the experimental group, there was a statistically significant difference regarding the amount of time spent on the lab activities and quiz scores. However, there was no consistency between the time spent on the lab activities and the number of activities completed. In other words, even though the experimental group spent significantly more time in the post-training period, the number of the activities they completed stayed the same as the pre-training period.

On the other hand, it is important to note that there was a positive relationship between the amount of time spent on the activities and the quiz scores. It may be concluded that the increased amount of time they spent might have resulted in their improvement in the quiz scores.

As for the control group, a statistically significant decrease occurred in the post-training period in terms of the amount of time, the number of activities, and the quiz scores. Although they spent a little less time in the post-training period, they completed markedly fewer activities. Accordingly, they showed no improvement in the quiz scores. Briefly, while the difference occurred in a positive way for the experimental group, it occurred in a negative way for the control group.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the data analysis procedure and the findings obtained from the analysis of the quantitative data were reported. All the variables in the research question were examined one by one and three different comparisons of each indicator were explained in detail. With regard to the first variable, which is attendance, the results showed that strategy training did not appear to have an effect on students' level of attendance to the lab lessons. The output extracted from the analysis of the amount of time allocated to the lab activities revealed that strategy training appeared to have an influence on how long the students dealt with the lab activities during the lab lessons. In terms of the number of activities completed by students in the lab lessons, even though strategy training did not appear to motivate the students to complete more activities, it appeared to enable the students in the experimental group to maintain their level of activity, while a considerable decrease occurred in the control group regarding the number of activities completed. With

respect to the number of review quizzes completed by the two groups, strategy training seemed to prove to be effective in motivating experimental group students to finish as many quizzes as the control group did, after they were trained in language learning strategies. In addition, strategy training appeared to have motivated the experimental group to finish more quizzes than they did before the training process. Lastly, the results obtained from the analysis of the quiz scores of the students indicated that training students in language learning strategies may have had a positive effect on students' achievement in the review quizzes.

In the next chapter, the findings, recommendations, the pedagogical implications, suggestions for further studies and the limitations will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

This study investigated the role of learner training on students' ability to make use of CALL materials and, accordingly, on the effectiveness of CALL in language learning. The current study was carried out with the participation of two groups, one experimental and one control group, with 38 intermediate level students in total.

Firstly, before the experimental group received strategy training, both groups were observed in the lab lessons over two weeks to document their behaviors and performance without strategy training. After the two-week observation process, the experimental group was trained in some cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies over two weeks, in the hopes that they would apply these strategies in the lab lessons while studying on their own. However, the control group continued attending the lab lessons as they regularly did, without any training. Subsequent to the strategy training, both groups were observed over five weeks to document the same factors as in the pre-training period. The data collected through the observations and the records were analyzed in order to compare the performances of both the groups before and after the strategy training process.

This chapter will discuss the findings in relationship to the relevant literature.

Then, possible pedagogical implications of the study and the limitations will be presented. Based on the findings and the limitations, suggestions will be made for further studies.

Findings and Discussion

The results drawn from the data analysis showed that even though it did not make an expected difference regarding all the variables in the research question, strategy training may have had an influence on students' ability to make use of CALL material and their performance in the lab lessons to some extent while they were dealing with the lab activities. The findings and discussion will be presented under two headings: students' behaviors in the lab lessons and students' performance on quizzes. With respect to students' behaviors, attendance in the lab lessons, the time spent on the activities, the amount of material covered in the lab lessons, and the number of quizzes completed in the lab lessons will be discussed. In terms of students' performance on quizzes, the test scores received by students will be discussed.

Students' behaviors in the lab lessons

According to the results of data analysis, strategy training had neither a positive nor a negative impact on students' attendance in the lab lessons. The experimental group continued attending the lab lessons as they did before they were trained in language learning strategies. It is possible to conclude that even if students became more conscious about the language learning process with the help of language learning strategies, strategy training did not prove to be effective in motivating students to attend the lab lessons more. Such a result may stem from the fact that at Zonguldak Karaelmas University, attending the lab lessons is not optional, but it is required. Therefore, if it had been optional while the current study was being

conducted, it might have been possible to speculate about the effect of strategy training on students' willingness to attend the lessons.

As for the time spent on the lab activities, during the pre-training period, it was revealed from the results that there was a remarkable difference between the two groups regarding the amount of time devoted to the lab activities. The control group spent much more time on the tasks and exercises as compared with the experimental group before the experimental group was trained in language learning strategies. In the post-training period, the results showed that even though no statistically significant difference occurred between the two groups after strategy training, the experimental group was able to catch up with the control group with respect to the amount of time spent on activities in the lab lessons. Furthermore, the results obtained from the analysis of the pre- and the post-training sessions related to the performance of the experimental group showed that the experimental group spent significantly more time on the tasks, activities and exercises in the lab lessons after the strategy training process. On the other hand, a significant decrease was observed in the amount of time spent on the lab activities by the control group. This decrease may be explained by a possible lack of motivation which may have resulted from the boredom the control group felt over the five-week period. It is also possible that the experimental group became more conscious and aware of the benefits of language learning strategies and tried to apply these strategies while studying in the lab lessons as much as possible. Accordingly, it is also possible that having learned how to deal with the lab activities after strategy training, the experimental group might have felt more motivated to spend more time on the CALL materials. However, another important point is that even though the experimental group started to spend

more time on the lab activities in the post-training period, they continued completing the same number of activities. This result may stem from the fact that students tried to apply the strategies in the lab lessons and spent more time dealing with the activities. Therefore, they may have proceeded more slowly and completed fewer activities than expected. Another explanation may be that the experimental group may have spent time on the review quizzes and pronunciation activities, which were not scored by the program. As for the performance of the control group in the posttraining period, even though they spent a little less time than they did in the pretraining period, they completed markedly fewer activities. Since the data collection process took five weeks, the control group may have lost their motivation to deal with the activities, not knowing what they were supposed to do in the lab lessons. Before the current study was carried out, according to the observations of the instructors, students had a tendency to deal with different activities such as doing grammar or vocabulary exercises from their workbooks or studying a dictionary rather than the lab materials. In the previous years, students mostly claimed that they did not know what they were supposed to do in the lab lessons because it was their responsibility to plan their own learning and decide how and in what order they would complete the activities and exercises. Teachers mostly acted as a guide rather than a conductor. Therefore, not knowing what to do, students usually preferred to do their assignments or extra grammar exercises instead of studying reading or listening texts on the computer.

It may also be argued that students' devoting more time to the lab activities may stem from the fact that they became more autonomous learners with the help of the explicit instruction of language learning strategies. Even though Holec (1980 as

cited in Benson, 2001) supports the idea that learner training should be conducted in a way that the learner discovers the knowledge and strategies to solve the problems he comes across by trial and error, the current study shows that explicit instruction in strategies can also enable learners to benefit from the CALL activities effectively. In addition, Oxford (1990) claims that language learning strategies enable students to be more self-directed. She also emphasizes the importance of self-direction by stating that "self-direction is particularly important for language learners, because they will not always have the teacher around to guide them" (p.10). From this statement, it is possible to conclude that learning strategies instruction can lead to self-direction and, accordingly, greater autonomy. As a result of the increased autonomy level, the students in the experimental group may have become more conscious and active in the language learning process.

Based on the results of data analysis related to the number of activities completed in the lab lessons, during the pre-training period, there was no difference between the experimental and the control groups before strategy training. However, a significant difference occurred between the experimental and the control groups after strategy training, even though there was no difference in the performance of the experimental group in the pre- and the post-training period. The observed difference between the experimental and control groups can be explained by a statistically significant decrease in the number of activities completed by the control group in the post-training period. These results suggest that strategy training did not have a significant impact on the number of activities completed by students in the lab lessons. However, it is possible that strategy training had a positive effect in maintaining students' motivation to continue doing the lab activities and exercises. It

is claimed that in some language learning studies, "strategy instruction led to increased motivation, strategy knowledge and positive attitudes" (Oxford, 2001, p. 170). In addition, Ze-sheng (2008) emphasizes the importance of motivation by stating that "students who think and work strategically are more motivated to learn and have a higher sense of self-efficacy or confidence in their own learning ability" (p.1).

With respect to the number of quizzes completed in the lab lessons, strategy training appeared to have a positive influence on the number of quizzes completed by the experimental group as compared with the control group. During the pretraining period, the control group completed significantly more quizzes than the experimental group. However, after the experimental group was trained in language learning strategies, they completed about the same number of quizzes as the control group. In the lab lessons, since students are responsible for the lab activities and the exercises to be done, it is their decision when to take these review quizzes. These quizzes are not regularly scheduled; therefore, students take the quizzes when they feel ready for them. Thus, when the significant difference between the two groups after training is taken into account, it can be concluded that strategy training seemed to affect the performance, the motivation and the confidence of the students positively in terms of the number of the quizzes completed in the lab lessons.

It is possible to explain the positive influence of strategy training on the overall changes in the students' behaviors with the possible increase in learner autonomy with the help of technology and computer. As revealed in a study conducted by St Louis (2007), using computers in language learning helped students to develop learner autonomy and to raise their awareness of learning styles and strategies.

Accordingly, students could take control of their learning, realizing the strategies they used and participating in the activities which required them to make their own decisions.

Students' performance on quizzes

With respect to students' performance on quizzes, the effect of strategy training on the quiz scores received by students was investigated and the results revealed that the students who received strategy training scored higher than they did in the pretraining period on the quizzes completed in the lab lessons. This result may indicate that students became more capable of studying the language skills and accordingly, they became better at dealing with the questions in review quizzes. In addition, students may have applied all or some of these strategies, while completing the exercises and doing the lab activities. Accordingly, they were able to score higher in quizzes that included listening, reading, vocabulary and grammar questions. It is also possible to speculate that especially metacognitive strategies enabled students to be more autonomous learners, which is likely to promote students' learning and, correspondingly, improve their achievements in language learning. In the studies conducted by Huang (2003) and Namlu (2003), the results revealed that training students in language learning strategies enabled students to improve their learning and, in turn, it affected students' achievement in a positive way. Another conclusion which may be drawn is that since students spent more time on the CALL materials and completed more lab activities after strategy training, they received higher scores from the quizzes. In other words, the increase in their performance after strategy training may have resulted in higher achievement in review quizzes. In sum, either

directly or indirectly, strategy training appeared to have a significant impact on students' achievements in the quizzes included in the lab lessons.

Pedagogical Implications

This section discusses pedagogical implications for the use of CALL materials in the curriculum of preparatory schools. With the rapid developments in technology and innovations, CALL applications are becoming quite popular in the language teaching process. However, since these innovations require the emergence of new methods and approaches, language teachers may feel the necessity to help students to benefit from these computer-based materials as much as possible. Even though CALL applications and materials are considered to be very effective for successful language learning (Chang, 2007; Felix, 2008; Kenning & Kenning, 1983; Pennington, 1989, 1996), it should be borne in mind that making use of these materials can be very difficult and demanding for students who are used to a traditional way of language learning. Using CALL materials may require some time or a training session in order that students can adapt to this new way of learning in which they are expected to be much more responsible for their own learning.

This study revealed that teaching students both cognitive and metacognitive language strategies related to language skills and, accordingly, raising their awareness of their own way of learning and the ways for effective language learning may have a positive influence on their ability to benefit from CALL materials and on their performance in the lab lessons in some ways. Therefore, strategy training for effective use of CALL can be recommended as long as it is conducted in a systematic and planned way. Additionally, strategy training may be much more effective if it covers a longer period of time instead of two weeks. It should be a part

of the curriculum of the school in order to improve both students' performance in the lab lessons and their language learning skills. In other words, if the curriculum of the school where CALL materials are used is modified in such a way that carefully prepared strategy training is included in a planned way, students will be able to benefit from the strategies appropriately and make use of CALL materials effectively in the long run.

Provided that strategy training is included in the curriculum and students are taught cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies regularly and systematically, it is likely to promote autonomous learning. Griffiths (2004) supports this idea by stating that if strategies are taught to students in order that they can solve the problems they come across, they can be encouraged to take responsibility for their own learning. Hence, as well as benefiting from the lab lessons efficiently, students can become successful learners of the target language with the help of strategy training. In addition, it can be recommended that if students are to receive strategy training, it is necessary for teachers to be trained in how to train students in language learning strategies and how to make use of these strategies appropriately and effectively while learning a language.

In conclusion, with carefully planned and systematic strategy training, it is possible to encourage autonomous language learning and to improve students' motivation to engage in the activities which, in turn, may affect students' ability to benefit from CALL applications effectively. Furthermore, it is also beneficial to teach students language learning strategies for successful and efficient language learning in general.

Limitations

There are some limitations related to the current study. The major problem with this research was the duration of the strategy training process. Students were trained over a two-week period in both cognitive and metacognitive language learning strategies in order to improve their ability to benefit from the lab lessons at a maximum level. In the first week, students received training in reading and vocabulary learning strategies. In the second week, they were trained in listening and grammar strategies. In addition, some metacognitive strategies were taught to students. However, learning metacognitive strategies is a long-term process which requires a great deal of time for students to comprehend and apply these strategies appropriately. Therefore, if the duration of the strategy training period had been longer, it may have had a more remarkable impact on the performance and the proficiency level of the students in terms of making use of CALL material.

Secondly, the limited number of participants is another limitation of the study. There were only one experimental and one control group, with 38 students in total, which is not sufficient to draw concrete and accurate conclusions. With a larger group of participants, the results might have been more reliable and more generalizable. In addition, if more than one experimental and control groups had participated in the study, the conclusions could have been stronger and more reliable.

All the data of this study were gathered and analyzed through quantitative methods. Accordingly, the results of the study are restricted to quantitative methods only. As well as comparing the performance of students in the pre- and the post-training period, both students' and teachers' perceptions of strategy training could also have been documented by conducting interviews and questionnaires which

would have increased the reliability of the results and made it possible to explore the results more fully.

Lastly, the instructors who were responsible for conducting strategy training could have been trained in metacognitive strategies beforehand. Since cognitive strategies are quite common and well-known among teachers and educators, the two instructors who participated in the study did not have any difficulties in training students in these strategies. However, as for the metacognitive strategies, despite their effectiveness in autonomous language learning, they are not as common and well-known as cognitive strategies. Therefore, if the instructors had received indepth training in metacognitive strategies to raise their awareness of the benefits of these strategies, the strategy training process might have been more successful and easier for teachers to conduct.

Suggestions for Further Research

Keeping in mind the findings and the limitations of this study, some suggestions for further research can be made. To start with, the current study was based on observing and keeping records of what students had done in the lab lessons. In further research, interviews and questionnaires can be administered in order to discover students' attitudes towards strategy training, which might make it possible to explore whether strategy training has any effects on the language learning process rather than the lab lessons only. Furthermore, the same procedure can be followed to document teachers' perceptions of strategy training and its possible effects on the lab lessons.

Secondly, this study was conducted at Zonguldak Karaelmas University where Longman English Interactive Online is being used in the lab lessons. Another

study can be carried out in an institution in which different software or a web-based language learning program is used. Hence, it may be possible to reach different and interesting conclusions about the effect of strategy training on students' performance in a CALL environment.

The current study was carried out with the participation of only one level of students, intermediate. In further studies, students from different proficiency levels could be included in the research, which would enable researchers to discover to what extent strategy training can make a difference in the performances of students in the lab lessons regarding different proficiency levels. Additionally, it might be interesting to discover whether there are any notable differences in terms of how strategy training affects different levels of students.

Finally, this study aimed to investigate the effects of learner training on students' ability to benefit from CALL. Another study can be conducted to identify whether training students in cognitive or metacognitive learning strategies focusing on a specific language skill improves students' achievement in language learning. Furthermore, it is possible to conduct another study which aims at promoting learner autonomy through strategy training to discover to what extent students can become autonomous and self-directed and, in turn, to what extent they can be successful in the language learning process.

Conclusion

The current study has provided some information about the role of strategy training on the effectiveness of CALL. It has revealed that training students in language learning strategies appears to have an effect on their ability to benefit from

CALL materials in the lab lessons. More importantly, given the fact that very little research has been done regarding the relationship between strategy training and the use of CALL, this study has contributed to the relevant literature.

The results showed that strategy training did not make a significant difference on students' motivation to attend the lab lessons. On the other hand, a positive influence was seen on students' engagement in the CALL materials, the number of lab activities and the number of quizzes completed, and their achievement on review quizzes. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that strategy training improves students' performance and ability to benefit from CALL activities to some extent. Therefore, it is possible to recommend that carefully prepared and systematic strategy training can be incorporated into a curriculum that also includes CALL materials.

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APPENDIX A: STRATEGY TRAINING ACTIVITIES

MATERIALS FOR LISTENING

• Listen to the recording and fill in the blanks in the text below.

Now, the VOA Special English program **WORDS AND THEIR STORIES**. Today we explain more proverbs. A proverb is a short, well-known saying that a common truth or belief. Proverbs are popular around the world. Many proverbs give about how to live. Some proverbs are hundreds of years old, but they are still used today. For example, my son is just like his father in many ways. We often say the two of them prove the proverb that the apple does not far from the tree. My daughter is very short. She would like to be taller. But I tell her that **good things come in small packages**. The size of something is not always important. Some valuable things are very small, like and other jewels. But I also tell my children that **all that glitters is not gold**. Do not be fooled by appearances. Something may look valuable, but may not really be valuable. Also, I tell them **do not judge a book by its** You should not judge something only by its appearance. Another proverb is, **do not bite off more than you can chew**. This means do not try to do more than you are able to do. Some times I tell my children to to solve a problem. After all, **two heads** are better than one. Two people working together can get better results. But another proverb says **too many cooks spoil the broth.** If too many people try to do something, then the job will not be done well. I also tell my children that **two wrongs do not make a right.** You should not do something bad just because someone did the same to you. Some people are: they always think about how bad things are or will be. Other people are optimists: they always look on the bright side. They think things will be all right. Optimists might say that **every cloud has a silver lining**. They can find something good even in a bad situation. Other people are both pessimists and optimists. They hope for the best and prepare for the Some people often worry about what they will do in a situation that might happen in the future. We could tell them do not cross that until you come to it. It is usually much better to a problem from happening than it is to find ways to solve it. So we say an ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure. Finally, I always liked this proverb: You can catch more flies with honey than with vinegar. Honey is sweet while vinegar is not. In other words, you can win people to your side more easily with persuasion than by hostile actions.

MATERIALS FOR READING

• Before you read the text, try to fill in the first two columns of the KWL chart. After reading the text, fill in the last column in the chart by writing what you have learned from the text.

Reading Passage

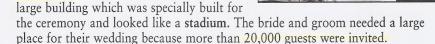


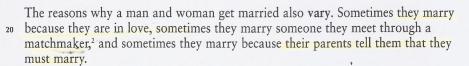
Track 7

Every culture in the world has marriage and wedding ceremonies. Usually marriages are between one woman (the bride) and one man (the groom). However, in other parts of the world a man may have several wives, or, as in some areas of Tibet and India, a wife may have more than one husband.

5 There are also many different kinds of wedding ceremonies practiced around the world. These ceremonies can be very short and simple, or very long and complicated.

One of the largest and most expensive wedding ceremonies in recent times was held in Dubai in 1981. The couple tying the knot at this wedding were the son of Sheik¹ Rashid Bin Saeed Al Maktoum and Princess Salama. The wedding ceremony took seven days and cost \$44 million. It was held in a





One unusual example of an arranged marriage took place in Bangladesh in 1986.

The groom was an eleven-month-old boy and the bride was a three-month-old
girl. They were the youngest married couple ever.

The parents of the bride and groom arranged the marriage as a way of ending a fight between the two families who had been arguing over a farm for twenty years. Both families thought that they owned the farm, but no one knew exactly. The fight ended for good when the young boy married the young girl. By arranging this marriage, neither family was forced to lose face. The two families agreed to give the farm to the young couple.



Did You Know?

In 1921, an American couple, Joe and Annie Henry, got married. They were still married eighty years later, making them the world's longestmarried couple. They have over a hundred children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren.

^{&#}x27;Sheik a male Arab ruler

² matchmaker a person who introduces single men and women to each other

Subject:

K What I <i>Know</i>	W What I <i>Will / Want</i> To Learn	L What I Have <i>Learned</i>

Classified Ads

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T.

Ray or Lenny 575-4980

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Call Jan, 875-908 or fax 875-9080.

nents.

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How many can you answer in 2 minutes? Write *T* if the sentence is true; write *F* if the sentence is false and correct it.

- Tip Top Roofing only builds new roofs.
- The number for Mary's Maids Cleaning Service is 896-4089.
- Jay, the carpenter, has a year of experience doing carpentry.
- Pat's Appliance Repair fixes appliances and TVs.
- Ken's Gardening Company is only 5 years old.
- John, the electrician, is licensed.
 - 7. Mary's Maids, the housecleaners, can give references.
- 8. Ray, the plumber, is open all day and night.
- Vic, the cleaner, only cleans businesses.
- ___ 10. You can call Jan, the roofer, at 875-9078.
- ____ 11. Pat, the appliance repairperson, can fix a refrigerator.
- 12. Pat, the appliance repairperson, will come to your house.
- 13. ABC Electric only repairs lights.
- 14. If you need to know how much something will probably cost, Ray, the plumber can tell you over the phone.



Look at the title and the pictures. What do you think this reading will be about? Check $(\sqrt{})$ your answer.

Good Names Around the World

___ The Most Popular Names Around the World

Raising Healthy Babies Around the World

How Different Cultures Choose Names

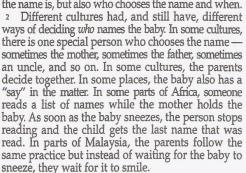
Skim the reading. That is, read the first paragraph. Then, read the first line of each paragraph. Read the last paragraph. Was your guess right?



READING 11.3

Naming Names Around the World

Shakespeare, one of the most famous British authors, wrote "What's in a name? That which we call a rose by any other name would smell as sweet." By writing this, he was saying that a name isn't important. If we called a rose a different name, it wouldn't matter; it would still smell sweet. To William Shakespeare, a name wasn't important. However, to most parents of newborn babies, it's extremely important — not only what the name is, but also who chooses the name and when.



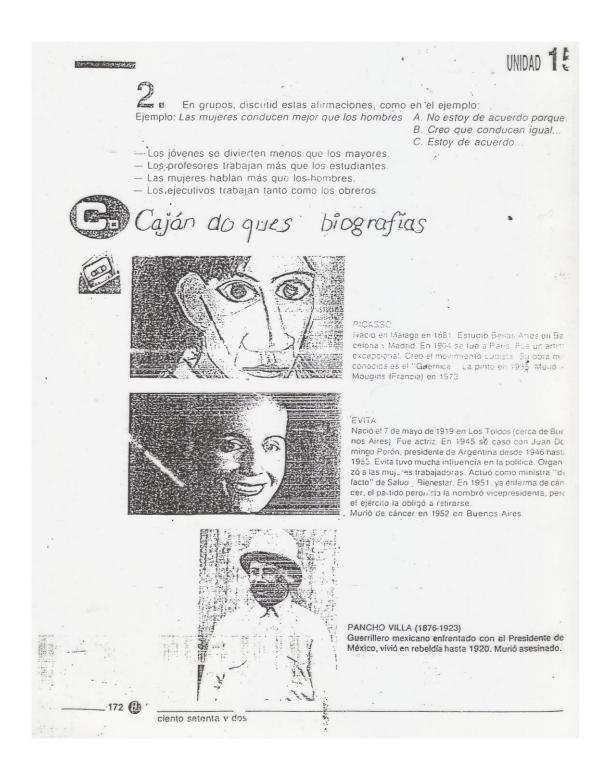
3 Different cultures also had, and still have, different ways of deciding what to name the baby. In some cultures, babies get a name describing their position in the family. In ancient Rome, for example, children had names like Quintus (fifth) or Octavia (eighth). In some cultures, parents name their babies for qualities they want them to have; for example, some American girls have the names Joy and Grace and some Mexican girls have the name Esperanza, which means "hope" in Spanish. In some cultures, babies' names come from

Spanish. In some cultures, babies' names come from religious books. In still other cultures, babies are named after relatives (dead or alive) or famous people.

⁴ Different cultures also had, and still have, different ways of deciding *when* to name a baby. In Bali, babies do not receive their official name until they are 110 days old. Until then, they only have nicknames. On the 110th day, there is a naming ceremony. Among some American Indian tribes, babies receive one name at birth, another at puberty, another when they do something noteworthy, and a final name when they retire in their old age.

⁵ Perhaps "a rose by any other name would smell as sweet," but try telling that to a new parent!!!

• The texts below are Spanish. Try to understand the texts by guessing the meaning of words and using the clues.



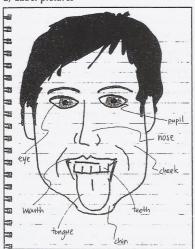
Vocabulary Learning Tips

The one best thing you can do to improve your English is to increase your vocabulary. Here are some suggestions:

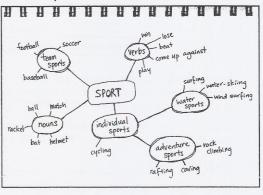
Keep a Vocabulary Notebook

Buy a notebook and write down new words and idioms that you want to remember. There are different ways of organizing your notebook. Here are some suggestions:

a) Label pictures



b) Word maps



c) List words with definitions and examples

vbrd/ldiem	Definition (or picture)	Example
Collar (n)	THE WAR	• The shirt has a wide collar. • The dog is wearing a collar.
copy (v)	make something look or sound like another thing	You shouldn't cop someone else's answers on a test
cage (n)		* The tiger is kept in a cage at the zoo.
cclebrate (v)	do semething special for a hoppy day or event	· New Year's Day i celebrated on January 15th in Ann
coma true (v)	really happen	My dream came

d) Note words that go together—collocations

take go on need have		long two-week short summer school	vacation	next week in Italy with my family by myself
announce attend cancel hold organize	a(n)	exciting (in) formal important historic Shocking umique	event	lock place occurred happened

Use Flashcards

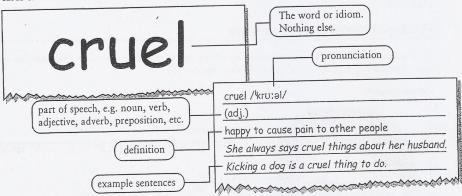
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Flashcards are a great way to learn new vocabulary. Make them on thick paper by cutting the paper into cards of the same size. Here is an example of a flashcard:



Your flashcards might look the same as this, or they might have more information. Other things you can write on the back of your flashcards are: pictures, translations in your own language, opposites, words that mean the same, and memory aids (see Other Tips).

Remember: Carry your flashcards around with you and when you have free time, look at them and test yourself. You can use them alone, or with a friend. Exchange flashcards with a friend and test each other!

Other Tips

Read, read One of the best ways to enlarge your English vocabulary is to read for fun. Read (easy) magazines and books in English outside class. The best place to start is with Graded Readers. Ask your teacher for some suggestions.

Use an English/English dictionary To learn more about new words in your notebook, use a dictionary. Try to find an English/English dictionary that's written for learners. One example is *Heinle's Basic Newbury House Dictionary of American English*. In addition to the meaning of the word, a good dictionary for learners should show you other information such as the pronunciation, the part of speech, and example sentences.

Keep a list of prefixes and suffixes In your notebook, keep lists of prefixes and suffixes and their meanings (see page 19). Make lists of words that contain the same prefix or suffix.

Label things Put small signs or labels on common, everyday things around your home.

Use memory aids A memory aid (also called a *mnemonic*) is a way of remembering a word by making a connection in your brain. For example, if you want to learn the idiom *keep an eye on someone*, meaning "to watch someone carefully," you might picture someone holding *an eye* and putting it on someone's shoulder, so they can watch them carefully. The stranger the picture is, the more you will remember it!

Another memory aid is to find a word in your own language that sounds like the new English word and make a connection. For example: a Japanese student learning the English word *knee*, meaning *the joint in your leg*, might think that *knee* sounds like the Japanese word *ni*, meaning *two*. She could then picture someone with *two large knees*. Remember to make the picture unusual to make it easier to remember. Picture two really, really big knees! Try to find English words that sound like words in your own language.

Guessing Vocabulary in Context 1

Learning how to guess words you don't know is an important skill. Nobody wants to look every word up in a dictionary! If you learn how to guess the unfamiliar words in sentences, then you won't have to read with your dictionary open all the time! We use the words in a CONTEXT. The context of a word is the words and sentences before and after it. These words help you guess a word's meaning. For example, you can guess whether the unknown word is an object, place, or person. You can also guess whether the meaning of the word is positive or negative. Another tip to deal with new words is to decide what kind of a word it is: a verb, a noun, an adverb or an adjective.

HOW TO GUESS WORDS IN CONTEXT Example sentence: The snake **slithered** through the grass. He was hunting. You must discover what slithered means by using logic. Here are your choices, and the analysis: A) stopped moving INCORRECT: the sentence above says THROUGH the grass. 'Through' means there is some movement. B) slept in the grass INCORRECT: the sentence above says he is hunting. Snakes don't sleep when they hunt. C) ate something INCORRECT: the sentence above says he is hunting. Snakes don't eat when they are hunting. They eat AFTER they hunt. D) moved or traveled CORRECT ANSWER: the sentence above says THROUGH the grass. 'Through' means that there is movement. READ the sentence, CHOOSE the answer! 1) You can hear the tiger's **roar** from the villages far away. What does **roar** probably mean? A) food a tiger eats B) a tiger's dream C) a tiger's ear D) a sound a tiger makes

2) The thought of eating a rat is **abhorrent** to most people.

What does <u>abhorrent</u> probably mean?						
0	A) run, nvery					
0	B) horrible, repugnant					
0	C) delicious, tasty					
0	D) sweet, sugary					
-	b) My <u>absent-minded</u> teacher loses his keys, his book and his chalk almost every day!					
	nat does it mean to be absent-minded ?					
0	A) be hateful					
0	B) not pay attention					
0	C) be intelligent					
0	D) not like someone					
4) You can trust the salesmen at that store because they always conduct business in an aboveboard manner.						
Wh	nat does aboveboard probably mean?					
0	A) honestly, openly					
0	B) sneaky, dishonest					
0	C) horrible, repugnant					
0	D) strange, unusual					
5) l	Petra has so many friends because she is a gregarious person.					
What does gregarious probably mean?						
0	A) introverted, unsociable					
0	B) shy, quiet					
0	C) friendly, outgoing					
0	D) rude, hostile					

SUCCESS (PRE-INTERMEDIATE) STUDENTS' BOOK UNIT 10

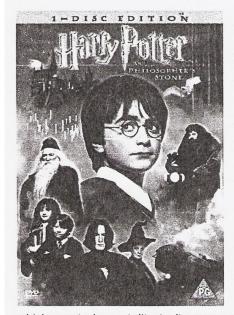
PROBLEM: Passive voice is introduced in this unit, but the grammar point and the theme do not match smoothly.

ADD: before we start the unit

Activity 1:

A) How much do you know about Harry Potter books and movies? Write TRUE or FALSE.

- 1. J. K. Rowling has written the Harry Potter books.
- 2. Disney Studios made the first movie.
- 3. Rupert Grint plays Harry Potter's part.
- 4. Harry Potter is a young wizard.
- 5. Voldemort who is an evil wizard killed Harry's parents.
- 6. The media praised the books and movies irresponsibly.
- B) Now read the text and check your answers.



Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's/Philosopher's Stone is the first film in the Harry Potter series. All films are based on the novels by J. K. Rowling. The first Harry Potter book was published in 1997. When Warner Brothers decided to make the movies, 16000 teenagers were invited to the audition for Harry Potter's part. Daniel Radcliffe was chosen to play this part in the end. The film was shot in 2000. The film was directed by Chris Columbus and was released in 2001.

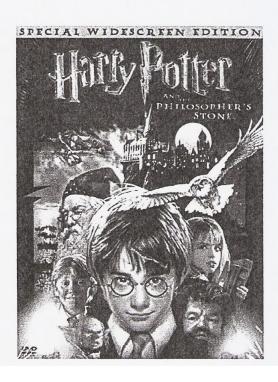
In the story, Harry Potter is an 11-year-old boy who discovers on his eleventh birthday that he is a wizard. He is sent to Hogwarts School of Witchcraft and Wizardry to begin his magical education. At the school, he learns that his parents were wizards and were killed by an evil wizard Voldemort. He makes two very good friends, Ron Weasley and Hermione Granger. They soon learn that something very valuable is hidden somewhere inside the school. Voldemort has survived and is hiding. He wants to regain his power and strength. He wants the philosopher's stone

which grants immortality to its owner. The stone is hidden in a protected chamber at Hogwarts. Harry and his friends discover his plans and try to prevent the theft of the stone.

Some people claim that Harry Potter movies set a bad example for children because they have elements which are against the Christian belief. People claim that paganism and Satanism are promoted by the Harry Potter books. They have a serious tone of death, hate, lack of respect and sheer evil. In one online survey the question was asked "Do you think the media responsibly reported the Harry Potter story?" 68% of the participants said "No!" Because of the positive remarks in the media, these books have been sold over 300 million.

Some people disagree with this viewpoint. They claim that these books get children to read. Furthermore, they have good values in them like the unconditional love of Harry's parents, the friendship and integrity of Harry and his friends, and how the good beats the evil.

- C) Read the passage again. Find sentences which mean:
- 1) They published the first Harry Potter book in 1997.
- 2) They invited 16000 teenagers to the audition for Harry Potter's part
- 3) They chose Daniel Radcliffe to play this part in the end.
- 4) They shot the film in 2000.
- 5) Chris Columbus directed the film.
- 6) They released the film in 2001.
- 7) They have sold these books over 300 million.
- 8) People claim that the Harry Potter books promote paganism and Satanism.



APPENDIX B: METACOGNITIVE AWARENESS QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH VERSION)

Metacognitive Awareness Questionnaire

- 1. Before I start a task, I think about what kind of strategies I can use. (planning)
- 2. Before I start an English test, I try to see which parts will be easy and what parts will be difficult. (assessing the situation)
- 3. When I begin studying English, I plan what I'm going to do so I can use my time well. (planning&organizing)
- 4. I think about how I learn languages best. (self-testing)
- 5. Before I hand in my English test, I check my work. (self-evaluation)
- 6. I try to understand the purpose of activities in my English class. (identifying the purpose)
- 7. I test my knowledge of English grammar rules by applying them to new situations.(self-testing)
- 8. I test my knowledge of new English words by using them in new situations.(self-testing)
- 9. I set goals for myself in language learning. (planning/setting objectives)
- 10. I think about whether I'm making progress in learning English. (self-evaluation)
- 11. When I'm taking an English test, I know how much time has gone by. (planning)
- 12. I try to learn from the mistakes I make in English. (self-evaluating)

- 13. After I have taken a test in English, I think about how I can do better the next time. (self-testing)
- 14. When I speak English, I know when I make grammar mistakes. (monitoring)
- 15. Before I begin an English assignment, I think about whether I know enough English to do it. (assessing the situation)
- 16. Before I begin an English test, I decide how important it is for me to get a good grade on the test. (assessing the situation)
- 17. I try to find out all I can about language learning by reading books or articles. (self-testing)
- 18. When I have learned a new English grammar rule, I test myself to make sure I know how to use it. (self-testing)
- 19. After I learn something in English, I test myself to make sure I have really learned it. (self-testing)
- 20. I know what helps me to remember new words in English. (planning&organizing)
- 21. After I finish a conversation in English, I think about how I could say things better. (self-evaluating)
- 22. Before I begin an English assignment, I make sure I have a dictionary or other sources. (self-evaluating)
- 23. Before I write a composition in English, I plan my work. (self-evaluating)

- 24. When I'm taking an English class, I think about my final goals. (planning/setting objectives)
- 25. I think of the relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English. (remembering more effectively)
- 26. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them. (remembering more effectively)
- 27. I review English lessons before I go to class. (remembering more effectively)
- 28. I try to find as many ways as I can do to use my English. (organizing&evaluating)
- 29. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better. (organizing & evaluating)
- 30. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English. (organizing & evaluating/finding out about language learning)
- 31. I plan my schedule so I have enough time to study English. (organizing & evaluating)
- 32. I have clear goals for improving my English skills. (organizing & evaluating)
- 33. I think about my progress in learning English. (organizing & evaluating)
- 34. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English. (organizing/seeking practice opportunities)

APPENDIX C: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH VERSION)

Öğrenme Stratejileri Anketi

• Aşağıdaki maddeleri okuyarak sizin için en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyin.

	0 = asla $1 = nadiren$ $2 =$	$= bazen 3 = sik \ sik$	4 = her zaman
1. Bir aktivetey (0 1 2 3	e başlamadan önce, ne çeşi 3 4)	t stratejiler kullanabi	leceğimi düşünürüm.
2. Bir İngilizce olacak anlamay (0 1 2 3		angi bölümler kolay,	, hangi bölümler zor
3. İngilizce çalı kullanabilirim. (0 1 2 3	şmaya başladığımda, ne ya	pacağımı planlarım,	böylece zamanımı iyi
4. Dilleri en iyi (0 1 2 3	nasıl öğrenebileceğim hakl 4)	kında düşünürüm.	
5. İngilizce sına (0 1 2 3	avımı teslim etmeden önce,	yaptığım işi kontrol	ederim.
6. İngilizce ders	slerindeki aktivitelerin ama 4)	çlarını anlamaya çalı	ışırım.
7. İngilizce gran uygulayarak tes (0 1 2 3		ıralları yeni ve farklı	durumlara
8.Yeni öğrendiğ test ederim. (0 1 2 3	ğim İngilizce kelimeleri, on	ıları yeni ve farklı du	rumlarda kullanarak
9. Dil öğrenirke (0 1 2 3	en kendime amaçlar belirler (4)	rim.	
10. İngilizce öğ	renirken, ilerleme kaydedip 3 4)	o kaydetmediğim kor	nusunda düşünürüm.
11. İngilizce sır bilirim.	navı esnasında ne kadar vak	tin geçtiğini, ne kada	ar vaktimin kaldığını

$(0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4)$
12. İngilizcede yaptığım hatalardan birşeyler öğrenmeye çalışırım. (0 1 2 3 4)
13. Bir İngilizce sınavına girdikten sonra, bir dahaki sefere nasıl daha iyi yapabileceğimi düşünürüm. (0 1 2 3 4)
14. İngilizce konuşurken, hata yaptığım zaman anlarım. (0 1 2 3 4)
15. İngilizce bir ödeve başlamadan önce, bu işi yapmak için yeterli İngilizce bilip bilmediğim hakkında düşünürüm. (0 1 2 3 4)
16. Bir İngilizce sınavına başlamadan önc, bu sınavdan iyi bir not almanın benim için ne derece önemli olduğuna karar veririm. (0 1 2 3 4)
17. Kitap ve makale okuyarak, dil öğrenmeyle ilgili olan herşeyi öğrenmeye çalışırım. (0 1 2 3 4)
18. Yeni bir İngilizce gramer kuralı öğrendiğimde, o kuralı nasıl kullanacağımı bilip bilmediğimden emin olmak için kendimi test ederim. (0 1 2 3 4)
19. İngilizce yeni bir şey öğrendikten sonra, onu gerçekten öğrenip öğrenmediğimden emin olmak için kendimi test ederim. (0 1 2 3 4)
20. İngilizcede yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hatırlamama neyin yardımcı olduğunu bilirim. (0 1 2 3 4)
21. İngilizce bir konuşmayı bitirdikten sonra, bazı şeyleri nasıl daha iyi söyleyebileceğim konusunda düşünürüm. (0 1 2 3 4)
22. Bir İngilizce ödevine başlamadan önce sözlüğümün ya da diğer kaynaklarımın olduğundan emin olurum.
$(0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4)$
23. İngilizce kompozisyon yazmaya başlamadan önce çalışmamı planlarım. (0 1 2 3 4)

APPENDIX D: METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES HANDOUT

Metacognitive Strategies Handout

- · Avoid heavy reliance on a dictionary.
- · Be assertive. Make and take opportunities to use the language in natural communication both inside and outside of class.
- · Compensate for your lack of linguistic ability by:
 - occasionally using your mother tongue
 - asking for help (repeat, clarify, slow down, give examples)
 - using mime and gesture
 - describing the concept for which you lack a word
 - using hesitation fillers when you need time to think
- · Don't be afraid to make mistakes.
- · Evaluate your own progress.
- · Forget about your age or aptitude when learning a foreign language.
- · Guess when in doubt.
- · Hypothesize. Before you read a grammar rule, try to formulate it yourself by analyzing the examples.
- · If you don't understand, say so.
- · Just be persistent.
- · Keep a language diary.
- · Limit your expectations to those that are reasonable and attainable.
- · Be patient.
- · Memorize creatively using images, rhymes, sounds, etc.
- · Negotiate with your teacher when you want errors corrected.
- · Open your mind and develop a better attitude toward the native speakers and their culture.
- · Praise yourself in writing.
- · Quit making excuses. If you are not making improvements in the foreign language, before you blame your teacher or textbook,

ask yourself if you are using the strategies of a good language learner.

- · Relax before you go to class and before doing homework assignments.
- · Study with a partner.
- · Try not to translate in your head. Instead, try to speak spontaneously.
- · Use this checklist, and refer to it periodically.
- · Record new vocabulary and grammar rules in a notebook, and do it systematically.
- · Wear your successes and reward them.
- · Examine your own language learning strategies, problems, successes, and preferences, and talk about them with other students. Also, learn from the successes of your classmates.
- · Yesterday's and before-yesterday's material should be reviewed systematically.
- · Zzzzz.... Wake up. Don't "sleep" in class. Perform every class activity.

APPENDIX E: LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES CHECKLIST

Lab derslerinde dinleme aktivitelerini yapar	ken,
Dinlemeye başlamadan önce soruları ok	uyup, benden ne istendiğini belirledim.
Önce bir kez dinleyip parça hakkında ge	enel bir fikir edindim.
Dinleme parçasının başlığına ya da ilgil üzerine tahmin yürüttüm.	i resimlere bakarak ne hakkında olabileceği
Parçayı dinlerken, önemli olduğunu düş	ündüğüm yerleri not aldım.
 Parçadaki her şeyi anlamaya çalışmak y kısımlara odaklandım. 	erine, sadece gerekli olduğunu düşündüğüm
Lab derslerindeki aktivitelerde yeni bir kelimeyl	e karşılaştığımda,
 Hemen sözlüğe bakmak yerine, kelimen etmeye çalıştım 	in geçtiği cümleye bakarak anlamını tahmin
 Kelimenin anlamını sözlükten kontrol ek kelime defterine yazdım. 	dip, eş anlam ve zıt anlamlısını bulup
Kelimenin İngilizce açıklamasını kelime	e defterine yazdım.
 Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeyi cümle içinde yazdım. 	kullanıp, bu cümleyi kelime defterine
Lab derslerinde gramer aktivitelerini yaparken,	
Örnek cümlelere bakarak kuralları kend	im keşfetmeye çalıştım.
 Farklı cümlelerdeki benzerlikleri buldur kuralını kendim keşfetmeye çalıştım. 	n ve bu benzerliklerden yola çıkarak gramer
 Gramer kuralını öğrendikten sonra, bu k tam olarak öğrenip öğrenmediğimi test e 	ruralı yeni ve farklı durumlara uygulayarak, ettim.
Lab derslerindeki aktiviteleri/alıştırmaları yapar	ken,
Öncelikle, yapacağım aktivitenin amacı	nı anlamaya çalıştım.
 Yaptığım hataları not alıp, bu hatalardar 	n bir şeyler öğrenmeye çalıştım.
Soruları cevapladıktan sonra tüm cevapl	<u> </u>
Lab derslerinde içinde okuma parçaları olan aktı	
 Okuma parçası hakkında genel bir bilgi kullanılan resimlerden yararlandım. 	edinmek için parçanın başlığından ve
 Parçada bilmediğim bir kelimeyle karşıl kelimenin anlamını parçaya bakarak tah 	, , , , ,
 Parçayı hemen okumak yerine önce akti gerektiğine karar verdim. 	vitenin amacını belirleyip ne yapmam
 Okuma parçasını anlamama ve soruları seçip gereksiz olan detayları eledim. 	cevaplamama yardımcı olan alakalı bilgileri
Soruları hemen cevaplamaya başlamak denedim.	yerine önce onları tam olarak anlamayı
Okuma parçasındaki önemli noktaları be	elirlemeye çalıştım.
 Parçanın genel olarak ne hakkında olduş kullandım. 	ğunu anlamak için "skimming" tekniğini
 Parçadaki soruları cevaplarken "scannin bilgiler üzerinde durdum. 	g" tekniğini kullanarak sadece gerekli