

T.C.
GAZİ UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING



PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY THROUGH ACTIVITES AT
GAZİ UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOL

MA THESIS

By
Cem BALÇIKANLI

Ankara-2006

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Supervisor
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Cem Balçıkanlı'nın "Gazi Üniversitesi Hazırlık Okulu'nda aktiviteler yoluyla Öğrenen Özerkliği'ni arttırmak" başlıklı tezi 25.12.2016 tarihinde, jürimiz tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ABSTRACT

PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY THROUGH ACTIVITES AT GAZI UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOL

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The aim of this study is to promote learner autonomy through the activities to be exploited at Gazi University, Preparatory School. Since the prep school education is vital for the learners who have just commenced their education in terms of acquiring several aspects which will aid them in their future education, this study focused on this point.

In order to reach this aim, two classes, the former of which was the experimental group and the latter of which was the control group, were appointed randomly. They were the learners studying English from various faculties at Gazi University. Prior to the implementation phase, Learner Autonomy Questionnaire, consisting of three parts a background questionnaire, LAQ 1 and LAQ 2, was administered to the learners in both groups so as to reveal how much autonomy each group possessed

Whereas the experimental group was instructed with the autonomy implementation, the control group continued their education with no change. After the 12-week implementation stage, the same questionnaire was administered to both groups one more time. The results from both groups were gathered and analyzed by the use of student t-test and paired sample t-test so as to reveal whether any change would exist between the groups.

At the end of this process, the statistics results were commented on. The results display that the learners in the experimental group scored higher than those in the control group, and showed more autonomy than the control group with a few exceptions. Moreover, the results from the experimental group were compared with those from the control group item by item. Total results were statistically shown in the tables.

In the following chapter of the study, the conclusion and summary of the study was made with pedagogical implications and suggestions for further studies included.

ÖZET

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ HAZIRLIK OKULU'NDA AKTİVİTELER YOLUYLA ÖĞRENEN ÖZERKLİĞİNİ ARTTIRMAK

Balçıkanlı, Cem

Yüksek Lisans, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı

Tez Danışmanı : Yrd. Doç. Dr. İskender Hakkı SARIGÖZ

Aralık-2006

Bu çalışmanın amacı çeşitli aktiviteler uygulanarak Gazi Üniversitesi Hazırlık öğrencilerinde öğrenen özerkliğini arttırmaktır. Hazırlık Eğitimi, akademik eğitimlerine henüz başlayan öğrencilere gelecek eğitim hayatlarında yardımcı olabilecek bir çok önemli noktayı kavrayabilmeleri açısından çok önemlidir.

Bu amaca ulaşmak için biri deney öteki kontrol grubu olan iki sınıf rastgele seçilmiştir. Deney ve Kontrol Grubu, Gazi Üniversitesi'nin çeşitli fakültelerinde okuyan ve bir yıllık hazırlık eğitimi alan öğrencilerden oluşmaktadır. Uygulamaya başlamadan önce, kişisel bilgiler, öğrenen özerkliği anketi 1, öğrenen özerkliği anketi 2'den oluşan üç bölümlü anket öğrencilerin ne kadar özerkliğe sahip olduğunu ortaya koymak amacıyla öğrencilere verilmiştir.

Deney grubuna özerklik uygulamasıyla eğitim verilirken, kontrol grubu değişiklik olmaksızın eğitimine devam etmiştir. 12 haftalık uygulamadan sonra, aynı anket öğrencilere bir kez daha verilmiştir. Her iki gruptan elde edilen sonuçlar, gruplar arasında bir farklılığın olup olmadığını göstermek amacıyla çiftli örnek t testi ve öğrenci t testi kullanılarak incelenmiştir.

Bu aşamanın sonunda, istatistiksel sonuçlar üzerine tartışmalar yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, deney grubundaki öğrencilerin kontrol grubundakilerden birkaç istisna dışında daha yüksek puanlar aldığını ve kontrol grubundan çok daha fazla bir özerklik durumuna sahip olduğunu göstermektedir. Dahası, deney grubundan elde edilen

sonular, kontrol grubundan elde edilen sonularla madde madde tartıřılıp yorumları yapılmıřtır. Toplam sonular tablolar halinde gsterilmiřtir.

alıřmanın son blmnde de, alıřmanın sonucu ve zeti, ıkarımlar ve gelecekteki alıřmalar iin neriler bařlıėı altında verilmiřtir.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.0. Presentation

In this chapter, the background to the study, the problem, the aim and scope of the study, the method and the assumptions of the study will be presented.

1.1. Background to the Study

Give a man a fish and he eats for a day.

Teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime.

A Chinese Proverb

When human beings are born, they need to be catered by their parents closely since they need attention and affection. But, this does not take a long time. As time passes, this need diminishes as a consequence of human nature. Time comes when they have to survive alone in the life, as the proverb points out. We, human beings, have the capacity to take control of our own learning in our daily life (Thomson, 1996). As young children, we take control over the learning of our mother tongue, but as learning becomes more complex and is channeled through the institution of the school, we appear to give up much of our autonomy. When we learn foreign languages as teenagers or adults, we seem to find self-directed learning difficult and even show a preference for direction by teacher and learning materials (Benson, 2001). In this point, the term autonomy comes to fore seeing that many researchers on autonomy would argue, however, that the learning tasks prescribed by modern education systems require a higher degree of autonomy that must be acquired in the course of institutionalized learning. Owing to the fact that a large number of people experience the process of learning a foreign language, becoming an effective

language learner is demanding and challenging. It takes a lot of time and effort to acquire in a difficult and challenging path, which is called “language learning”. In order to achieve language learning, one bear in mind that there are a great number of features a learner ought to perform and own. In the context of education, learning is defined as “the permanent change into the behavior through practice and repetition.” It is obvious from this definition that a language learner should do more practice and repetition so as to become proficient enough in this path. It may be inferred that this can occur with both the guidance of the teacher and without the teacher. In this respect, learning can happen at any time with the guidance of the teacher. It does not mean that the learner can do that on his own. Learner autonomy, therefore, deals with the responsibility the learner has to take to fulfill this difficult task. Learner autonomy is the commitment learners ought to take for their own learning, rather than be dependent on the teacher. In addition to that, Holec (1981) defines this term as “the ability to take charge of one’s learning”. It should be noted that there are lots of strategies and ways for the learners to follow and perform so as to become more autonomous learners, which is the last destination where each learner can reach in this journey.

There have been several studies on Learner Autonomy up till now from various perspectives in Turkey. Among theses studies are, “The Effects of Direct Formative Testing on Learner Performance and the Development of Learner Autonomy” (Kucuroğlu, 1997), “Learner Autonomy: A profile of teacher trainees in pre-service teacher education” (Sancar, 2001), “A study on learners’ readiness for autonomous learning of English as a foreign language” (Koçak, 2003), “A Survey on Learner Autonomy and Motivation in ESP in a Turkish Context” (Tayar, 2003) , “The impact of the European language portfolio on the learner autonomy of Turkish primary school students” (Egel, 2003), “ELT student's perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners and future teachers” (Yıldırım, 2005), “The role of metacognitive strategies in promoting learner autonomy: A case study at the ELT Department, Gazi University” (Şahin, 2005). “State-supported provincial university English language instructors’ attitudes towards learner autonomy” (Özdere, 2005). Nonetheless, the study with the aim of fostering autonomy through

the activities in the foreign language learning/teaching should be studied in Turkey. This study will shed light on the promotion of learner autonomy through the activities and implementation to develop the sense of autonomy on the learners.

1.2. Problem

It is a fact that adults do not know how to diagnose their own needs for learning, formulate their own learning objectives, identify learning resources and planning strategies for taking the initiative in using those resources, assess their own learning, and have their assessments validated. It is likely to allege that the learners aiming to learn a foreign language face lots of problems when trying to become competent enough in this process in order that they may acquire the target language in terms of several aspects. It is recognized that students arrive at university with different experiential backgrounds and learning achievements, but we know little about students' autonomous dispositions at entry therefore the extent to which higher education develops or constrains autonomy in learning. These problems may stem from various external factors which can be classified as the learners themselves or the teachers who perform the teaching process and so on. It is obvious that the learners somehow are not able to perform the learning process due to how to achieve this on their own, which requires some guidance and assistance. In spite of the fact that they are quite motivated to learn a new language, they may be distracted with the drawbacks of the way they can best study. Learner autonomy means taking responsibility for someone's own learning, which signifies that the learners study on their own in a very effective way. In this respect, the aim of this study is to promote learner autonomy for the EFL learners by encouraging them to take the responsibility for their own learning within the factors such as teacher, learner, classroom, activities, syllabus, and materials.

This study will raise awareness on the role of autonomous learning through activities and implementation. What is more, several key elements will be provided in terms of the promotion of autonomy in the foreign language classrooms. Finally,

this study will contribute the neglected part of promoting autonomy and offer some activities in accordance with that aim.

1.3. Aim and Scope of the Study

It aims to help the learners at Gazi University Prep School become more autonomous to take control of their own learning process, which is a demanding and long-lasting task. It is by all odds that learner autonomy is the last destination where each individual learner can drop in. As a result, the learners who want to learn English at the first year of their education will be encouraged to take control their own learning so as to be aware of how, what and why they are learning. This enables them how to learn more effectively if they are following the main cornerstones of learner autonomy.

This study is concerned with Learner Autonomy and its application to the Prep School through activities by the researcher. Students attending the Research and Application Center for Instruction of Foreign Languages at the level C will be the subject of this study. Data will be gathered using a questionnaire developed by the researcher and Demirel (2002). The instruments will be administered to two classes of 21 and 20 learners studying at the Preparatory School.

1.4. Method

Firstly, the literature related to learner autonomy, learner strategies and activities to foster learner autonomy will be reviewed. Afterwards, the questionnaire designed to measure autonomy will be administered in the control and experimental group. The activities and teaching methods will be applied to the experimental group with the guidance of the researcher whereas the same lessons of the control group will be carried out in the traditional way. In the light of these activities and teaching methods, the same questionnaire developed by Demirel (2002) and by the researcher will be administered to the experimental group to be able to identify if they have

acquired “learner autonomy”, and also to the control group to cover the difference and similarity between the control and experimental group. Following step will be to analyze and review what has been acquired in the process of the questionnaire. After that, the results of the descriptive statistics for the instrument will be interpreted. The last step is to provide educational implications and suggestions for further research.

1.5. Assumptions

The following assumptions have been taken into account in this study.

- a) EFL learners who study English at preparatory school are willing to learn English since English provides them with a great many things, such as job opportunities, academic career abroad, etc.
- b) English Language Portfolio lays emphasis on the significance of learner autonomy by mentioning their aims, like promoting life-long learning, the acquisition of self-assessment.
- c) Due to the fact that the learners who are currently studying at preparatory school have somehow just commenced to take academic English which will be vital for their future life, it is the best time and place for them to take the responsibility of their own learning. Thanks to this, it is expected that they will not face any difficulty in acquiring English.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the literature on Autonomy will be covered in terms of various aspects. Not only will this term be examined in the context of education but also it will be scrutinized in that of social and psychological views. First, the origins of Learner Autonomy will be mentioned briefly. Next step will be to analyze Learner Autonomy as a general concept in education without focusing on the field of English Language Teaching. In the subsequent step, Learner Autonomy will be covered specifying ELT setting. The points such as the theoretical framework of Learner Autonomy, the necessity of Autonomy in EFL classes, the attitudes and dispositions of autonomous learners, some approaches to foster learner autonomy, Language Learning Strategies and their relations with LA, the significance of motivation in an autonomous classroom, and views to enhance Learner Autonomy, the principles and implementation of Learner Autonomy will be presented under the title of Learner Autonomy in EFL setting in this part. How autonomy is viewed in Turkey will be discussed under the light of examples given by the researcher. Lastly, current developments and future trends in the realm of ELP will be discussed in a brief way.

2.1. The Origins of Autonomy: From Different Perspectives

The idea of autonomy may not be limited to the field of education or specifically to learning. The concept of individual autonomy has been central to European liberal-democratic and liberal-humanist thought since the 18th century (Lindley, 1986), and was identified by Kant as the foundation of human dignity (Hill, 1991). Benson (2001) claims that Galileo, like many other great thinkers, evidently believed in autonomous learning throughout the ages. Galileo believed that “you can

not teach a man anything; you can only help him find it within himself". Similarly, Benson (2001) describes Jean Jacques Rousseau's model learning in terms of autonomy. He adds that the teacher is a permissive individual who supports learners and learns with them. Learners are responsible for their own actions and learn by enjoying or suffering their consequences. Benson (2001) mentions that in John Dewey's theory, a great pragmatist, the starting point of activities must be the learner's own felt needs so that educational aims were those of the learners rather than those of the teachers. Benson (2001) gives a lot of importance Carl Rogers, best known as psychologist and founder of "client-centered" therapy, due to the fact that the teacher is central to classroom-based approaches that foster autonomy as facilitator. William Kilpatrick, a very important educator, contributed to Learner Autonomy presenting "project method". In this method, what the learners are expected to do is to plan, construct and perform their own learning projects. This can be achieved by four ways. Construction projects, enjoyment projects, problem projects and specific learning projects. Benson (2001) also emphasizes the very-eminent thinkers (Freire, Ilich) with their ideas related to autonomy. Already in 1881, during the Yale Faculty Report, the president of that university, Jeremiah Day, stressed the final responsibility of each student for his own education (Lanham, 1993). Moreover, Schneewind (1998) refers to the history of autonomy in terms of various aspects throughout the history.

2.1.1. The Origins of Learner Autonomy in the Field of EFL

As in each field, foreign language learning/teaching takes its role in terms of learner autonomy. In foreign language learning/teaching, the term "autonomy" has a history of approximately three decades (Benson, 2001). According to Gremmo and Riley (1995) early interest in the concept of autonomy within the field of language education was in part a response to ideals and expectations aroused by the political turmoil in Europe in the late 1960s. Benson (2001) gives a brief history of learner autonomy in the field of language teaching:

“The concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching through the Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project, established in 1971. One of the outcomes of this project was the establishment of the Centre de Recherches et d’Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) at the University of Nancy, France, which rapidly became a focal point for research and practice in the field. Yves Chalon, who is regarded as the father of the autonomy in language learning by many today, is the founder of CRAPEL. After his death, Henri Holec remains a prominent figure within the field of autonomy today. Holec’s (1981) project report to the Council of Europe is a key early document on autonomy in language learning. Holec (1981 cited in Benson, 2001:7) began his report of the social and ideological context within which ideas of autonomy in learning emerged. The journal Melanges Pedagogiques has also played an important role in the dissemination of research on autonomy from 1970 to the present day. The Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project aimed to provide adults with opportunities for lifelong learning. The approach developed at CRAPEL was influenced by the self-directed learning.”

Throughout the 1970 and 1980s learner autonomy became quite important with the development of learner centered approaches to foreign language learning (Finch, 2001). These approaches include the learner-centered curriculum, the negotiated syllabus, learner training, learner-strategy training, the project-based syllabus, the experiential and collaborative learning and learner-based teaching. What these approaches endeavored was to enable the learners to become more independent in how they think, act and learn in the learning process.

In recent years, the educators such as Benson, Little, Voller, Camilleri, Dam have produced a great many works on learner autonomy in the field of foreign language learning/teaching. The ultimate goal of these educators is to lead the learners to become competent enough to take control of their own learning owing to a lot of necessities which are the essentials of the basic education.

2.2. Learner Autonomy as a General Concept in Education

If education in any society is, broadly speaking, about the preparation of children for adult life and adults need to be more independent than children, then it is unavoidable that autonomy in this sense is an aim of any educational process (Winch, 1999). If democratic states are to develop and flourish as democracies, they must undertake educational measures calculated to develop the capacity of their citizens to think and act as free and self-determining individuals (Holec, 1981). In achieving that aim, autonomy should be in relation with various significant disciplines due to the fact that it is relatively concerned with each field in detail. In this chapter, some dominant approaches will be discussed with a view to examining how each of them connects up with learner autonomy.

2.2.1. Autonomy and Psychology

In order to be able to understand why learner autonomy has become so important in learning over the last decades, it is a necessity to benefit from psychology. The reason why psychology is of great importance in the promotion of autonomy is that the learners who have been trained in a more teacher-centered way should be prepared to alter their learning styles to a more autonomous perspective. In addition, this must be done at once in case psychological burdens may not inhibit the learning process.

2.2.2. Autonomy and Humanistic Approach

Above all, humanism in education gives a great deal of importance to the human being because it is him/her who is able to change and develop anything he comes across. As a consequence, humanism is based on the idea that we should see the human beings as whole creatures. Only kind of learning which significantly affects behavior is self-discovered and self-appropriated learning (Rogers, 1961). Since the early 1970s, teachers and educators have been greatly influenced by

insights from humanistic psychology. Dubin and Olsthain (1986) state some important factors, which are also related to learner autonomy, like placing high respect and value on the learner, viewing learning as a form of self-realization, giving learners considerable say in the decision making process, and placing teachers in the role of facilitator. Likewise, teachers need to trust and look up to their learners by giving value on them so that the learner can take responsibility for their own learning. In other words, the learners are able to make decisions about their learning so long as the teacher plays the role of facilitator and counseling rather than the source of the information.

2.2.3. Autonomy and the Importance of Culture

Various studies in relation to the culture and promotion of learner autonomy reveal that cultural setting plays an important role in promoting learner autonomy even though it may be considered as irrelevant to the concept of learner autonomy at first sight (Sancar, 2001; Egel, 2003). Benson (2001) advocates this idea by stating that “if we accept that autonomy takes different forms for indifferent individuals and even for the same individual in different context of learning, we may also need to accept that its manifestations will vary according to the cultural context”. According to Johns (1995), the concept of learner autonomy is highly “laden with Western cultural values” and “hardly applicable to the tradition of Cambodian education”. To give an example, in many non-Western societies, such as China, Japan and Turkey, the education systems are “examination-oriented” and “highly-competitive” (Chan, 2001a). In the process of promoting learner autonomy, the cultural characteristics ought to be taken into account so as not to lead the learners in a wrong way. In other words, the cultural setting in which learning takes place should be paid attention because different cultural contexts may necessitate different practices and produce different outcomes particularly enhancing learner autonomy in formal learning environments (Chan, 2001a).

Some researches (Usuki, 1998; Chan, 2001a; Ho and Crookall, 1995) were conducted on learner autonomy encompassing the importance of culture all over the world.

2.2.4. Autonomy and Sociolinguistics

Sociolinguistics studies language and its sociocultural context. In view of language as a tool for communication, it is not enough for learners to learn linguistic features of a language, but learners need to learn socio-cultural features as well to be able to use a language as a tool to communicate with other people. Oh (2002) claims that figuring out when and where to speak with whom about what, individual learners need to practice/use a second/foreign language autonomously inside and outside classrooms so as to exchange information, ideas and feelings with other people.

2.2.5. Constructivism and Its Seeds in Autonomy

Hein (1991) defines constructivism as “a philosophy of learning that refers to the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves”. Learners construct their own knowledge based on their existing schemata and beliefs (Airasian and Walsh, 1997). The key idea that autonomy in language learning has borrowed from constructivism is the idea that effective learning is active learning. According to Wang and Peverly, (1986) effective learners are seen as being capable of learning independently and deliberately through identification, formulation and restructuring of goals; use of strategy planning; development and execution of plans; and engagement of self-monitoring. By taking advantage of personal construct theory (Kelly, 1963), the learners will be able to become more aware of their assumptions about learning and assume control of their own learning processes. Little (1991) argues that personal construct provides the learners with the ability to take control of their own learning in two ways. First, it provides a justification for the promotion of autonomy in terms of the operation of normal psychological processes. Second, it

highlights the difficulties involved in the process of fostering autonomy. Apparently, constructivism supports, and extends to cover, psychological versions of autonomy that appertain to learners' behaviors, attitudes, motivation, and self-concept (Benson and Voller, 1997). As a result, constructivist approaches encourage and promote self-directed learning as a necessary condition for learner autonomy. In the process of promoting learner autonomy, teachers should take into consideration their learners' personal constructs or beliefs and values which are greatly affected by their classroom behaviors.

2.2.6. Autonomy and Critical Theory

Critical theory shares with constructivism the idea that knowledge is constructed rather than discovered or learned. Within this approach, learning concerns issues of power and ideology, and is seen as a process of interaction with social context, which can bring about social change (Thanasoulas, 2000). As a result of this, learner autonomy assumes a more social character within critical theory.

2.2.7. The Relations Between Autonomy and Experiential Learning Theory

Kolb has developed the Experiential Learning by influencing the works of Dewey, Kelly and Rogers which have the impact on the development of Learner Autonomy. The experiential learning proposes a methodology to help learners to integrate knowledge into their own systems of meaning and take control of their own learning (Benson, 2001).

2.3. Learner Autonomy in ELT Setting

As mentioned above it was Holec (1981) who first uttered the concept of autonomy in the field of language learning/teaching. One of the most important outcomes of the shift towards more communicative language teaching has been the enhancement of the role of the learner in the language learning process (Wenden, 1991). Unlike what it used to be in the past, which the teacher directs the classroom and does whatever he wants the learners to do, foreign language education is no longer one in which teachers teach and learners learn. In lieu of this, teachers have to learn to let go and learners have to learn to take hold of their learning (Wenden, 1991). For students to maximize their chances for success in this rapidly changing world, learner autonomy has become a desirable goal in language learning and teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In order to acquire effective language learning in the authentic language use, learner autonomy is considered as the precondition for effective learning. Some experts (Dam, 1995; Dickinson, 1995; Benson, 2001; Little, 2001) identify the significance of the changes in a very detailed way. The learner has become the center of the learning process as a consequence of these changes. The existence of these conditions urged the educators and foreign language teachers to implement valuable aspects of learner autonomy in ELT setting.

2.3.1. Theoretical Framework of LA

In this part, theoretical framework of Learner Autonomy will be highlighted. Some definitions and views will be given based on the literature. What is more, the misconceptions on learner autonomy which frequently cause the learners to perceive the concept in various ways will be examined in detail so as to clarify them and halt the confusion about them.

2.3.1.1. Some Cornerstone Definitions and Views on LA

Defining autonomy is not an easy task (Chan, 2001a) on account of the fact that some educators and scholars prefer to use “taking charge” or “taking responsibility” whereas others tend to utilize “taking control of one’s own learning”. When it comes to define and describe what learner autonomy exactly is in the field of foreign language learning/teaching, some problems occur since many of the definitions have not lived up to the expectations of the term correctly. It is also a slippery concept because it is difficult to define precisely (Little, 2003). Nonetheless, Benson (2001) argues that it is important to describe autonomy for the following two reasons. Firstly, construct validity is an important precondition for effective research. In order for a construct such as autonomy to be researchable, it must be describable in terms of observable behaviors. Secondly, programmes or innovations designed to foster autonomy are more likely to be more effective if they are based on a clear understanding of the behavioral changes they aim to foster. Although the definitions for autonomy vary (Boud, 1988; Little 1991; Kohonen, 1992; Dickinson 1993; Benson and Voller 1997), what is common with all these definitions is that they all entail the responsibility that the learners take for their own learning process. Learner autonomy grows out of the individual learner’s acceptance of responsibility for his/her own learning (Benson and Voller, 1997). The literature on autonomy is replete with definitions ranging from the simplistic to the extremely complex (Ade-Ojo, 2005).

Some of the most well-known definitions in the current literature are:

- 'Autonomy is an adaptive ability, allowing learners to develop supportive structures within themselves rather than to have them erected around them (Trim, 1976, cited in Esch, 1996).
- 'Autonomy is the ability to assume responsibility for one’s own affairs' (Schwartz, 1977, cited in Esch, 1996).
- 'Autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning' (Holec,

1979).

- 'Autonomy is a term describing a potential capacity to act in a given situation- in our case- learning, and not the actual behavior of an individual in that situation (Holec, 1981).
- 'Autonomy is a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action (Little, 1990a).
- 'Autonomy is essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning' (Little, 1991).
- 'Autonomy is being responsible for one's own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways (Kohonen, 1992).
- 'Autonomy is a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of those decisions' (Dickinson, 1993).
- 'Autonomy is a capacity and critical ability to reflect on one's experience and to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1995, as cited in Dickinson, 1995).
- 'Autonomy is recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems' (Benson, 2001).

More recently published is the “Bergen Definition”, (Dam, 1995) which characterizes learner autonomy as a readiness to take charge of one's own learning in the service of one's needs and purposes. This entails a capacity and willingness on the part of the learner to act independently and in co-operation with others, as a socially responsible person. Vanijdee (2003) extends the concept of learner autonomy as a capacity –a construct of attitudes and ability that allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning.

When looking at all these definitions at a first glance, we abruptly come up with several important features that are all common in all above. Benson and Voller (1997) point out five ways the term autonomy is used for.

Autonomy is used for:

- a) situations in which learners study entirely on their own;
- b) a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
- c) an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education;
- d) the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning;
- e) for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

Benson (2001) also proposes that there are three levels that have to be considered important in describing the autonomy. The levels he mentioned are called learning management, cognitive processes, and learning content displayed in the figure below.

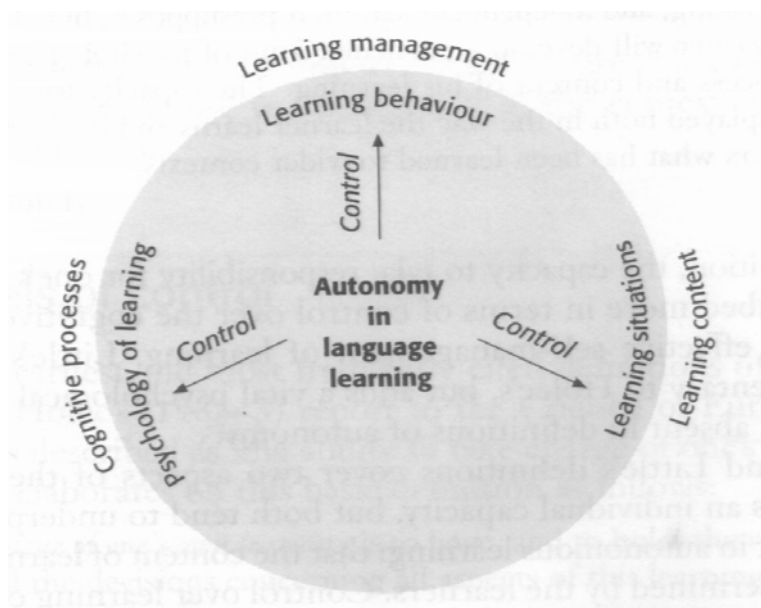


Figure 1: the capacity to take over learning (Benson, 2001: 51)

In order to give a clear understanding what learner autonomy exactly stands for in the language learning process, it is an advisable way to state what learner autonomy is not. Little (1990a) argues insights to realize for what autonomy is not.

- 1 Autonomy is not a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is not limited to learning without a teacher.
- 2 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
- 3 On the other hand, autonomy is not something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is not another teaching method.
- 4 Autonomy is not a single, easily described behavior.
- 5 Autonomy is not a steady state achieved by learners.

Fenner and Newby (2000) also aver that learner autonomy is not concerned with one specific method, but allows for any method which the individual learner finds beneficial to his learning purposes.

Having explained clearly what learner autonomy is and is not in the context of language learning, it is time to accentuate the misconception caused by the diversity of the terms.

2.3.1.2. Misconceptions on Learner Autonomy: Consolidating the Bricks

The relevant literature is riddled with innumerable definitions of autonomy and other synonyms for it, such as ‘independence’ (Sheerin, 1991), ‘language awareness’ (Lier, 1996; James and Garrett, 1991), ‘self-direction’ (Candy, 1991), ‘andragogy’ (Knowles, 1980), which testifies to the importance attached to it by scholars. Kumaravadivelu (2003) remarks that the misconception about the meaning of autonomy is created by the diversity of the terms. Benson (2001) explains the misconceptions on learner autonomy referring to two different aspects. These misconceptions are, at least in part, a result of terminological and conceptual confusion within the field itself. The reason why there exist a great many definitions and views to describe and define learner autonomy and also why so many synonyms

to this term in the field of foreign language teaching and learning may be reasoned by the features that autonomy shares with the other related terms. These terms which can be counted as synonyms to learner autonomy entail self-instruction, self-direction, self-access learning, individualized instruction, independent learning, self-regulated learning, distance learning, flexible learning, self-direction, semi-autonomy. Dickinson (1987) and Pemberton (1996) identify several different terms in the literature on autonomy. Whereas some of these terms are utilized synonymously, others do not reflect the same components of the autonomy:

1. **Self-instruction:** learning without a teacher (Little, 1991); learning "without the direct control of a teacher" (Dickinson, 1987).
2. **Distance learning:** a way of organising learners which usually only allows them control over access (Lewis, 1995).
3. **Individualized instruction:** designed to meet the needs of individual learners, but the teacher prepares materials, sets objectives and evaluates the learner's ability to perform required skills (Logan, 1980). "a learning process which (as regards goals content, methodology and pacing) is adapted to a particular individual, taking this individual's characteristics into consideration" (Chaix & O'Neil, 1978).
4. **Flexible learning:** the teacher or department provides materials and activities; the learner has some choice over what to do and when, but there is usually little negotiation about learning goals or evaluation (Evans, 1993).
5. **Self-access learning:** learning from materials/facilities that are organized to facilitate learning; self-instruction in using these materials. The term is neutral as to how self-directed or other-directed the learners are (Dickinson, 1987).
6. **Self-direction:** a particular attitude to the learning task, where the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions concerned with his learning but does not necessarily undertake the implementation of those decisions (Dickinson, 1987); the process or the techniques used in directing one's own learning (Holec, 1981); the change of consciousness that is the result of such learning (Brookfield, 1985).

7. **Autonomy:** the situation in which learners are totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with learning and the implementation of those decisions. In full autonomy there is no involvement of a "teacher" of an institution, and the learner is also independent of specially prepared materials (Dickinson, 1987).
8. **Semi-autonomy:** the stage at which learners are preparing for autonomy (Dickinson 1987).
9. **Independent learning:** learning in which the learner, in conjunction with relevant others, can make the decisions necessary to meet the learner's own learning needs (Kesten, 1987).
10. **Self-regulated learning:** the self-directive process through which learners transform their mental abilities into academic skills (Zimmerman, 1998).

A number of misconceptions about the definition of autonomous language learning have thus arisen, with the wealth of such terms and meanings being perhaps indicative of an unwillingness to be critical, but also attributable to the lack of definition by professional authorities and the subsequent tendency for different terms to mean different things to different practitioners (Benson, 1997). To sum up, there still seems to be confusion about what we mean by independent or autonomous learning.

In order to halt this confusion about the related terms to autonomy, it is the best way to discuss each of the terms in a detailed way. Once autonomy is in question, it does not mean that learning process should be fulfilled without the guidance of a teacher or just with teacher. On the contrary, self-instruction emphasizes the non-existence of a teacher, which differentiates from autonomy at least in this sense. Distance learning is totally different from the term of autonomy in that the former is generally carried out with the help of a teacher but it does happen in a place which is far away from the teacher, which can not be in relation with autonomy. Individualized instruction, though it seems nearly the same as autonomy at first glance, is a kind of instruction in which the learners' needs and interests are

taken into account by the teacher but it is still the teacher who can set objectives, evaluate the learners' performance and prepares the materials. The similarity between individualized instruction and learner autonomy is that both pay attention to the learners' needs and interests. Flexible learning shares some common points with autonomy such as making decision over what to do or when, but it does not mean that flexible learning is totally the same as autonomy because of a mere aspect. Self-access learning is similar to autonomy in a way that the materials to be exploited in the classroom are generally identified by the learners. When compared with the others, self-direction lives up to the expectations much better than those mentioned below due to the fact that all decisions are made by the learners in an agreement way. As for semi-autonomy, as inferred from its name, it is the process by which the learners are being responsible for their own learning, which needs some route to terminate. Independent learning is when the learners can make decisions necessary to meet their own needs. However, it is not enough to be in harmony with the concept of autonomy since autonomy does not consist of merely decisions that the learners make to meet their individual needs. The distinction between self-regulated learning and learner autonomy is that autonomy is based on all learning environment whereas self-regulated learning emphasizes the significance of the academic skills.

In the light of what has been mentioned and stated here, we can reach a consensus that all the terms above are somehow related to autonomy. This relation can stem from the features that autonomy and other terms share to refer to the concept of autonomy.

2.3.2. Some Key Researches on Learner Autonomy

On account of the fact that the focus has considerably altered from the teacher to the learner over the last two decades, the term “autonomy” in the foreign language learning has become a very popular issue among the educators and foreign language teachers. As a result of this popularity, there have been a lot of studies on Learner Autonomy all over the world. Some of them will be examined below.

Gündoğdu (1997, cited in Koçak, 2003) performed a descriptive case study of autonomous learning in a primary school in England. The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between teacher, pupil and learning environment in terms of developing autonomy in pupil’s learning process. In this study whose instruments to collect data were observation and questionnaire, it was concluded that autonomous learning could occur when teachers assumed the role of facilitator of knowledge, became a supporter of helping pupil build self-responsibility, self-confidence and self-direction and created a child-centered classroom enabling children to be independent.

Kucuroğlu (1997) carried out a study to investigate the importance of direct formative testing on learner performance and the development of learner autonomy. The study was conducted at Bilkent University School of English Language. The subjects were two groups (experimental and control) of mainstream Upper Intermediate level BUSEL students, each consisting of two classes and of approximately 30 students. The questionnaire was made up of two parts, the first of which was on the instructional objectives and the second of which was about the indication of the frequency of their use of self-access facilities. It was observed that students in the experimental group performed significantly better than those in the control group. Another important conclusion to be drawn is that learner autonomy and independent study skills are promoted by means of some self-access facilities. The last result is that institutions should revisit their perceptions of the content and functions of formative testing.

Lee (1998) conducted a programme to promote learner autonomy with 15 students on the course in Hong Kong and evaluate its outcomes using data from the students and the teacher. The instruments used in this study to foster autonomy were a suggested list of activities and materials. The findings of this study reveal that creating self-directed learning programme does not in itself enable learners to become self-directed. Moreover, it supports the idea that the teachers and educators offering programmes in self-directed learning need to think very carefully about how the necessary supportive circumstances and contexts can be provided to help learners develop the necessary capacity and willingness to take more responsibility for their own learning.

Chan (2001a) carried out a study to explore learners' attitudes and expectations of language learning, teacher and learner roles, their learning preferences and perceptions of learner autonomy at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. This study consisted of 20 students learning English at Hong Kong. The instrument used to collect the data was a questionnaire. According to the findings of the study, it was revealed that the students had gained an initial awareness of the different roles of the teacher and themselves, the existence of various learning preferences and approaches, and the choice over different learning practices and procedures.

Sancar (2001) carried out a study to identify the learner attitudes of EFL student teachers in terms of learner autonomy in formal language learning context and investigate whether university teaching is conducive to learner autonomy. The participants attending the study were 113 first-year and 96 third-year student teachers and 11 teachers in the English Language Education Department of Uludağ University, Turkey. Questionnaires and interviews designed for the students and teachers were the instruments used in collecting data. The analysis revealed that the student teachers tended to be autonomous in their language learning because of their contact with the foreign culture through their course books, cassettes and videos and the student teachers need guidance to feel more responsible for their language learning, and awareness-raising about learner autonomy.

Çoban (2002) carried out a study to investigate the attitudes towards learner autonomy at both Gazi University and Yıldız Technical University. The participants were 35 English Language Teachers, 19 of whom were from Yıldız Technical University and 16 of whom were from Gazi University conducted with a questionnaire, including 26 items, designed by the researcher. Two important conclusions drawn by the questionnaire were that language teachers in both institutions were willing to favor encouraging learners to take active roles in the language process and that language teachers of Yıldız Technical University were more enthusiastic about developing learner autonomy than those of Gazi University.

Oh (2002) conducted a research to investigate how four Korean adult learners' ESL learning beliefs and their autonomy interacted. In order to obtain the data required, five data-gathering sources were utilized in this qualitative case study: semi-structured interviews; class observations, open consultations, researcher's reflective journal, and email correspondence. Two important findings revealed that the first two informants' ESL learning beliefs centered on learner control and supported their autonomous learning actions while creating and reshaping learning actions and the informants' ESL learning beliefs influenced their degrees of openness to utilize a new learning mode.

Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002) conducted a study to investigate students' views of their responsibilities and decision-making abilities in learning English, their motivation level and actual language learning activities they undertook inside and outside the classroom with a view to gauging their readiness for autonomous learning at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The participants were 508 students studying English. A questionnaire was used in order to acquire the data. The findings display that the students have definite views about the teachers' roles and their own responsibilities and research in students' perceptions and beliefs is a useful starting point to help teachers in their attempt to develop learner autonomy.

Chan (2003) carried out a study based on the teachers' perspectives related to learner autonomy. A questionnaire was applied to 41 English teachers. The aim of this study was to investigate the teachers' perceptions related to their own and their students' responsibilities in the language learning process, related to their students' abilities of decision making in different aspects of learning. The findings of the study reveal that teachers generally evaluate themselves to be more responsible for the methodological and motivational aspects of learning and teachers generally have positive attitudes towards their students' potential ability related to various aspects of learning.

Another important study was conducted by Egel (2003) to investigate whether English Language Portfolio-oriented language instruction had an impact on learner autonomy. Primary school EFL teachers and students in primary school Grades 4 and 5 are the participant groups who have contributed to this study. The impact of ELP on learner autonomy was measured through administering the Autonomy Learner Questionnaire before and after experimental treatment. The questionnaire was implemented to the learners of Primary School studying both at the schools of Ministry of Education and private schools as a tool to gather data. The findings of the study revealed that the learners studying at the schools of Ministry of Education have much more autonomy than the private schools.

Koçak (2003) carried out a study to be able to identify whether preparatory students learning English at Başkent University are ready to be involved in autonomous learning regarding four aspects: learners' motivation level in learning English, learners' use of metacognitive strategies in learning English, learners' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in learning English, and learners' practice of autonomous learning in the form of outside class activities. The participants were 186 learners studying English at the preparatory school at Başkent University. The instrument used to gather data was a questionnaire constructed by the researcher. The results showed that the majority of the respondents indicated a strong desire not only to learn English but also to improve it as much as they could, that respondents tended to use certain metacognitive strategies in order to facilitate

their learning process, the respondents saw the teacher as more responsible in the learning/teaching process, the respondents were always seeking opportunities to watch English TV programs and films, the female learners of English had higher level of motivation than male learner of English, and lastly the female learners of English clearly outscored male learners of English in the use of metacognitive strategies.

Tayar (2003) conducted a study to investigate whether the young-adult university learners' know their motivation can influence their learning or they are better motivated when they have control over their learning in ESP in a Turkish context. The participants in this study were the learners of Vocational School of Social Sciences at Uludağ University, in Bursa. They consisted of 80 learners selected according to their scores obtained from the university entrance exam. The researcher kept a diary to observe the behavioral changes of the students, in the following step the students were implemented a pilot questionnaire to be able to measure the validity of the questionnaire. Afterwards, the instrument designed to gather data was the questionnaire itself. The results of this study revealed that majority of university students are motivated to some degree either instrumentally or integratively.

Chu (2004) carried out a study to investigate how much difference exists between Taiwanese students' and their teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy. A survey questionnaire was distributed to 446 students and 8 teachers at a selected university in North Taiwan. The major findings of this study were as follows. Not only do students and their teachers expect to increase the degree of learner autonomy for the forthcoming lessons but also students anticipate to have more autonomy in their learning in the future that the teachers expect them to have. Another result that can be concluded from this study is that there is a greater possibility that learner autonomy would be diffused in the whole range of activities.

Phillips (2004) carried out a research to determine if the development of learner autonomy of students enrolled in academic programs differs from the development of learner autonomy of students enrolled in vocational programs at Thomas Nelson Community College. The instruments utilized in this study to gather data were the four scales and twenty-two subscales of Learner Autonomy Profile. The results of the study pointed out that the academic students did not exhibit any greater tendency to take charge of their own learning at any point in their program whereas the students in vocational programs exhibited greater desire to take charge of their learning.

Yıldırım (2005) conducted a study to investigate Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy at Anadolu University, English Language Teaching Department. The instrument used for this aim to fulfill was a questionnaire study conducted with 179 students, 90 of whom were 1st year students in the program and 89 of whom were 4th year students in the program, studying Teaching English. As for the findings of this case study, it was obviously revealed that the participants seemed ready to take more responsibility and control for their own learning in some aspects of learning whereas they needed some support and guidance in some other aspects. Generally, the future teachers of English displayed positive views to learner autonomy.

Şahin (2005) carried out a study to identify whether the learners who developed metacognitive strategies were more autonomous than those who did not develop metacognitive strategies, or developed fewer metacognitive strategies and explore the metacognitive strategy and learner autonomy profiles of EFL learners. The instruments utilized in this study to gather the data required were SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) (Oxford, 1990) and Study Skills Inventory. The subjects consisted of 91 female and 19 male learners, totally 110 learners studying at the department of English Language Teaching at Gazi University. The findings of this study displayed that learners used all the language learning strategies, except compensation and metacognitive strategies, at a medium level whereas they used their metacognitive strategies at a high level.

Özdere (2005) conducted a study to investigate state-supported provincial university instructors' attitudes towards learner autonomy and towards sharing instructional responsibilities with learners regarding aspects of students' own learning. This study was conducted with 72 English language instructors working at Afyonkarahisar Kocatepe University, Akdeniz University, Balıkesir University, Muğla University, Niğde University and Zonguldak Karaelmas University. Data was collected through a questionnaire gathered data about the instructors' educational background and teaching experience. The results of the data analysis revealed that participating instructors are neutral to slightly positive towards learner autonomy in their formal teaching environments and consider some areas of teaching and learning as more suitable than others for the implementation of learner autonomy. Another outcome obtained from the study was that the participating instructors' attitudes towards learner autonomy change depending upon the facilities they are provided by their universities and the opportunities for authentic language use in their environments.

As observed in all these studies, the importance of learner autonomy in the foreign language classrooms has not been neglected due to the fact that it is the last destination where each learner arrives. However, it has been widely accepted that the promotion of learner autonomy in the field of English Language Teaching has not been as popular as it merits it would be in Turkey. Hence, promoting learner autonomy through activities needs to be studied for EFL learners in EFL context.

2.3.3. Why AUTONOMY in EFL Classes?

In a democratic society, the primary purpose of education should be to prepare students to take an active part in both social and political life by having them gain the skills and attitudes they need for democratic and social participation (Dewey, 1921). Following this idea, autonomy comes into the fore owing to the fact that it holds the importance of taking an active part in individual's own education process. In addition to this, Crabbe (1993) mentions that the individual has the right

to be free to exercise his or her own choices, in learning as in other areas, and not become a victim (even an unwitting one) of choices made by social institutions. Holec (1981) adds the importance of autonomy by mentioning "insist on the need to develop the individual's freedom by developing those abilities which will enable him to act more responsibly in running the affairs of the society in which he lives."

Gremmo and Riley (1995) also identify the following factors:

1. minority rights movements;
2. a reaction against behaviorism in medicine, politics, music, poetry, schooling, psychology, education, philosophy, and linguistics;
3. the emergence of "autonomy" as an educational ideal, with a direct influence on adult education in Europe;
4. developments in technology contributing to the spread of autonomy and self-access;
5. rising internationalism since the Second World War;
6. adult learners and different learning needs, resulting in flexible learning programmes with varying degrees of learner-centeredness and self-direction;
7. commercialization of much language provision, together with the movement to heighten consumer awareness, leading to learners as consumers, making informed choices in the market;
8. increase in school and university populations, encouraging the development of new educational structures for dealing with large numbers of learners.

As a consequence, developing autonomous learning is indispensable seeing that education aims to help the people how to think, act and learn independently in their lives.

In the past two decades, as our language teaching has practiced a shift to a more communicative approach, it has also become more learner-centered (Yang, 1998). Recently, in the field of second/foreign language education there has been a shift in focus from the teacher to the learner, from exclusive focus on how to improve teaching to an inclusive concern for how individual learners go through

their learning (Gremmo and Riley, 1995). It is obvious that no students, anywhere, will have their teachers accompany them throughout life (Littlewood, 1999). Learner autonomy as an educational goal in language learning has attracted attention since the 1960s. (Finch, 2001) The significant body of research about learner autonomy in language over the past years has indicated an ongoing interest in ways to help our learners to learn autonomously (Chan, 2001b). According to stimulating learner autonomy, with the growth of knowledge in the information age, it is stated that knowledge is not there waiting to be learned but rather a process of personal and social construction (Lap, 2005). Therefore, learning is an active and interactive process that ought to be performed independently.

Briefly, there exist three reasons why autonomy has become so important in the field of second/foreign language education. They may be summarized under the headings of the philosophical reason, pedagogical reason and practical reason. The philosophical reason is the belief that learners have the right to make choices with regard to their learning; the need to prepare learners for a rapidly changing future, in which independence in learning will be vital for effective functioning in society (Knowles, 1975, cited in Finch, 2001). The pedagogical reason is that adults have been shown to learn more effectively when they are consulted about dimensions such as the pace, sequence, mode of instruction and content of what they are studying (Caef 1988, cited in Finch, 2001). The practical reason is that learners who are involved in making choices and decisions about aspects of the programme are also likely to feel more secure in their learning (Joiner, 1985, cited in Finch, 2001).

What is more, Ellis and Sinclair (1989, cited in Esch, 1997) underline the significance and aspiration of learner autonomy in the language classroom by pointing out the following statements:

Helping learners take on more responsibility for their own learning can be beneficial because:

- learning can be more effective when learners take control of their own learning because they learn what they are ready to learn.
- those learners who are responsible for their own learning can carry on learning outside the classroom.

The development of autonomy implies better language learning (Benson, 2001). Developing learner autonomy helps learners be better language learners. Autonomous learners are more successful than non-autonomous learners in the language learning process (Benson, 2001). It has widely been accepted that autonomous learners who are able to use their metacognitive strategies are generally regarded as good language learners. Rubin and Thompson (1982, cited in Brown, 1994) have summarized fourteen characteristics of good language learners. Good language learners:

1. find their own way, taking charge of their learning.
2. organize information about language
3. are creative, developing a “feel” for the language by experimenting with its grammar and words
4. make their own opportunities for practice in using the language inside and outside the classroom
5. learn to live with uncertainty by not getting flustered and by continuing to talk or listen without understanding every word.
6. use mnemonics and other memory strategies to recall what has been learned
7. make errors work for and against them
8. use linguistic knowledge, including knowledge of their first language, in learning a second language
9. use contextual cues to help them in comprehension
10. learn to make intelligent guesses

11. learn chunks of language as wholes and formalized routines to help them perform “beyond their competence”
12. learn certain tricks that help to keep conversations going
13. learn certain production strategies to fill in gaps in their own competence
14. learn different styles of speech and writing and learn to vary their language according to the formality of the situation

In the language classroom, since the aim is to make the language learners more successful in terms of acquiring the language itself, learner autonomy is to be developed and exploited in a sense.

2.3.4. Attitudes and Dispositions of an Autonomous Learner

Before giving the attitudes and dispositions of an autonomous learner, it is vital to mention who an autonomous person is. Kupfer (1990) defines the autonomous person as “the one who chooses for himself what to think and what to do.” The educators and methodologists have tried to define the term “Learner Autonomy” from very different point of views in the previous sections. Like the definitions given in the previous section, the attitudes and dispositions of an autonomous learner vary to different authors and perspectives.

Gibbs (1979, cited in Pierson, 1996) first provided dispositions of an autonomous individual. He states:

“an autonomous individual must have both independence from external authority and mastery of himself and his power. He must be free from the dictates and interference of other people, and free also from disabling or lack of coordination between elements of his own personality. He must have the freedom to act and work as he chooses and he must be capable of formulating and following a rule, pattern or policy of acting and working.”

Holec (1981) describes an autonomous learner in various aspects. An autonomous learner is capable of

- determining the objectives
- defining the contents and progressions
- selecting methods and techniques to be used
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc)
- evaluating what has been acquired

From the attempts to cover this term properly, it is likely to conclude that autonomous learners have the capacity to determine realistic and reachable goals, select appropriate methods and techniques to be used, monitor their own learning process, and evaluate the progress of their own learning (Little, 1991). Dam (1990) adds that an autonomous learner is an active participant in the social processes of learning, but also an active interpreter of new information in terms of what she/he already and uniquely knows. Autonomous people are intrinsically-motivated, perceive themselves to be in control of their decision-making, take responsibility for the outcomes of their actions and have confidence in themselves (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Bandura, 1989; Doyal and Gough, 1991).

Candy (1991) extends the features by adding several crucial aspects related to autonomy. Autonomous learners:

- are methodical and disciplined
- are logical and analytical
- are reflective and self-aware
- demonstrate curiosity
- are flexible
- are persistent and responsible
- are venturesome and creative
- show confidence and have a positive self-concept

- are independent and self-sufficient
- have developed information seeking and retrieval skills
- have knowledge about , and skill at, learning experiences
- develop and use criteria for evaluating

Dickinson (1993) underlines the importance of learner autonomy while giving five features of autonomous learners.

Autonomous learners:

1. understand what is being taught, i.e. they have sufficient understanding of language learning to understand the purpose of pedagogical choices
2. are able to formulate their own learning objectives
3. are able to select and make use of appropriate learning strategies
4. are able to monitor their use of strategies
5. are able to self-assess, or monitor their own learning

Additionally, the profile of autonomous language learner depicted by Breen and Mann (1997) is stated as follows.

Autonomous learners:

- see their relationship to what is to be learned, to how they will learn and to the resources available as one in which they are in charge of in control
- are in authentic relationship to the language they are learning and have a genuine desire to learn that particular language
- have a robust sense of self that is unlikely to be undermined by any actual or assumed negative assessments of themselves or their work
- are able to step back from what they are doing and reflect upon it in order to make decisions about what they next need to do and experience

- are alert to change and able to change in an adaptable, resourceful and opportunistic way
- have a capacity to learn that is independent of the educational processes in which they are engaged
- are able to make use of the environment they find themselves in strategically
- are able to negotiate between the strategic meeting of their own needs and responding to the needs and desires of other group members.

The autonomous learner establishes a personal agenda for learning. He/she should be actively involved in the setting of goals, defining content, and working out evaluation mechanism for assessing achievement and progress.

Chan (2001a) underlined the hard-hitting features of autonomous learners after having done a research about how the language learners in the Hong Kong Polytechnic University are like.

Autonomous learners

- a. set his/her learning goals, identify and develop learning strategies to achieve such goals.
- b. develop study plans.
- c. reflect on his/her learning which includes identifying problem areas and means of addressing these problems
- d. identify and selects relevant resources and the necessary support
- e. assess his/her own progress and define his/her own criteria for evaluating performance and learning (including strategies, materials, etc)

Here, the dispositions and attitudes of an autonomous learner have been reviewed in a chronological order, and each of the lists provided the term with the new perspectives which had not been mentioned before. In brief, autonomous learners are responsible for their own learning and they are willing to take action to

fulfill this process in a very positive way.

It would be advisable to underline that the characteristics of an effective learner and autonomous learner have shared nearly the same attitudes and dispositions, which makes autonomy inevitable and desirable in the language classroom.

2.3.5. Some Approaches to Foster Learner Autonomy

In formal learning environments, the development of autonomy is pursued because learner autonomy supports the learners' involvement in planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning (Holec, 1981). Bertoldi, Kollar and Ricard (1988) believe that a student does not become an autonomous learner overnight. Fostering learner autonomy calls for a continuous effort to help students process information in meaningful ways and become independent learners by developing effective strategies, transferring skills, as well as a greater sense of responsibility (Raya and Fernandez, 2002). In addition, Scharle and Szabo (2000) propose that some important components be taken into consideration by educators and foreign language teachers if their aim is to help their learners become more autonomous learners. They highlight the necessity of finding out learners' beliefs, study habits, motivation levels, responsibility attitudes, use of metacognitive strategies, and performance of outside class activities in learning a language before any implementation for promoting learner autonomy in classroom environments. In this respect, following approaches include the components mentioned above. Benson (2001) lays emphasis on the importance of these approaches under the title of "Approaches to the development of learner autonomy". He (2001) gives a brief explanation of each approach and its relations with learner autonomy as follows.

Approaches to the development of autonomy:

- a. Resource-based approaches emphasize independent interaction with learning materials.
- b. Technology-based approaches emphasize independent interaction with educational technologies.
- c. Learner-based approaches emphasize the direct production of behavioral and psychological changes in the learner.
- d. Classroom-based approaches emphasize learner control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning.
- e. Curriculum-based approaches extend the idea of learner control to the curriculum as a whole.
- f. Teacher-based approaches emphasize the role of the teacher and teacher education in the practice of fostering autonomy among learners.

An effective autonomous learning process will be realized so long as the following approaches are conducted in any classroom. According to Benson (2001), each of these approaches has been developed to promote learner autonomy by applying different methods, techniques and materials. Besides, any practice that encourages and enables learners to take greater control of any aspect of their learning can be considered a means of promoting autonomy (Benson, 2001).

2.3.5.1. Resource-based Approaches

Resource-based learning is a broad one, encompassing a wide range of means by which students are able to learn in ways that are on a scale from those that are mediated by tutors to those where the students are learning independently (Brown and Smith, 1996). Therefore, the relation between autonomy and resource-based approaches is to be focused in terms of fostering autonomy. The focus for the fostering of autonomy is put on the learner's interaction with learning resources in

resource-based approaches (Benson, 2001). Independent interaction with learning resources is sufficient in itself for the development of autonomy. Brown and Smith (1996) emphasize that the students who actively tend to develop learning techniques which enable them to become lifelong learners are able to choose their own modes of study, pace themselves and evaluate their effectiveness. They underline that the best resource-based learning materials can be beneficial in helping students to take responsibility for their own learning needs.

Self-access centers, in the context of resource-based learning, have had a central position in the practice of autonomy, and many teachers have tried to foster learner autonomy through these centers (Benson, 2001). These centers possess audio, video and computer workstations, audiotapes and computer software, and a variety of printed materials. The advantages of a self-access resource centre are manifold because they provide for rich and varied input for acquisition in a non-normative environment (Esch, 1996). Self-access rooms are typical examples to serve to foster autonomy as they are full of resources available for the learners' use. These kinds of rooms provide the learners with a great many opportunities to direct their own learning. Since it is the key point that the learner makes a decision about his own learning in an autonomous language classroom, self-access centers play a great role in this respect with the goal of fostering autonomy.

Sheerin (1997) mentions that the learners analyze their needs, set their objectives, plan a programme of work, choose the materials and activities, work unsupervised and evaluate the progress, and synthesize the structure and lexis of a language by means of self-access learning and self-access systems. Benson (2001) believes that resource-based learning fosters learner autonomy by providing learners with opportunities to direct their own learning.

2.3.5.2. Technology-based Approaches

Technology-based approaches to the development of autonomy are similar in many respects to other resource-based approaches, but differ from them in their focus on the technologies used to access resources (Benson, 2001:136). Since the 1990s, there have been reported a number of studies associated with new technologies with the aim of fostering autonomy. Among them, the studies of Gardner (1994), Little (1994), Gardner and Blasco Garcia (1996), Milton (1996), Guillot (1996), Lewis (1996) and Aston (1997) are the ones of the most important studies (cited in Benson, 2001). Technology based approaches may include student-produced video, computer-enhanced interactive video, electronic writing environments, concordance, informal CD-ROMs, E-mail language advising, and computer simulations.

What deserves to be taken into consideration most by the researchers and teacher educators and foreign language teachers among technology-based approaches is the computer-assisted language learning in regard to autonomy. It has been reported by many researchers in a positive way to learn a foreign language. Computers have been used for language teaching since the 1960s. However, Smith (2001) states that in the 1990s the personal computer emerged as a significant tool for language teaching and learning. The computers can promote the development of learner autonomy to the extent that they can stimulate, mediate and extend the range and scope of the social and psychological interaction on which all learning depends (Little, 1996).

According to Warchauer and Healey (1998), the Internet represents a way forward for integrative CALL as it runs the limitations of the CD-ROM as a mode of delivery. Provided the learner has easy and inexpensive access, the internet is also strongly supportive of two basic situational conditions for self-directed learning. Learners can study whenever they want to use a potentially unlimited range of authentic materials and it also appears to facilitate learner control over interaction by giving the opportunities to be able to continue a good relation (Benson, 2001). In

Turkey, the study conducted by Yumuk (2002) was about the role of the Internet in letting go of control to learner and it revealed that the Internet can encourage learners not only to view themselves as being charge of their own learning, but also to perceive teachers facilitators in the learning process.

As to the importance of technology-based approaches in terms of fostering autonomy, Warchauer and Healey (1998) maintain that they were also designed to give learners individual control over the pace of learning. Moreover, Benson (2001) concludes that in the case of CALL in particular, technology can provide learners with the kinds of support they need in order to develop skills associated with autonomy. It is important to accept that CALL can genuinely lead to autonomy, to a state in which learners exercise as much control as possible over the learning process and are as little dependent on the teacher as possible (Jones, 2001).

The last word to be uttered is that technology-based approaches are effective in terms of developing learner autonomy since learners are provided with various opportunities and the freedom to develop control and direct their own learning (Schwienhorst, 2003).

2.3.5.3. Learner-based Approaches

In contrast to resource-based and technology-based approaches to autonomy which focus on providing opportunities for learner control, learner-based approaches focus directly on the production of behavioral and psychological changes that will enable learners to take greater control over their own learning (Benson, 2001). The primary goal of all approaches to learner development is to help learners become “better” language learners. Approaches to learner development mentioned by Benson (1995) can be categorized under the six major headings below.

- a. Direct advice on how to learn languages independently, often in the form of self study books textbooks or manuals designed for individuals working abroad.
- b. Methods and materials based on “good language learner” research, which aim to convey insight from observation of strategies used by “successful” language learners.
- c. More open-ended methods and materials, where learners are expected to experiment with strategies and decide for themselves which ones suit them best.
- d. “Synthetic” approaches drawing on a wide range of sources.
- e. “Integrated” approaches that treat learner training as a part of general language learning.
- f. Self-directed approaches, advocates of self-directed learning have tended to be skeptical of the idea that students can be taught how to learn, and they propose methodologies where learners in effect train themselves by practicing self-directed learning with the help of self-access resources and counseling.

In addition to this, Scharle and Szabo (2000) offer some sample activities for teacher to use in their classrooms to develop learner strategies, monitor learning process, establish self-evaluation, promote motivation and develop co-operation, which the educators may experience in the actual learning.

It is true that learners will be on the way to take control over their own learning, that is, become more autonomous, so long as their needs and interests are not neglected by the foreign language teachers. In brief, learner-based approaches aim to enable learners to take greater control over their learning by directly providing them with the skills they need to take advantage of these opportunities (Benson, 2001).

2.3.5.4. Classroom-based Approaches

It is assumed that the key factor in the development of autonomy is the opportunity for students to make decisions regarding their learning within a collaborative and supportive environment (Benson, 2001). What is very important in classroom-based approaches is that learners control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning. In other words, these approaches focus on changes to the relationships found in traditional classrooms in terms of classroom practice (Benson, 2001). When classroom-based approaches are utilized in the language classrooms, the changes related to the development of autonomy occur naturally. The results of the study conducted by Fitz-Gibbon and Reay in 1982 (cited in Benson, 2001) indicated a lot of valuable conclusions on the planning classroom learning. Benson (2001) concludes that the results of experiments in which learners are asked to set their own goals and plan activities within the classroom suggest that increased learner control is beneficial to language learning. The learners themselves have the chance to assess what they have produced, which is called “self-assessment”. Self-assessment has been a prominent theme in the literature on autonomy (Benson, 2001:155). Oscarsoon (1989) underlines four main benefits of self-assessment for learners. He concludes that learners are able to evaluate the effectiveness of their communication, to be aware of the learning process and to stimulate them to consider course content and assessment critically, to enhance their knowledge of the variety of possible goals in language learning and to expand the criteria for them to evaluate their needs and affective dimensions of the learning process.

In conclusion, classroom-based approaches attempt to foster autonomy by involving learners in decision-making process concerned with the day-to-day management of learning. Through these approaches, the learners may develop the capacity to define and determine the content of their learning (Benson, 2001).

2.3.5.5. Curriculum-based Approaches

The curriculum-based approaches to autonomy extend the principle of learner control over the management of learning to the curriculum as a whole. In curriculum-based approaches, the learners are expected to make the major decisions concerning the content and procedures of learning in collaboration with their teachers (Benson, 2001). Nunan (2004) adds that learners are closely involved in the decision making process concerning the content of their own learning and how it should be taught. They can also be described as “deep-end” approaches, in which learners are expected to develop the capacity for control over their learning by exercising their autonomy at a number of levels (Benson, 2001). In addition, they may improve the capacity to define the content of their learning through the curriculum guidelines since the learners can develop the control over both cognitive and content aspects of learning. The process syllabus has been given importance in the development of autonomy because learners tend to create their own syllabus or adjust the syllabus while their needs are being taken into account. There have been some examples on curriculum-based approaches in the literature. Dam (1995) reported a study with Danish learners of English and she concluded that students had the chance to be involved in making decisions about their own learning process. Another key study conducted by Hall and Kenny (1988) was in Thailand. They developed pre-sessional English courses at the Asian Institute of Technology and it was demonstrated that the most remarkable thing observed is a “startling increase in confidence and ability” (Benson, 2001).

Curriculum-based approaches are highly efficient due to the fact the learners may develop their capacity to take control over learning via the decisions they make.

2.3.5.6. Teacher-based Approaches

The roles the foreign language teachers have played in the context of language learning have contributed to either the success or the failure of the learners for a considerable time. During this period, the teachers have changed their roles so

much that it may be a demanding job to state all of them, namely; coordinator, facilitator, counselor, consultant, adviser, In the recent literature on autonomy, there has been an increasing tendency to focus on the teacher's role in autonomous learning. Voller (1997) underlines just three of them; facilitator, counselor and resource, in autonomous learning. He also itemizes some important characteristic of the roles associated with autonomy under the headings of technical and psycho-social support.

The key features of technical support are:

1. helping learners to plan and carry out their independent language learning by means of needs analysis (both learning and language needs), objective setting (both short and longer term, achievable), work-planning, selecting materials, and organizing interactions;
2. helping learners evaluate themselves (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and self and peer-assessment)
3. helping learners to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above (by raising their awareness of language and learning, by providing learner training to help them identify learning styles and appropriate strategies.)

The key features of psycho-social are:

1. the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, emphatic, open, non-judgment)
2. a capacity for motivating learners (encouraging, commitment, dispersing uncertainty, helping learners to overcome obstacles, being prepared to enter into a dialog with learners, avoiding manipulating, objectifying or interfering with, in other words, controlling them)
3. an ability to raise learners' awareness (to "decondition" them from preconceptions, about learner and teacher roles, to help them perceive the utility of, or necessity for independent learning)

Additionally, Breen and Mann (1997) believe that teachers must believe in the learners' capacity to assert their autonomy and be prepared to live through the consequences for their own practice.

To conclude, teacher-based approaches are very valuable since teacher's commitment to the idea of autonomy and professional skills are a crucial factor in their effectiveness.

After reviewing all these approaches to foster learner autonomy in practice, we may reach a conclusion that no single method of fostering autonomy can be considered the best one. On the contrary, if autonomy constitutes several different aspects of language learning, it seems likely that it will be best fostered through a combination of all these approaches mentioned above. Benson (2001) maintains this idea by mentioning that "there is no unique technique or method to promote autonomy."

2.3.6. Learner Autonomy and Language Learning Strategies

Defining learning strategies requires much patience and effort because they are frequently used to refer to several different meanings by various researchers and educators. As a consequence, there have been some conflicts to define learning strategies on the literature up to date. Some key definitions will be given in a detailed way as follows.

Learning strategies are the strategies which contribute to the development of the language system in which the learner constructs and affects learning directly (Rubin, 1987). Another important definition made by Oxford (1990) defines that learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learners to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations. Lastly, Wenden (1991) defines that learning strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so. What may be deduced in all the definitions is that learning strategies

exist to make the learning process much easier and more permanent for the learners aspiring to acquire a foreign language and they also seem to be useful for the promotion of learner autonomy.

The classification of learning strategies has been a controversial issue as well as the definitions of those over the last two decades. Wenden (1983, cited in Wenden, 1991) classified the strategies used by adult foreign language learners to direct their own learning into three categories a) knowing what language and language learning involves, b) planning the content and methods of learning and c) self-evaluation of progress and learning experience. In addition to this classification, Oxford (1990) divides the strategies into direct strategies, which includes the mental process of learning a language and indirect strategies which advocate learning through “focusing, planning, evaluating, seeking opportunities, controlling anxiety, increasing cooperation and empathy and other means” After this classification, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) made a new classification based on three major categories that will be examined below under the sub-headings. According to them, learning strategies have been differentiated into three categories depending on the level or type of process involved.

2.3.6.1. Cognitive Strategies

Cognitive strategies are operations carried out directly on the material to be learned by the learner (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). Another definition comes from Wenden (1991), she defines that cognitive strategies are mental steps or operations that learners use to process both linguistic and sociolinguistic content.

2.3.6.2. Metacognitive Strategies

Metacognitive Strategies utilize the knowledge of cognitive progression to regulate learning process (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). Brown (1983, cited in O’Malley and Chamot, 1990) states that metacognitive strategies are higher order

executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring or evaluating the success of a learning activity.

Livingston (2003) argues that the difference between the concepts of metacognitive strategies and cognitive strategies is based on the idea that cognitive strategies are the strategies to help a learner achieve a particular goal such as understanding a text while metacognitive strategies are used to ensure that the goal has been reached such as quizzing oneself to evaluate one's understanding of that text.

With regard to the relationship between learner autonomy and metacognitive strategies, Victorio and Lockhart (1995) have mentioned the use of effective metacognitive strategies to help students to develop a more active and autonomous attitude enabling them to take control of their own learning. Wenden (1991) emphasizes the importance of metacognitive strategies by stating that “metacognitive knowledge about language learning is the second kind of learner training content to be included in learning plans to develop learner autonomy.” The development of metacognition through learner training is crucial and its evaluation is central to the search for proof of the efficacy of promoting autonomy (Sinclair, 1999). As Wenden (1998, cited in Thanasoulas, 2000) observes, “without strategies, learners will remain trapped in their old patterns of beliefs and behaviors and never be fully autonomous”.

2.3.6.3. Social and Affective Strategies

Social and Affective Strategies are the strategies used to describe the ways in which learners cooperate with others and control themselves in order to boost their learning (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). The components of each strategy, social, such as asking questions, cooperating with others and empathizing with others, and affective, such as lowering anxiety, encouraging yourself and taking your emotional temperature are very efficient in terms of promotion of learner autonomy since they all enable the learners to be encouraged to take actions and make important decisions

while learning a foreign language.

Research on autonomy requires the study on learning strategies owing to the fact that they are largely related to learners' selection. The reason why learning strategies are so important in the process of fostering learner autonomy may be mentioned under the two major reasons according to Chamot (2001) as well. First reason is that language learning process including cognitive, social and affective processes will be best understood if the current strategies of learners are discovered. The second one is that identifying the strategy profile of foreign language learners will provide useful insight for training less successful learners who are thought to lack the awareness of strategy use in the learning process. Wenden (1987) argues that learning strategies may help learners understand the nature of a language and the requisites of the language learning process. Learning strategies may help learners in planning the content of their own learning, in determining the methods and techniques to be used and in self-evaluating the learning process and learning experiences. In order to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning, it is essential to help them become aware of and identify the strategies that they already use or could potentially use (Holmes and Ramos, 1991, cited in James and Garrett, 1991). Learning strategies are one category of learner training content to be included in plans to help learners become more autonomous (Wenden, 1991). Learning strategies may help learners to monitor and self-evaluate their language learning performance and also transfer successful learning strategies to new learning contexts (Cohen, 1998).

As concluded from what has been mentioned above so far, learning strategies are very efficient to cover in terms of promoting learner autonomy on account of the fact they generally lead the learners to direct and take charge of their own learning process in a more conscious and effective sense.

2.3.7. Motivation in an Autonomous Classroom

According to Pintrich and Schunk (1996) motivation lies at the heart of all classroom practices. Motivation is being responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it (Dörnyei, 2001). Most educators (Dörnyei, 1998; Brown, 2001; Van Lier, 1996) believe that the more motivation the learners have, the more effort they tend to put into language learning. It leads to success in language learning. Types of motivation are classified into several groups taking into account how it is processed.

2.3.7.1. Types of Motivation

What stimulates human behavior can either lead to intrinsic motivation or extrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation stems from innate sources, such as human curiosity and willingness to engage in challenging activities. In extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, external factors influence individual's motivation (Brophy, 1998). Self-determination theory (SDT) is a recent motivation theory that perceives people's choices as the determinants of behavior rather than external forces and pressures (Deci and Ryan, 1985). Self-efficacy theory refers to people's self-perceptions about their competencies based on their skills and knowledge (Kaçar and Günseli, 2005). Lastly, attribution theory is concerned with learners' perceptions of the reasons for success and failure in learning (Benson, 2001: 69).

2.3.7.2. The Relations Between Autonomy and Motivation

Motivation plays a key role in autonomous learning. Dickinson (1995) suggests that enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning and noticing that their successes or failures are related to their own efforts rather than to the factors out of their control. In any case, it seems to be

relatively true. Intrinsic motivation increases when people are given opportunities to choose activities that are appealing and challenging to them, have opportunities to develop their abilities, and permit individuals to take control over their learning (Brown, 2001; Noels, Clement and Pelletier, 1999). Consequently, learner autonomy may be encouraged once intrinsic motivation is handled in the classroom atmosphere. Deci and Ryan also (1985) underline that intrinsic motivation is necessary for the precursor of autonomy. Students are less likely to self regulate and take responsibility for learning if their reason for learning is extrinsic (Childs, 2005). Scharle and Szabo (2000) believe that we need to encourage intrinsic motivation, the source of which is some inner drive or interest of the learner. They add that intrinsically motivated learners are able to identify with goals of learning, which makes them more willing to take responsibility for the outcome. Students who are intrinsically motivated are more involved in learning and they use strategies to promote deeper understanding and future application of that learning (Ersöz, 2001). The actions of an autonomous learner will be congruent with sense of self and in line with personal beliefs, attitudes and values (Fazey and Fazey, 2001). On the other hand, self-determination theory provides the individuals with the opportunity to take conscious control over their actions. In self-determined activities, human beings have control over the direction of their behaviors, and autonomy in choices leads to higher levels of motivation (Deci and Ryan 1985). Additionally, Dörnyei (2001) believes that the relevance of autonomy to motivation in psychology has been best highlighted by the influential ‘self-determination theory’, according to which the freedom to choose and to have choices, rather than being forced or coerced to behave according to someone’s else desire, is a prerequisite to motivation.

2.3.8. Ways and Views to Enhance LA in EFL

With the tendency to the individualized instruction, learning how to learn has become a very exhilarating concept to focus and study in the field of foreign language teaching/learning. As a result of this tendency, a sparkling interest in the study of autonomous learning processes has been evident over the past two decades.

The promotion of learner autonomy is an important explicit goal of the language programme within the courses. It is also believed that promoting learner autonomy should be very profitable for learners as they get consciously involved in language processing and begin to develop their individual strategies (Opalka, 2001). Learner autonomy is promoted through the provision of circumstances and contexts for language learners which will make it more likely that they take charge- at least temporarily- of the whole or part of their language learning programme, and which are more likely to help rather than prevent learners from exercising their autonomy (Cotteral, 1995). It may not be that difficult to bump into several ways and views to enhance learner autonomy in EFL. Among them, Dickinson (1992) identifies six ways “in which the teacher can promote greater learner independence”:

1. legitimizing independence in learning by showing that we, as teachers, approve, and by encouraging the students to be more independent;
2. convincing learners that they are capable of greater independence in learning -give them successful experiences of independent learning;
3. giving learners opportunities to exercise their independence;
4. helping learners to develop learning strategies so that they can exercise their independence;
5. helping learners to become more aware of language as a system so that they can understand many of the learning techniques available and learn sufficient grammar to understand simple reference books;
6. sharing with learners something of what we know about language learning so that they have a greater awareness of what to expect from the language learning task and how they should react to problems that erect barriers to learning.

Nunan (1997) has proposed a programme for gradually increasing the degree of autonomy of the learners by suggesting five levels for encouraging learner autonomy. In Nunan’s Level One, ‘Awareness’, learners are made aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using. The process by which

learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles/strategies is facilitated by the sections on planning and learning styles and strategies. In Level Two, 'Involvement', where learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer, it offers some example goals in its section explaining a page from the Learner Diary. In Level Three, 'Intervention', learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning program. The planning of learners' work is an on-going process of modification and adaptation in the light of previous work as learners move through the process from planning to evaluation, and as the results of the evaluation feed back into planning further work. In Level Four, 'Creation', learners create their own goals and objectives. They graduate from use or reliance on the learner pathways to being able to create their own goals and objectives. This is explained in the sections on planning. In the last level, 'Transcendence', learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond.

Littlewood (1997) gives a detailed explanation on how autonomy develops in the process of language learning. According to Littlewood (1997), there are three important features to be taken into account when developing learner autonomy.

- a) Language teacher aims to develop students' ability to operate independently with the language and use the language to communicate in real, unpredictable situations.
- b) Language teachers aim to help their students to develop their ability to take responsibility for their own learning and to apply active, personally meaningful strategies to their work both inside and outside the classroom.
- c) And at last, helping their students to increase their ability to communicate and learn independently, language teachers also try to reach the goal of helping their students to develop greater generalized autonomy as individuals.

Brajcich (2000) suggests the twelve ways to promote learner autonomy below.

1. Encourage students to be interdependent and to work collectively. The less students depend on their teacher, the more autonomy is being developed.
2. Ask students to keep a diary of their learning experiences. Through practice, students may become more aware of their learning preferences and start to think of new ways of becoming more independent learners.
3. Explain teacher/student roles from the outset. Asking students to give their opinions on the issue of roles could be beneficial.
4. Progress gradually from interdependence to independence. Give the students time to adjust to new learning strategies and do not expect too much too soon.
5. Give the students projects to do outside the classroom. Such projects may increase motivation.
6. Give the students non-lesson classroom duties to perform (taking roll, writing instructions, notices, etc. on the board for the teacher)
7. Have the students design lessons or materials to be used in class.
8. Instruct students on how to use the school's resource centers: the school library, the language lab, and the language lounge.
9. Emphasize the importance of peer-editing, corrections, and follow-up questioning in the classroom.
10. Encourage the students to use only English in class. Tell the students that this is a great chance for them to use only English, and few opportunities like this exist for them. Part of the role of the language teacher is to create an environment where students feel they should communicate in the target language and feel comfortable doing so.
11. Stress fluency rather than accuracy.
12. However, do allow the students to use reference books, including dictionaries (preferably English-English with Japanese annotations), in class.

Cotteral (1995) believes that all learning is the product of interaction: learner autonomy does not arise spontaneously from within the learner but develops out of the learner's dialogue with the world to which he or she belongs. Therefore, we, as teachers and educators, ought to be patient enough if we desire to help our learners become more autonomous learners, taking charge of their own learning and directing what they have acquired due to the fact that it does not happen over night, as Cotteral said above. On the contrary, autonomy is a process that enables learners to be responsible for their own learning through strategies and techniques applied in the learning process.

Notwithstanding the fact that promoting learner autonomy is significance of the language classrooms and vital for the higher education, Gardner and Miller (1999) assert that there are various reports in the literature about learner resistance towards autonomy. According to Sinclair and Ellis (1984, cited in Gardner and Miller, 1999), many of the students, taking part in a language enhancement programme in England, considered that it was the responsibility of the teacher to perform the learning process itself. Another striking conclusion drawn by Willing, whose study is with the reference to the study of migrant adults' learning styles, (1988, cited in Gardner and Miller, 1999) was that only 3 % of those surveyed responded positively to the statement "I like to study English by myself (alone)." Briefly, the fact that there is still doubt of many learners' feelings associated with the proposal of "self-teaching" remains vague in a sense. In other words, several problems have been encountered while aiming to foster learner autonomy in the actual learning process.

2.3.9. The Principles and Implementation of Lerner Autonomy

Cotteral (1999) identified six important variables in the promotion of autonomous language learning. They include the role of the teacher, the role of feedback, and the learners' sense of self-efficacy, important strategies, dimensions of strategies-related behavior, and the nature of language learning. In this section, some

of them found in her study and more variables will be reviewed.

2.3.9.1. Curriculum and Syllabus

Any curriculum for the autonomous learners should match as closely as possible the learning process to which the students are exposed during their learning period with the way our memories and cognitive structures work (Raya and Fernandez, 2001). Following this idea, there must be a mutual relationship between teacher and learner in a curriculum designed to promote learner autonomy because it is vitally important for the learners to be taken into consideration and to be respected, which makes the syllabus and curriculum a bit more flexible. In order for a learner to understand the nature of a language and to formulate learning goals, learning process, facilities available and negotiation between learners and teachers on the curriculum is essential (Bloor and Bloor, 1988, cited in Sancar, 2001). The curriculum becomes a way of organizing what the learner wants to do, rather than sequencing of knowledge (Kenny, 1993). In a course which seeks to foster language learners' autonomy, time is devoted to raising learners' awareness of ways of identifying goals, specifying objectives, identifying resources and strategies needed to achieve goals and measuring progress (Cotteral, 1995). Nunan (2004) shores up this belief by stating that "learners are closely involved in the decision making process concerning the content of their own learning and how it should be taught." It is merely a fact the learners will become more autonomous through decision-making processes that will enable them to be in the middle of their own learning in this road. Another important component of an autonomous curriculum is that the ideal curriculum should include a variety of learning activities, materials, techniques so that learners can choose the appropriate ones that meet their own learning goals and styles of learning (Brown, 2001). As a consequence, the learners may develop their language skills and the ability to select their goals, identify their future outcomes about the language following the principles of the curriculum mentioned above.

2.3.9.1.1. Materials

The fact that learner autonomy has become relatively a crucial concept as an educational aim over the last three decades has urged the materials writers, educators and teachers to ponder over the importance of the materials to be exploited in the classrooms. The design of tasks and materials which effectively promote such learner independent has become a current issue of concern for materials writers and teachers (Sinclair, 1996). Promotion of autonomy in the language classroom requires an appropriate approach to the use of learning materials, plus a rigorous examination of available materials and the view of learning that they demonstrate (Finch, 2001). According to Dickinson (1987), there are three sources of materials for self-instruction: authentic texts used directly by the learner, commercially available courses and other materials used after they are or offer adaptation. The reasons why they are valid materials for the promotion of learner autonomy in a language learning context are that authentic texts enable the learners to be able to cover the realistic features of that language, that they make the learners to be involved in this setting, and that the learners can acquire easily whatever they are in need of without obstacles. Additionally, McGarry (1995) argues that the use of authentic materials in language learning helps foster autonomy by enabling learners to match learning opportunities to their needs and to create of the conditions under which students can most successfully exploit these opportunities. Gardner and Miller (1999) also offer four kinds of materials to be used in self-access language learning. They are published language-learning materials, authentic materials, specifically produced materials and students contributions materials. Little (1989, cited in Gardner and Miller, 1999) pinpoints that the authentic texts are likely to motivate learners and promote acquisition.

The choice of the materials which will be used in the classroom atmosphere is great of significance in an autonomous classroom due to the fact that it is assumed that learners can develop the capacity to identify what kind of materials in the aim of reaching their learning goals more properly. Lee (1996) highlights the criteria which

effective self-access learning materials have to meet. According to Lee, firstly, they must be highly interesting and motivating. Secondly, they have to be well-structured, systematic and accompanied with clear and simple instructions. Thirdly, they should be good-quality materials chosen or designed by teachers. Lastly, they ought to include the qualities of learning materials. As for what kind of materials to be utilized in the autonomous classrooms, there seems to be a consensus among educators as to what is required. Autonomous learners must be able to range freely in their choice of learning materials and tasks (Little, 1990a). Little (1991) suggests that the learners should be provided with access to as wide range of materials as possible, such as written and audio-visual data, reference books, including dictionaries and grammars, newspapers and magazines, learner-designed material. They should be encouraged to use learning materials on their own in accordance with their individual needs and interests. Besides, Little (1994) gives impression that, *Autotutor*, an interactive video system in which segments of authentic video are embedded in a computer, can provide a stimulus of the interaction of learner and user perspectives essential to the development of autonomy. Sheerin (1997) offers a list of material types to be utilized for the development of autonomy. Guided discovery tasks based on authentic data, questionnaires designed to help learners clarify or challenge their beliefs about their language learning, study guides for language practice activities not based on didactic materials, fluency activities for pairs and groups together with checklists and guidelines for self-and peer evaluation, student-generated materials and standard reading and listening exercises designed for a particular genre rather than a particular text. Learner-selected and learner designed materials- journals, posters, texts of various kinds, perhaps audio or video recordings provide clues to the teachers about the learners' preferences, interests and needs (Dam, 1995). These materials may also help learners monitor and evaluate their progress. In addition, classroom techniques and materials provide learners so that they can take initiatives that shape their own learning (Little, 1994). In other words, the primary concern for both teachers and learners is to select materials that can give rise to learners' individual processes (Dam, 1995). Hence, the mutual consensus between learner and teacher is highly required in terms of selecting materials.

2.3.9.1.2. Assignments

Generally, assignments give the learners the opportunity to be able to exercise and revise what they have acquired in the process of learning a foreign language. Since it is obvious from the definition of ‘learning’, learners ought to be exposed to some assignments and practice so as to become competent enough at any subject. Homework is frequently seen as a necessary evil rather than an important contribution to learner autonomy (Harmer, 2001). However, Little (1994) cites that assignments play an important role in the development of learner autonomy because learners should use the target language in extended periods of time in the world for the development of learner autonomy. Learner autonomy gets a powerful boost the first time that homework is set for students to do out of class and they will have to study without the help of a teacher (Harmer, 2001). Homework assignments urge learners regularly to step back from the process of learning and reflect on how well they did as a group or as an individual (Benson, 2001). The crucial thing to be considered while planning an assignment for the learners is that they should be related to the things in which the learners are personally involved or interested in and something they can manage on their own. As a consequence, learners should be involved in the process of determining the content of homework assignments (Little, 1994).

2.3.9.1.3. Outside Tasks

Task in the context of language learning has been used as a “label for various activities including grammar exercises, practice activities and role plays” (Willis, 1996). Through tasks, the learners may be free to use any language they can to achieve the outcome and adopt strategies which sometimes lead them to ignore grammatical niceties and to create for themselves forms which are not sanctioned by the target norms (Willis and Willis, 2001). Learners learn how to talk to negotiate meaning, convey the message and listen for a reason so that they can establish solid links between the classroom and the world outside the school and improve their

social abilities as well as their proficiency levels (Lier, 1996). Learners should be provided with tasks that necessitate which learners interact with each other and that involve all participants in completing the activity (Brown, 2001) owing to the fact that learners are given the chance to observe themselves, evaluate their performance and direct their own learning through tasks appointed.

2.3.9.1.4. Journals

It is widely accepted that journals are great of importance in the promotion of learner autonomy from different perspectives due to the fact that keeping journals enables the learners to do a lot of vital things on their own. Harmer (2001) suggests that many teachers ask students to keep journals or diaries of their learning experiences, in the hope that their students will then reflect on their lessons, explore their successes and difficulties, and come to a greater understanding about learning and language. By keeping a written account of their work and their reflection on it, learners gain deeper insights into their learning processes (Gardner and Miller, 1999). According to Wenden (1998), a good way of collecting information on how students go about a learning task and helping them become aware of their own strategies is to assign a task and have them report what they are thinking while they are performing it. Learners can gain valuable data for research into the language-learning process and have the opportunity to practice writing on a regular basis through journals. According to Little (1990a), the study fulfilled in Scandinavia revealed that journals enabled the learners to keep an individual record of the learning undertaken and assesses how well or badly particular tasks have been done. It is an imperative step to lead the learners to keep a journal which shows their current picture of learning a foreign language.

2.3.9.1.5. Portfolios

Portfolio is described as a purposeful collection of a student's work that provides evidence of the student's skills, understandings or attitudes. In a portfolio, the learners are expected to gather the information which displays how far they have progressed. According to Kohonen (2000), language teachers can facilitate their students to become aware of the wide range of goals and learning outcomes connected with the language learning. Moreover, learners use their portfolio to collect evidence of their achievements over a period of time and thus present for assessment what they consider to be the best picture of their abilities (Gardner and Miller, 1999). Genesee and Upshur (1996) add that portfolios can provide information about students' views of their own learning and the strategies that they apply. The benefits of portfolios are also clarified by them in a detailed way. As Genesee and Upshur accentuate (1996), portfolios may promote student involvement in assessment, responsibility for self-assessment and student ownership of and responsibility for their own learning. Through portfolios, the learners can assess their own learning and become more self-directed and motivated by examining and reflecting on their own work and the work of their peers.

2.3.9.1.6. Learner Logs

Learning logs are the structured student journals because learning logs include prompts that the student has to complete and as a result the learner is directed towards critical thinking about his learning process (Egel, 2003).

As to the benefits of learning logs, they are nearly the same as those of the portfolios in that they provide the learners with the opportunity to observe themselves, to become aware of what they have or have not acquired, and to explore the reasons. Keeping a language learning log provides students with a concrete record of their activities and progress during the course (Brown, 1998). Genesee and Upshur (1996) indicate that learners themselves can use their learning logs for self-

assessment, to monitor their progress towards achieving their personal goals or the objectives of other content areas, and to identify areas difficulty linguistic or non-linguistic. The reflective skills, which the learners use while keeping a learning log, will aid the students' development of learner autonomy.

2.3.9.1.7. Feedback

In the context of teaching in general, feedback is the information that is given to the learner about his or her performance of a learning task, usually with the objective of improving this performance (Ur, 1996). Therefore, since the learners are expected to take over their own learning process in an autonomous learning, feedback gains a lot more importance on the products fulfilled in the classroom environment.

2.3.9.1.8. Type of Work: Individual, Pair or Group Work

The choice of which activities are going to be applied in the classroom concerns for what a teacher is aiming for. Activities that are designed to perform several different aims are usually arranged according to the atmosphere of the classroom and the relations between the teacher and the learner. Learners can be required to operate on a task using an interactional style of group arrangements, pair work, and individual study, or whole-class participation, depending upon the nature of the task or teacher and learner preferences (Dörnyei, 2001). Learner autonomy highly favors pair and group work rather than individual work in the classroom because pair and group work develop learners' capacity to use target language as a medium of communication (Little, 1994). The individual and group project work that forms a central part of learning activity in any autonomous classroom finds its most satisfactory focus in authentic materials (Little, 1990a). Moreover, Dörnyei (2001) claims that learning situations in which individuals act as active participants are revealed to be more stimulating.

2.3.9.1.9. Selection of Activities

There exist numerous activities designed to promote learner autonomy in which the learners are actively participated. Activities aiming to promote autonomy are often presented in an unprincipled and inexplicit way (Sinclair and Ellis, 1992). Littlejohn (1985) argues that the type of classroom activities designed to promote learner autonomy should be carefully chosen and taken from real life. The activities mentioned are to be related to the needs and interests of the learners so that they may feel of a part of the community. They generally develop the feeling of ownership over their learning because they give the chance to be able to direct their own learning process. Little (1990a) adds that learning activities in the autonomous classroom also need to be supported by some kind of source centre that embraces the spoken as well as the written language and ideally equipped with audio, video and computer technologies. Gardner and Miller (1999) offer various kinds of activities such as workshops, English club, TV viewing, Native Speaker Contacts.

2.3.9.1.10. Classroom Setting

Classroom setting is an important factor, reflecting a number of relevant features of the teaching/learning situation (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986). They add that factors such as the number of the students and teachers in the classroom and whether the desks are fixed or easily arranged might be very important considerations when planning the atmosphere of the classroom. In a classroom where the atmosphere is friendly and supportive, students are more willing to take risks in using the new language (McKay and Tom, 2001). The physical settings, equipment and furniture used with self-access language learning have an important role in instilling and maintaining learner motivation (Gardner and Miller, 1999). In order for learners to feel they have control over their own learning and learning environments, they should be able to determine for themselves because learners naturally fall into a comfortable pattern of self-selection (Brown, 2001). The classroom itself needs to be easy to be organized and must involve the students “owners” of the facilities

rather than simply users. What is more, according to Gardner and Miller (1999), the teacher needs to be able to turn the classroom into a different type of setting quickly and easily so that students can feel freer to organize their learning. Seating of students should be arranged in a way that the teacher can lead the learners to choose the content, respect for themselves, which is the key element to promote learner autonomy in the foreign language classrooms. What should look like in the autonomous language classroom in terms of classroom setting is shown in figure 2 below.

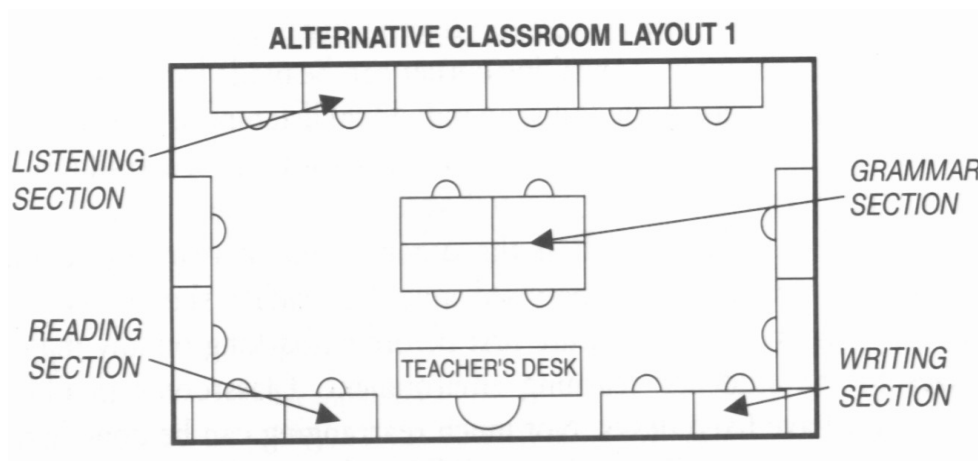


Figure 2: An alternative classroom layout in an autonomous classroom
(Gardner and Miller, 1999: 142)

2.3.9.1.11. Classroom Management

It has long been observed in the classrooms that teacher authorities the classroom without consulting the learners' needs and interests and directs the classroom on the beliefs based on his experiences. This can not be the case due to the changes we have encountered in terms of several various aspects. It is widely accepted that the learners will not be willing to take more actions to take responsibility for their own learning unless they are involved in the process of determining the classroom rules and principles, which has the learners lack the sense of belonging. Therefore, in order for the learners to feel the ownership over their learning contexts, they can be encouraged to formulate classroom and group rules

through negotiation (Dörnyei, 2001). According to Littlejohn (1983, cited in Gardner and Miller, 1999) the learners may be encouraged to take more control over the management of their own study both inside and outside the classroom. In order to be a member of a community where a learner desires to acquire the language, they ought to be involved in determining the norms. There is likely to be little control over many of the learners in a self-access classroom (Gardner and Miller, 1999). It is merely a fact that learners can contribute to the management of self-access learning. Dörnyei claims (2001) that they naturally tend to abide by these rules without teachers' having to exercise their authority. For the promotion of learner autonomy, it is essential for the teachers to make a negotiation between the two faces of the learning process, teacher and learner, on the basis of rules and norms. Otherwise, it is bound that the learners will feel miserable and have difficulty struggling with the problems occurred in the classrooms.

2.3.9.1.12. Learner Contract

In traditional education, the learning activity is structured by the teacher and the institution. Learners who have no clear idea of their objectives, who are wandering from one piece of material to another with no definite idea of where they are progressing, or what they want to achieve, very quickly get dispirited and are likely to give up their attempts at language learning (Dickinson, 1987). Learner contract is an arrangement between the learner and the tutor or between the learner and himself. Learning contracts are considered by practitioners in adult education to be a significant means for fostering self-direction and expectancy for success. They are effective for assisting adults in understanding their learning interests, planning learning activities, identifying relevant resources, and becoming skilled at self-assessment (Wlodkowski, 1999). In order to overcome this, learning contracts provide a vehicle for making the planning of learning experiences a mutual understanding between a learner and any helper, mentor, or teacher (Hiemstra, 1994). Through learner contracts, the learners can diagnose their personal needs, objectives, identify resources, choose strategies and evaluate accomplishments the learner

develops. Therefore, using learner contracts in an autonomous learning environment may provide the learners to take charge their own learning process, for they feel that there should be responsibility among the teacher and learner.

2.3.9.2. Learner and Teacher Roles in Autonomous Learning

There would need to be a shift of emphasis and a gradual change of attitude on the part of both the teacher and pupils' when preparing learners for independence (Dickinson and Carver, 1980). In the light of this statement, the changing roles of the teacher and the learner will be scrutinized below.

2.3.9.2.1. Learner Role

In the previous sections the attitudes and dispositions of an autonomous learner in an EFL context were given in a detail way and from different authors and perspectives. Briefly, an autonomous learner is ready and willing to take his own learning and aware of the learning process he will come across. It is time to clarify what an autonomous learner does in his learning process in the classroom atmosphere.

The learners have traditionally relied very heavily on their teachers as managers of their learning (Carter, 2001). Benson (2001) adds that learners who were used to teacher-centered education would need to be psychologically prepared for more learner-centered learning. It may not be demanding to conclude that learners have considerably altered their roles in a more autonomous classroom. Learner awareness is regarded as a very crucial component in the promotion of learner autonomy. Through awareness, learners may set up learning goals, plan and practice learning activities, select and use appropriate learning strategies, monitor their progress, and actively engage in the learning process (Holec, 1981; Little, 2004). Another crucial thing is the choice that the learner has in the autonomous classroom.

At the heart of learner autonomy lies the concept of choice (Cotteral, 1995). It is the learner who chooses what he will acquire in the learning process rather than the teacher. Learner training, the third factor, is increasingly being advocated as a way of preparing students to get the best out of autonomous learning (Dickinson, 1988). In order to help students become autonomous, it would be more effective to provide learner training (Lee, 1998), which is the key component for the promotion of learner autonomy. Dickinson (1993) alleges that learner training should aim to help learners develop the ability to take more responsibility for their own learning. Lastly, a closer look at the fundamental principle of autonomous learning reveals that the locus of control and responsibility lies primarily in the hands of the individual learner (Pierson, 1996). Autonomous learners are willing to take on the responsibility for their learning –they see themselves as having a crucial role in their language learning (Wenden, 1991). Dubin and Olshtain (1986) argue that the learners are put into situations in which they must share responsibilities, make decisions, evaluate their own progress, develop individual preferences, and so on.

2.3.9.2.2. Teacher Role

The majority of students are still being taught in ways which promote dependence and leave them ill-equipped to apply their school-learned knowledge and skills to the world beyond the classroom (McGarry, 1995). From this view, it does not seem to be that difficult to conclude that it is the teacher who plays the central role to make the learners become more autonomous in the language classroom. In order for self-access language learning to be successful, teachers must prepare their students to accept more responsibility for their learning than they may be accustomed to (Gardner and Miller, 1999). Little (1995) props up that teachers need freedom so that they can apply their autonomy in teaching. If, as teachers, we are to succeed in promoting learner autonomy, we need to understand how our learners perceive autonomous learning and their responsibilities in learning (Lee, 1998). Therefore, it is very important for the teachers to become aware of their own and their learners' beliefs and attitudes when attempting to promote autonomy. Attempts to theorize the

process of 'autonomisation' (Little, 2000) have been strongly influenced by neo-Vygotskian psychology, which sees learning as a matter of supported performance and emphasizes the interdependence of the cognitive and social-interactive dimensions of the learning process. According to this model, the teacher's role is to create and maintain a learning environment in which learners can be more autonomous in order to take the responsibility. In the promotion of learner autonomy, teachers role have greatly changed from the traditional one, like source-giver, to the more modern and active roles. Unlike them, learner autonomy requires teachers to act as catalysts, discussants, consultants, observers, analysts, facilitators and counselor to stimulate the learning process in various ways (Little, 1991). The role of the teacher in an autonomous classroom is facilitator rather than the role of teacher as authority (Brookfield, 1994). By the guidance of the teachers, learners who are encouraged to alter their styles of learning are likely to set their idealistic goals, plan their own programs and be aware of their perspective of how to learn. It is also crucial for the teacher to establish a good relationship with learners, supporting and guiding them in their learning, e.g. by helping them formulate their goals more clearly, and providing feedback, encouragement, and reinforcement. The teachers see their learners as partners, motivate them by encouraging responsibility and self-confidence and lead them to discover the solutions once they are blocked by an obstacle. Therefore, teachers ought to create a relaxed learning atmosphere where “the learners participate actively in and contribute to classroom activities, explore alternative solutions to problems, evaluate critically the teacher’s decision on management, materials and give alternative suggestions and initiate appropriate learning activities in and outside class through independent action”. (Chan, 2001b)

Teachers need to be sensitized to the students’ own beliefs and attitudes as a first step in becoming aware of any changes in their roles when working with their students in self-access mode (Gardner and Miller, 1999). In addition, teachers train learners to gradually become more active, reflective and critical thinkers in using learning strategies for their own learning as well as encouraging them to initiate experimental practice inside and outside the classroom (Dam, 1995).

2.3.9.3. Assessment in Learner Autonomy

In an autonomous classroom... evaluation is viewed as the pivot of good learning/teaching cycle (Cotteral, 1995). The tradition of teacher-centered and didactic learning modes has a significant effect on students' learning (Chan, 2001a). With the advent of communicative language teaching, unlike the traditional testing methods, for instance oral and written exams, the innovations fulfilled in the last three decades, it goes without saying, have altered the way the learner is measured. The term self-assessment has become very important during this time. According to Oscarsoon (1998) there are six different reasons why self-assessment can be beneficial to language learning. First, he emphasizes that self-assessment gives learner training in evaluation which results in benefits to the learning process. Secondly, it provides both learners and teachers a raised level of awareness of perceived levels of abilities. Thirdly, it is highly motivating in terms of goal-orientation. Fourth, the range of assessment techniques is expanded in the classroom through the use of self-assessment. Fifth, by practicing self-assessment, the students can participate in their own evaluation. The sixth reason is that by successfully involving students in their own assessment, beneficial post-course effects will ensue. In the last decade, with the increased attention to learner-centered curriculum, needs analysis, and learner autonomy, the topic of self-assessment has become a particular interest in testing and evaluation (Blanche, 1998). In terms of assessment and evaluation, classrooms which have the development of autonomy as a goal will place great store on training learners in techniques of self-assessment, ongoing monitoring, self-evaluation and reflection (Nunan, 1996). Blue (1994) cites that interest in self-assessment developed out of a more general interest in the area of autonomous learning or learner independence. Self-assessment enables learners to undertake more responsibility regarding their own learning, identify their weak and strong areas as well as effective language learning strategies and materials (McNamara and Deane, 1995, cited in Kuçuroğlu, 1997). Gardner (1999) adds that self-assessments provide the learners with personalized feedback on the effectiveness of their learning strategies, specific learning methods and learners can use this feedback to evaluate

their approach to language learning. Through self-assessment, learners can monitor and reflect on the effectiveness of their own learning progress. They can revise their learning goals, objectives, learning process and the product based on their own feedback from their perceptions and goals (Bailey, 1996, cited in Kuçuroğlu, 1997). What is more, self-assessment enables and encourages learners to share the responsibility of assessment with teachers (Özdere, 2005). To sum up, self-assessment is desirable since it is essential for a learner preparing for autonomy to be able to make some kind of judgment about the accuracy and appropriacy of her performance (Dickinson, 1987).

2.4. Autonomy and Some Examples in Turkey

Apart from the scientific studies performed on learner autonomy in theory, the concept of learner autonomy has not been captured so much attention from the educators in practice in Turkey. Nonetheless, one may recognize a few samples which are currently carried out in Turkey. For instance, in İTÜ Development Foundation, the Private High School of Ekrem Elginkan, learner autonomy has been implemented into foreign language classrooms so that the learners can take control over their learning. The principles of learner autonomy in the classrooms are being utilized with the aim of leading the learners to be responsible for their own learning. Furthermore, learner autonomy is mentioned in the syllabus of Bursa-TED College. As well as İTÜ, some important elements are being carried out there. Lastly, learner autonomy is being performed as a lesson in M.A. by Associate Prof. Dr. F. Hülya Özcan at Anatolian University, Eskişehir.

2.5. Current Developments and Future Trends- ELP

It seems probable that in the next few years much of the research relevant to learner autonomy will be prompted by the desire to explore the impact of the ELP on learners, teachers and educational systems. (Little, 2002)

Up to 2000, there were a great many European Language Portfolio Projects fulfilled in 16 organizations and European countries including Austria, Switzerland, Czech Rep., Germany NRW, France CAEN, France CIEP, Finland, UK CILT, Hungary, Italy UMBRIA, Ireland, Holland, Portugal, Russia, Sweden, Slovenia, CERCLES, EAQUALS, and the European Language Council. What these projects were familiar with learner autonomy was that all these projects aimed to promote autonomy through the development of self-directed learning. For instance, in the Finnish ELP Project report of July 2000, it was mentioned that the key objectives were:

- a) to promote self-directed learning and socially responsible language learning
- b) to develop reflective learning and self-assessment, emphasizing learning to learn in foreign language education
- c) to develop negotiated learning strategies and learner commitment

Another European Language Portfolio Project conducted in Sweden, which started in mid-1999 and ended in July 2000, underlines some relevant features of autonomy. What is emphasized in this project are:

- a) the central role of self-assessment, and self-assessment instruments provided
- b) the usefulness of ELP as a pedagogic instrument supporting reflective language learning and teaching.

Turkey, as a member of the Council of Europe, has done its part in the realm of pilot projects based on ELP. Demirel (2005), the coordinator of the project, carried out the study based on the components of ELP in a variety of schools. 13 kinds of schools from Antalya and Ankara and 35 teachers were appointed for this project. Some seminars to inform the details about the project were performed by the participations of some experts and teachers. This project fulfilled in 2001 aimed at:

- a) promoting lifelong-learning for the citizens
- b) improving the learner strategies which help the learners acquire the language

All these projects illustrate a communicative, action-based, learner-centered view of language learning, similar to that in other Council of Europe projects on needs analysis and learner autonomy and self-assessment (Heyworth, 2001).

2.6. Present Situation in Turkey

It is a fact that the quality of educational system is closely related to the policy the government pursues. Yumuk (2002) describes the Turkish educational system as follows:

“In Turkey recitation is a common mode of teaching in both the primary and secondary educational systems. The majority of learners undergo the process of learning through traditional educational methods in which the teacher is the ‘authority’ rather than the ‘facilitator’.”

As a consequence of the educational system in Turkey, the promotion of learner autonomy seems to be a bit difficult as it is generally defined as traditional and authoritative. Schools are rule-bound institutions in which it is nearly impossible to react against rules.

Because teachers are also educated in the same Turkish educational system, where the teacher is the main authority in the classroom, it might be difficult for them to change their teaching strategies in a short period of time. (Yumuk, 2002)

As a result of this system, the learners do not tend to take responsibility for their own learning during their educational process. It is a fact that many students aspiring to learn English find themselves in a trouble of studying English due to the fact they do not know how to study.

To sum up, the educational system is regarded as being traditional, teacher-centered where the traditional teaching methods are widely utilized. Moreover, the schools are formed in a structure in which the authority is not shared, and individuality and creativity are less encouraged. Therefore, Turkish learners are mostly syllabus dependent, passive and exam oriented. (Özdere, 2005)

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

The research design, the subjects of the study, group selection, experimental treatment procedures, measurement of autonomy, instruments used in this study, the method of data analysis, and administration of the instruments will be reviewed in this chapter.

3.1. Research Design

The aim of this study was to promote learner autonomy through activities and implementation at the Preparatory School, Gazi University. The nature of this study necessitates an experimental design since the focus of exploration is to determine whether there will be any difference in the levels of learner autonomy between the experimental and control group as a consequence of implementing the principles of learner autonomy and activities.

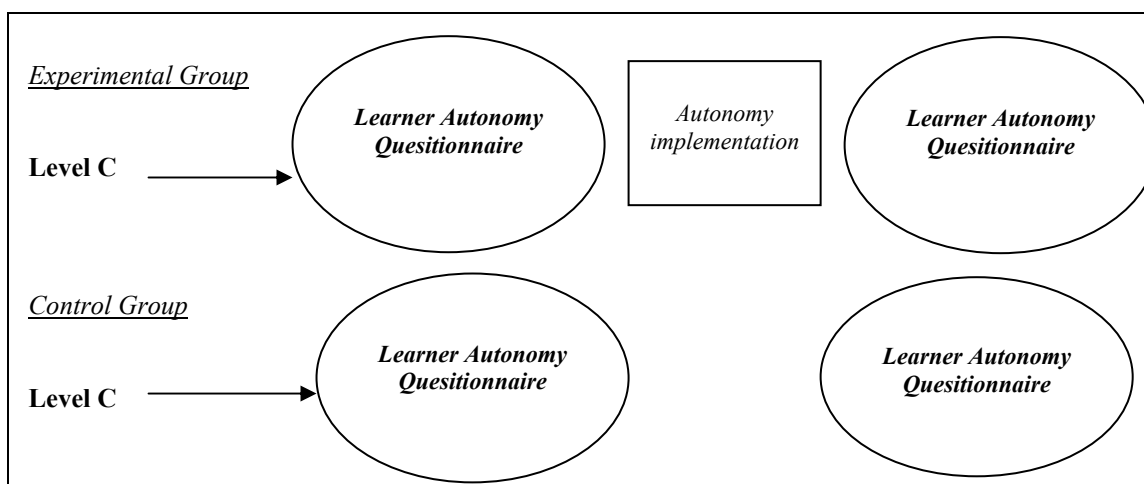


Figure 3: Research Design of the Study (Egel, 2003)

Forty-one learners who study at preparatory school have been chosen as the subjects of this study so as to promote learner autonomy through the activities. There exist two main reasons why preparatory school EFL learners have been used as the subjects in this study. First of all, the learners who are about to commence one-year language programme are on the verge of a long-lasting period, language learning. Once they acquire the basic principles of how to study English in a more effective way, it means that it will probably be unproblematic for them to use it in the future. The earlier they are aware of their language strategies about learning, the easier it will be for them to travel in this path. Secondly, it has been assumed that they are a bit more motivated to learn English since it is inevitably important for them in their future careers and they will not continue studying at their departments unless they pass the preparatory school.

The degree of autonomy was measured through administering the learner autonomy questionnaire before the experimental treatment. Both experimental and control group had the same education with the same teacher and for the same amount of time. With the experimental group, the lessons were carried out through the experimental treatment and principles of autonomy and activities designed to promote learner autonomy while the lessons were conducted with ordinary teaching methods with the control group. This implementation process lasted within 12 weeks. The same questionnaire was administered in both the control and experimental group following the experimental treatment so as to reveal whether any change would exist between the control and experimental group. The data collected for this research comes from the results of the questionnaire subsequent the actual classroom implementation given to the control and experimental group. The questionnaire was applied to 41 learners during the second term of the 2005-2006.

3.2. Subjects and Group Selection

The subjects were 41 learners studying at preparatory school, Gazi University, Ankara. The subjects consisted of 20 students for the experimental and 21 students for the control group. Groups were formed randomly. Due to the fact that the writer of this thesis works at Gazi University, he found it appropriate to select them for this research study as he could control the study very easily.

3.2.1. Experimental Group

Experimental Group consisted of 12 male and 8 female learners. All the students in the experimental group belonged to the same age category ranging from 18 to 23. 8 learners had graduated from Super High School. 6 had graduated from Anatolian High School where attendance to compulsory preparatory school was required. Each 2 learner had graduated from respectively, State High School, Private High School and Vocational High School. Whereas 5 learners were in the day class, 15 learners were in the evening class. The learners were studying at various faculties of Gazi University such as the faculty of Economic and Administrative, the faculty of Engineering and Architecture, the faculty of Technical Education and the faculty of Medicine. When asked whether they liked learning English, 18 of the subjects mentioned that they liked learning whereas only 2 of them did not like learning English. 16 learners of the learners who took part in this study had attended the preparatory school before while 4 learners mentioned that this was the first time they had learned English. 15 learners had been learning English for more than 6 years while 5 learners had been learning for less than 6 years. As for their self recognition of learning English, 14 learners consider their level of English Proficiency to be good, while 5 learners think that they have medium language proficiency. Only 1 learner claims that his level of English is poor.

3.2.2. Control Group

Control Group consisted of 15 male and 6 female learners. All the students in experimental group belonged to the same age category ranging from 18 to 26. 12 learners had graduated from Anatolian High School whereas each 2 learner, respectively, had graduated from the State High School, Super Lycee, Private High School and Vocational High School. Only 1 learner had graduated from High School. Whereas 16 learners were in the day class, 5 learners were in the evening class. The learners were studying at various faculties of the university such as the Faculty of Economic and Administrative, the Faculty of Engineering and Architecture, and the Faculty of Technical Education. When asked whether they liked learning English, 15 of the subjects mentioned that they liked learning whereas only 6 of them claimed they did not like learning English. 19 learners participating in this study had attended the preparatory school before while 2 learners mentioned that this was the first time they had learned English. 13 learners had been learning English for more than six years while 8 learners had been studying English for less than six years. When their self recognition of learning English is examined, 16 learners consider that they have medium language proficiency while 4 learners think their level of English Proficiency is poor. Only 1 learner finds himself good in English.

Table 1: Frequency of the background questionnaire

ITEMS		EXPERIMENTAL		CONTROL	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Gender	Male	12	60,0	15	71,4
	Female	8	40,0	6	28,6
Age	18 – 20	19	95,0	20	95,0
	21 – 26	1	5,0	1	5,0
Lycee Type	Super	8	40,0	2	9,5
	Anatolian	6	30,0	12	57,1
	Private	2	10,0	2	9,5
	State	2	10,0	2	9,5
	Vocational	2	10,0	2	9,5
Education Type	Day Class	15	75,0	16	76,2
	Evening Class	5	25,0	5	23,8
Faculty	Economic and Administrative	10	50,0	6	28,6
	Engineering and Architecture	4	20,0	13	61,9
	Technical Education	2	10,0	2	9,5
	Medicine	4	20,0	-	-
Like/Dislike English	Yes	18	90,0	15	71,4
	No	2	10,0	6	28,6
Previous Prep School Attendance	Yes	16	80,0	19	90,5
	No	4	20,0	2	9,5
Years of Learning English	Less than 6 years	5	25,0	8	38,0
	More than 6 years	15	75,0	13	62,0
Self-recognition of English Level	Good	14	70,0	1	4,8
	Middle	5	25,0	16	76,2
	Bad	1	5,0	4	19,0

3.3. Experimental Treatment for Learner Autonomy

In this chapter, teacher, materials, activities, projects, journals, learner logs, learner contract and portfolios constitute the sub-headings for the experimental treatment.

At the beginning of the academic year, the subjects of this study were briefed about both the aim of the self-directed learning programme and the cornerstones of learner autonomy. Also, the activities and materials were shown to the learners so as to inform about the way they would study. Self-evaluation tasks and learner logs were given to the learners in terms of self-awareness, one of the key elements of autonomy.

To sum up, the teacher and learners were notified of the process which would be carried out during the implementation phase.

3.3.1. Teacher

As mentioned in the review of literature, the teacher plays a great role in promoting learner autonomy. The teacher's role greatly altered in the realm of quite a few aspects for the period of the autonomy implementation. First of all, she attempted to create an atmosphere in which the learners could feel more responsible for their own learning instead of doing her job in a very traditional manner. Thanks to the principles of autonomy, the teacher paid more attention to the learners' needs and interests. While formulating the classroom rules and the way the lesson was conducted, the learners' ideas were taken into consideration much more than they had been in the previous years. In this respect, the teacher tried to establish a good relationship with her learners and guide them in their learning, helping them set up their goals more clearly, to provide feedback on their products and to encourage them.

3.3.2. Materials

In the present study, the materials utilized for the experimental group were based on the authenticity due to the fact that authentic texts enabled the learners to cover the realistic features of the language, which makes the learning process more permanent. The materials were simply the authentic reading texts to help them be involved in the setting and to match learning opportunities to their needs and to create the conditions under which they can most successfully exploit these opportunities throughout the implementation phase. These materials were generally interesting, motivating, well-structured and systematic.

3.3.3. Activities

The activities which are used in the classroom to promote autonomy are based on real life and the needs of the learners in order that they could feel like a part of the community. As the promotion stage is generally believed to process in a slow and long way, it requires the activities to be practiced patiently and incessantly. Even though we want the learners to be aware of the process as a whole and the actual changes within each phase, the transition from one phase to another does not happen so fast. In this respect, the teacher preferred to implement various activities on learner strategies, motivation and self-monitoring during the implementation stage. The activities to promote learner autonomy were conducted for the experimental group, the results of which were recorded (See Appendix 2).

3.3.4. Projects

Since projects are very vital for promoting learner autonomy in that they enable the learners to focus on their own piece of work, the teacher preferred to use projects in the experimental group. For instance, tasks (projects) were appointed to the learners while their interests and needs were taken into account so that they could have the opportunity to interact with each other, observe themselves, evaluate their

performance and direct their own learning all the way through tasks. These projects were appointed to the learners voluntarily and fulfilled twice a month.

3.3.5. Journals

As observed in the literature, journals are very crucial for the promotion of learner autonomy as they let the learners reflect their own learning and follow what they have acquired. Meanwhile, they can enable the learners to keep an individual record of the learning undertaken and assesses how well or badly particular tasks have been done. Through journals, they could explain their feelings and ideas, which enables them to be able to evaluate themselves. During the implementation phase, the teacher had her learners keep the journals for the reasons mentioned above. (See Appendix 3)

3.3.6. Learner Logs

They are very similar to the journals given that they both record the learners' actual performance through written assignment. The teacher enables the learner logs to be able to record what, how and why they have acquired during the course. The learners kept the learner logs twice a week and shared them with their teacher. (See Appendix 4)

3.3.7. Learner Contract

Learner contract is an agreement signed between the teacher and learners with a view to providing both with a tool for making the planning of learning experiences. Learners who have no clear idea of their objectives, who are wandering from one piece of material to another with no definite idea of where they are progressing, or what they want to achieve, very quickly get dispirited and are likely to give up their attempts at language learning (Dickinson, 1987). To prevent this to happen, prior to the implementation phase, the learner contract between the learners and the teacher

was signed so that they could take their responsibility, be aware of their tasks and do their parts. (See Appendix 5)

3.3.8. Portfolios

It is merely a fact that portfolios may promote student involvement in assessment, responsibility for self-assessment and for their own learning and student ownership of. In order to benefit from the portfolios in this aspect, the teacher, at the beginning of the semester, asked their learners to keep portfolios in which the learners would put their writing assignments, exercises, the songs they listened, and the poems they tried to translate. Through the portfolios, the learners were able to assess their own learning and become more self-directed and motivated by examining and reflecting on their own work and the work of their peers. (See Appendix 6)

3.4. Measuring Autonomy in the Classroom

There has been considerable argument on how autonomy can be measured or evaluated in the context of language learning over the last few decades. As Nunan (1997) points out, autonomy is not an “all-or-nothing concept”. Autonomy is a multidimensional construct due to the fact that there are various behaviors which can take place in numerous forms depending on age, language progress and perception (Little, 1991). Therefore, it is nearly impossible to measure how much autonomy a learner has. However, there have been not few attempts to assess learner autonomy. For instance, Lucy M. Guglielmino developed a questionnaire designed to assess the extent to which individuals report that they possess skills and attitudes associated with self-directed learning (Benson, 2001). Except for him, we can mention Broady’s (1996) questionnaire, which includes several items related to Guglielmo’s questionnaire. Also, Camilleri (1997) developed a questionnaire to investigate teachers’ attitudes towards learner autonomy. Benson (2001) claims that it would indeed be convenient if we had a reliable method of measuring degrees of autonomy.

We would be able to identify the development processes in the acquisition of autonomy through such a measure. On the other hand, Little (1991) offers a relatively reliable way to do what is expected by stating that “it is true that we recognize autonomous learners by their behavior; autonomy, in other words, can manifest itself in very different ways”.

Because it is hardly reasonable to give the learners a “test”, Benson (2001) mentions that an alternative method of assessing abilities in applied linguistic research is to observe performance in natural contexts of learning. While it is difficult to judge whether learners have become more autonomous or not in a global sense, it is possible to judge whether they are able to produce more effective learning plans, participate more in decision-making processes, reflect more deeply on their learning and so on (Benson, 2001). Investigating learner autonomy is not an easy task since we can not directly observe or gauge the students or teachers’ level of state of autonomous (Reinders, 2000). To sum up, it is possible to state that autonomy can be measured through self-assessment, self-reflection, and learner independence, so autonomy may be enhance via the development of these skills. In this study, not only this method but also the questionnaire helped the researcher to gather the data with a view of measuring autonomy.

3.5. Instruments

In this study, three instruments were administered to collect the data: a short background questionnaire, LAQ 1 designed by the researcher and LAQ 2 designed by Demirel (2002).

The background questionnaire entailing nine items was formulated with a view to gathering general information about the subjects of this study. The items asked in this section were about the learners’ gender, age, type of high school they graduated from, the education type, their faculties, whether they like learning

English, years of learning English experience, whether they had attended preparatory school, and their own opinion about their level of English proficiency.

LAQ 1 related to the autonomy implementation into learning environment was developed by the researcher while focusing on the aspects mentioned in Camilleri's questionnaire (1997). This questionnaire, after its reliability and validity had been turned out to be, was applied to the subjects of this study to gather the information. The questionnaire with 15 questions based on the dimensions such as learner choice, motivation, assessment, learner training, and encouragement was composed in the form of likert-type scale. Responses range from '1' = "never" to "very much" = '5'.

LAQ 2 developed by Demirel (2002) was about the actual view on the learning process. After the experimental treatment of autonomy, this questionnaire was implemented to the learners to be able to identify whether any change would exist between the groups. Even though this questionnaire was a bit longer than it is used in this study, some parts of it were removed on account of the irrelevancy to the point and it was compiled by the researcher. The questionnaire was composed of 15 statements based on the dimensions such as the independent work in language learning, self-awareness, responsibility and language learning activities. It was designed in the form of likert-type scale. Responses range from '1' = "I totally disagree" to '5' = "I strongly agree" Likert-type scale was used in the design of the questionnaire.

The instruments used in this study had likert-scale of five items ranging from 1 to 5. Since both questionnaires had likert-scale of five items, their keys were taken into consideration during the discussion of the descriptive statistics of both questionnaires. Following is the key to understanding the averages suggested by the questionnaires respectively (See Appendix 1).

LAQ 1

1. Never
2. Little
3. Partly
4. Much
5. Very much

LAQ 2

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Not sure
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

3.6. Observations

Observations, in language learning, are widely used to examine the actual behaviors within a context. Seliger and Shohamy (1989) claim that the main advantage of using observations for collecting data is that they allow the study of a phenomenon at close range with many of the contextual variables at present, a feature which is very important in studying language behaviors.

During the implementation stage, the researcher gathered observational data by taking part in some of the courses with the experimental group.

3.7. The method of Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Program for Windows version 12.0. The descriptive statistics of the questionnaires were calculated. The total scores were compared with Mann Whitney U non-parametric test to find out the difference between the experimental and control group in the pre-test.

Apart from the Mann Whitney U test, independent sample t-test, paired-sample t-test and student t-test were utilized to identify whether the experimental group had become more autonomous than the control group.

3.6. Administration of the Instruments

The questionnaire was utilized twice in this study. The first time was to identify whether there would be any significance between the control and experimental group. Secondly, after the experimental treatment, the questionnaire was administered to find out whether there would be any difference between the experimental and control group as a consequence of autonomy implementation during the second term of the 2005-2006.

Prior to administering the tests to both experimental and control group, the learners were verbally informed of the purpose of the study. Not only were the subjects told that these questions would provide invaluable data on how to study better and what they would do to improve their study skills but also they were informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the statements.

The questionnaire was administered in Turkish in order that there would not be any fear of comprehending English, which their level of English proficiency proved.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS, RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

4.0. Introduction

In this chapter, the descriptive statistics of the data gathered by means of the instruments will be presented and discussed.

4.1. Findings

The data collected was analyzed using the Statistical Program for Windows version 12.0. The descriptive statistics of the questionnaires were calculated.

The Cronbach's alpha values of data gathered from the LAQ 1 developed by the researcher were calculated to find out their reliabilities. As a consequence of the calculation, it was revealed that the LAQ 1 had high reliability. The Cronbach's alpha value of this questionnaire was 0,88. As to the LAQ 2 developed by Demirel (2002), reliability and validity of this questionnaire had been previously assessed. However, its reliability was calculated and the Cronbach's alpha value was 0,87, which points out that both instruments used in this study had relatively high reliability.

Table 2: Reliability Statistics
(LAQ 1)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,881	15

Table 3: Reliability Statistics
(LAQ 2)

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0,876	15

4.1.1. The Findings of the Data Gathered from the Experimental Group in the Post-Test in terms of Previous Preparatory School Attendance

Table 4: The relation Between the Experimental Group in the post-test in terms of previous preparatory school attendance

	post-test LAQ 1	post-test LAQ 2
Mann Whitney U	31,5	30,5
Wilcoxon W	167,5	40,5
Z	-0,047	-0,142
P	0,962	0,887

When the relation between the experimental group in the post-test and the previous preparatory school attendance is examined, we can state that there is no meaningful difference not only in the LAQ 1 ($p=0,962>0,05$ Mann-Whitney U test) but also the LAQ 2 ($p=0,887>0,05$ Mann-Whitney U test).

4.1.2. The Findings of the Data Gathered from the Pre-Test of the Experimental and Control Group

The data gathered from the LAQ 1 and the LAQ 2 was calculated to find out the descriptive statistics of the total items. The value of table indicates that there does not exist a meaningful difference between the results of the experimental and control group in terms of the pre-test before the treatment ($p=0,270>0,05$ Student t-test) and ($p=0,937>0,05$ Mann-Whitney U test).

Table 5: The relation Between Experimental and Control Group for the LAQ 1 in the Pre-test

	LAQ 1
Mann-Whitney U	207,000
P	0,937

Table 6: The Relation Between the Experimental and Control Group for the LAQ 2 in the Pre-test

	T	df	P
LAQ 2	-1,118	39	0,270

As the statistics display, two groups who had been appointed as control and experimental group had no difference between them in terms of how much they had autonomy before the treatment. It concludes that both groups had the same degree of autonomy when the treatment process commenced, which made the study more meaningful.

4.1.3. The Findings of the Data Collected from the Pre and Post-Test of the Control Group

No meaningful difference exists in terms of not only the LAQ 1 but also the LAQ 2 in the control group. The table 7 illustrates the results of the control group after three months ($p=0,789>0,05$ independent sample t-test) for LAQ 1 and for LAQ 2 ($p=0,400>0,05$ independent sample t-test).

Table 7: The Relation Between the Pre and Post-test in the Control Group

Control Group	Pair 1	LAQ 1	-,271	20	0,789
	Pair 2	LAQ 2	,859	20	0,400

As it can be seen in the table, the control group who had not been taught through the autonomy implementation did not undergo much change within three months. The reason why there existed no change between pre and post-test in terms of control group may be reasoned by the significance of the treatment.

4.1.4. The Findings of the Data Gathered from the Pre and Post-Test of the Experimental Group

As the aim of this study was to promote learner autonomy through activities and implementation, in this section the relationship between the results of the pre and post-test in terms of experimental group was calculated to measure how much autonomy existed in the experimental group after the experimental treatment. When examining the total scores of the LAQ 1 after the treatment, we can conclude that there exists a meaningful difference between before and after the experimental treatment ($p=0,001<0,05$ independent sample t-test). Similarly, when the total scores of the LAQ 2 are discussed, it is concluded that there is a meaningful difference between before and after the experimental treatment ($p=0,001<0,05$ independent sample t-test).

Table 8: The Comparison of Total Scores Between the Pre and Post-test in the Experimental Group

Group			t	df	P
Experimental	Pair 1	pre-test LAQ 1 post-test LAQ 1	-7,847	19	0,001
	Pair 2	pre-test LAQ 2 post-test LAQ 2	-5,366	19	0,001

Once the total scores of pre and post-test are compared with each other in the experimental group, it may be inferred that the experimental group became more autonomous than before the experimental treatment through the activities and autonomy implementation carried out in the classroom.

Table 9: The comparison within the Experimental Group

Group			Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Experimental	Pair 1	Pre-test LAQ 1	28,5500	20	10,19017
		Post-test LAQ 1	48,1000	20	5,58098
	Pair 2	Pre-test LAQ 2	44,5000	20	5,56776
		Post-test LAQ 2	55,0500	20	6,14282

4.1.5. The Findings of the Data Gathered from the Post-Test of the Experimental and Control Group

Start with the LAQ 1, there is a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ student t-test). As to the LAQ 2, there is also a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group after the treatment ($p=0,001<0,05$ student t-test).

Table 10: The Relation Between the Experimental and Control Group in terms of the Post-test

Group			t	df	p
Experimental	Pair 1	Post-test LAQ 1	-7,847	19	0,001
	Pair 2	Post-test LAQ 2	-5,366	19	0,001

As the table illustrates, a meaningful difference exists between the experimental and control group, which signifies that the degree of autonomy in experimental group was higher whereas that of autonomy in control group was lower. This, thus, concludes that the treatment provided to the experimental group increased the total score in terms of autonomy and the learners in the experimental group became more autonomous than those in the control group.

4.1.6. The Findings of Each Item in the LAQ 1 in terms of Both Tests in the Experimental and Control Group

Item 1: How much are you involved in establishing the objectives of a course?

1st item was designed to measure whether the subjects were involved in establishing the objectives of a course.

Table 11: Frequency Distribution of Item 1 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	8	40,0	5	25,0
		Little	3	15,0	6	30,0
		Partly	4	20,0	6	30,0
		Much	4	20,0	3	15,0
		Very Much	1	5,0	-	-
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	9	42,9	7	33,3
		Little	3	14,3	5	23,8
		Partly	4	19,0	7	33,3
		Much	4	19,0	2	9,5
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 40 % of the subjects state that they are never involved whereas only 25 % of them state that they are much involved in establishing the objectives of a course in the pre-test. While 30 % of the subjects state that they are partly involved in establishing the objectives of a course, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are much involved in this process is 15 % in the post-test.

In the control group, while 42, 9 % of the subjects have chosen “never”, only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” involved in establishing the objectives of a study. As to the post-test, 33, 3 % of the subjects state that they are

“never” involved in this process while only 9,5 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in establishing the objectives of a study.

While 15 % of the subjects state that they are much involved in establishing the objectives of a course of study in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state much is 9,5 % in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

Item 2: How much are you involved in deciding the course content?

2nd item was designed to measure whether the subjects were involved in deciding the course content, what they would learn and what materials they would choose.

Table 12: Frequency Distribution of Item 2 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	8	40,0	1	5,0
		Little	6	30,0	8	40,0
		Partly	3	15,0	5	25,0
		Much	3	15,0	3	15,0
		Very Much	-	-	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	9	42,9	9	42,9
		Little	3	14,3	8	38,1
		Partly	4	19,0	1	4,8
		Much	4	19,0	3	14,3
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 40 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved whereas only 15 % of them state that they are “much” involved in establishing this process in the pre-test. While 40 % of the subjects state that they are “little” involved in establishing the objectives of a study, the percentage of the

subjects who state that they are “much” involved in this process is 15 % in the post-test.

In the control group, 42, 9 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in deciding the course content whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” involved in this process in the pre-test. In the post-test, only 14, 3 % of the subjects state they are much involved in deciding the course content while the percentage of the subjects who state that they are never involved in deciding the course content has remained the same (42,9 %) .

30 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in deciding the course content in the experimental group whereas only 14, 3 % of the subjects state “much” in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

Item 3: How much are you involved in selecting materials?

3rd item was about the involvement of materials selection for the subjects. This item aims to find out whether the subjects were involved in selecting materials to be exploited in the classroom.

Table 13: Frequency Distribution of Item 3 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	14	70,0	4	20,0
		Little	2	10,0	4	20,0
		Partly	2	10,0	6	30,0
		Much	2	10,0	5	25,0
		Very Much	-	-	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	14	66,7	12	57,1
		Little	3	14,3	6	28,6
		Partly	2	9,5	2	9,5
		Much	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 70 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved whereas only 10 % of them state that they are “much” involved in selecting materials in the pre-test. While 25 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in selecting materials, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “never” involved in materials selection is 20 % in the post-test.

In the control group, 66, 7 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in selecting materials whereas only 9, 5 % of the subjects state that they are much involved in this process in the pre-test. In the post-test, 57, 1 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in selecting materials while the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” involved in deciding the course content is 4, 8 %.

Whereas the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” involved in selecting materials in the experimental group is 30 %, only 4,8 % of the subjects state “much” in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

Item 4: How much are you involved in decisions on the time, place and pace of the lesson?

4th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were involved in decisions on the time, place and pace of the lesson.

Table 14: Frequency Distribution of Item 4 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	16	80,0	6	30,0
		Little	2	10,0	4	20,0
		Partly	1	5,0	3	15,0
		Much	2	10,0	6	30,0
		Very Much	1	5,0	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	16	76,2	15	71,4
		Little	1	4,8	3	14,3
		Partly	1	4,8	1	4,8
		Much	2	9,5	2	9,5
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 80 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in decisions on the time, place and pace of the lesson while only 5 % of the subjects state they are “very much” involved in this process in the pre-test. In the post-test, 30 % of the subjects state that they are much involved in the decisions on time, place and pace of the lesson while 30 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in this process in the post-test.

In the control group, 76, 2 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved whereas 4, 8 % of the subjects have reported that they are “very much” involved in decisions about the elements of the lesson in the pre-test. In the post-test, 9,5 of the subjects state that they are “much” involved while the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “never” involved in this process has not changed a lot (71, 4 %).

35 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in decisions on the time, place and pace of the lesson in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is only 9,5 % in the control group. There exists a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

Item 5: How much are you involved in decisions on the methodology of the lesson?

5th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were involved in decisions on the methodology.

Table 15: Frequency Distribution of Item 5 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	12	60,0	1	5,0
		Little	3	15,0	2	10,0
		Partly	2	10	10	50,0
		Much	3	15,0	6	30,0
		Very Much	-	-	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	13	61,9	11	52,4
		Little	3	14,3	9	42,9
		Partly	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Much	3	14,3	-	-
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 60 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved whereas only 15 % of them state that they are “much” involved in this process in the pre-test. While only 5 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in the decisions on the methodology, the percentage of the subjects who state they are “partly” involved in this process is 50 % in the post test.

In the control group, the results remain nearly the same. While 61.9 % of the subjects have chosen “never”, the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is

14, 3 % in the pre-test. As to the post-test, 52.4 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in this process while there is no subject who states “much” or “very much”.

35 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in decisions on the methodology of the lesson in the experimental group whereas this percentage does not exist in the control group. There exists a meaningful difference between the control and the experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$, paired sample t-test).

6: How much are you involved in decisions on classroom management?

6th item aims to get information about the subjects’ participation in the classroom management.

Table 16: Frequency Distribution of Item 6 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>F</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	11	55,0	3	15,0
		Little	6	30,0	6	30,0
		Partly	1	5,0	8	40,0
		Much	2	10,0	3	15,0
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	20	100,0	20	100
Control	Valid	Never	11	52,4	8	38,1
		Little	6	28,6	9	42,9
		Partly	2	9,5	4	19,0
		Much	2	9,5	-	-
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As seen in the table, in the pre-test 55 % of the subjects in the experimental group state that they are “never” involved in decisions on classroom management whereas only 10 % of them have thought that they are “much” involved in making decision on the classroom rules. In the post-test, 40 % of the subjects state that they

are “partly” involved in decision making on classroom management while only 15 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in this process.

As to the control group, 52, 4 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in decisions on classroom management while only 9, 5 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in this process. In the post-test, the results do not alter a lot, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “little” involved is 42, 9 % while only of 19 % of the subjects state that they are “partly” involved in decisions on classroom management.

15 % of the subjects state that they are much involved in decisions on classroom management in the experimental group whereas there is no subject who states “much” in the control group. A significant relation may be easily observed between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

7: How much are you involved in decisions on homework tasks?

7th item was designed to gain information about the subjects’ active participation on homework tasks.

Table 17: Frequency Distribution of Item 7 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	9	45,0	-	-
		Little	5	25,0	2	10,0
		Partly	-	-	6	30,0
		Much	4	20,0	8	40,0
		Very Much	2	10,0	4	20,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	9	42,9	6	28,6
		Little	6	28,6	9	42,9
		Partly	-	-	6	28,6
		Much	4	19,0	-	-
		Very Much	2	9,5	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As the table illustrates the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “never” involved in decisions on homework tasks is 45 % while only 10 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” involved in this process in the pre-test. As for the post-test, whereas only 10 % of the subjects state that they are “little” involved on the homework tasks, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” involved has risen in the experimental group (40 %).

In the control group, 42, 9 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in the process whereas only 9.5 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” involved in decisions on homework tasks in the pre-test. As to the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “never” involved in the process has decreased to 28, 6 % while there is no subject who has stated that they are “much” or “very much” involved.

While % 60 of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in decisions on homework tasks in the experimental group, there is no subject who states “much” in the control group. A significant difference between the control and experimental group exists ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

8: How much are you encouraged to assess yourself?

8th item was about the self-assessment of the learners during the learning process.

Table 18: Frequency Distribution of Item 8 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	5	25,0	-	-
		Little	11	55,0	3	15,0
		Partly	1	5,0	3	15,0
		Much	2	10,0	11	55,0
		Very Much	1	5,0	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	6	28,6	4	19,0
		Little	11	52,4	12	57,1
		Partly	1	4,8	5	23,8
		Much	2	9,5	-	-
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 55 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged to assess themselves while only 5 % of them state they are “very much” encouraged in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” encouraged has risen to 55 % whereas only 15 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged to assess themselves.

In the control group, whereas 52.4 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged in the pre-test, only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” encouraged. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “little” encouraged is 57.1 % while only 19 % of the subjects who state that they are “never” encouraged to assess themselves.

70 % of the subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to assess themselves in the experimental group while there is no subject who states “much” in

the control group. A significant relation may be observed between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

9: How much are you involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials given by the teacher?

9th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials given by the teacher.

Table 19: Frequency Distribution of Item 9 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	10	50,0	3	15,0
		Little	5	25,0	7	35,0
		Partly	2	10,0	3	15,0
		Much	2	10,0	6	30,0
		Very Much	1	5,0	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	11	52,4	4	19,0
		Little	5	23,8	9	42,9
		Partly	2	9,5	7	33,3
		Much	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 50 % of the subjects who state that they are “never” involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials whereas only 5 % of them state that they are “very much” involved in the pre-test. As to post test, the percentages have greatly changed, the percentage of the subjects (15 %) who state that they are “never” involved in this process has decreased while only of 30 % of them state they are “very much” involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials in the post-test.

In the control group, 52, 4 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials while only 4, 8 % of the

subjects state that they are “very much” involved in this process in the pre-test. As for the post-test, 42, 9 % of the subjects have mentioned that they are “little” involved while only 4, 8 % of the subjects are “much” involved in decisions on what to focus on materials.

While 35 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials given by the teacher in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is only 4,8 % in the control group. A meaningful relation may be observed between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

10: How much are you involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks (projects, presentations)?

10th item was about the involvement of the learners’ decisions on learning tasks such as projects and presentations.

Table 20: Frequency Distribution of Item 10 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	12	60,0	3	15,0
		Little	3	15,0	1	5,0
		Partly	-	-	9	45,0
		Much	5	25,0	4	20,0
		Very Much	-	-	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	11	52,4	11	52,4
		Little	5	23,8	7	33,3
		Partly	2	9,5	3	14,3
		Much	2	9,5	-	-
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group 60, 0 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in decisions while only 25 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved in this process in pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects

who state that they are “never” involved in process is 15 % whereas 45 % of the subjects state that they are “partly” involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks.

In the control group, 52, 4 % of the subjects state that they are “never” involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks while only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “very much” involved in this process in the pre-test. As to the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are never involved in the process has remained the same (52, 4 %) while 14, 3 % of the subjects state that they are “partly” involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks.

While the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks is 35 % in the experimental group, there is no subject who states “much” in the control group. There is a significant relation between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

11: How much are you encouraged to formulate your own explanations for classroom tasks?

11th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were encouraged to formulate their own explanations for classroom tasks.

Table 21: Frequency Distribution of Item 11 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	7	35,0	-	-
		Little	7	35,0	4	20,0
		Partly	5	25,0	5	25,0
		Much	1	5,0	8	40,0
		Very Much	-	-	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	8	52,4	8	38,1
		Little	7	23,8	8	38,1
		Partly	5	9,5	4	19,0
		Much	1	9,5	1	4,8
		Very Much	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 35 % of the subjects state that they are “never” encouraged to formulate their own explanations for classroom tasks whereas only 5 % of the subjects have reported that they are “much” encouraged in the pre-test. In the post-test, only 20 % of the subjects state “little” while the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” encouraged to formulate their own explanations for classroom tasks is 40 %.

As to the control group, 52,4 % of the subjects state they are “never” encouraged to formulate their own explanations for classroom tasks while only 4,8 % of the subjects have ticked “very much” in the pre-test. The percentage of the subjects who state “never” has not altered a lot (38,1%) while only 4,8 % of the subjects have reported “much” in the post-test.

55 % of the subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to formulate their own explanations for classroom tasks in the experimental group whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “much”. A significant relation between the experimental and control group exists ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

12: How much are you encouraged to find out learning strategies by yourself?

12th item was designed to find out whether the subjects were aware of their learning strategies or willing to discover them.

Table 22: Frequency Distribution of Item 12 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	7	35,0	-	-
		Little	7	35,0	2	10,0
		Partly	4	20	8	40,0
		Much	2	10,0	6	30,0
		Very Much	-	-	4	20,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	7	33,3	6	28,6
		Little	8	38,1	6	28,6
		Partly	4	19,0	7	33,3
		Much	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Very Much	-	-	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 35 % of the subjects state that they are “never” encouraged to find out learner strategies by themselves whereas only 10 % of them state that they are “much” encouraged to find out the strategies by themselves in the pre-test. As for the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “little” encouraged to find out their learner strategies by themselves is 10 % while only 30 % of them state that they are “much” encouraged to find out learning strategies by themselves.

In the control group, 38, 1 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged to find out learning strategies by themselves while only 9, 5 % of the

subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to find out learning strategies by themselves in the pre-test. In the post-test, 33, 3 % of the subjects state that they are “partly” encouraged to discover their learning strategies by themselves whereas 4, 8 % of the subjects are “much” encouraged.

50 % of the subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to find out the strategies by themselves in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is only 9, 6 % in the control group. A meaningful difference between the experimental and control group exists ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

13: How much are you informed about how to study better on your own?

13th item was to gain the information about how the subjects study better on their own. It aims to get the learners’ opinion about being informed regarding better study skills during the actual classroom atmosphere.

Table 23: Frequency Distribution of Item 13 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	10	50,0	-	-
		Little	6	30,0	3	15,0
		Partly	3	15	3	15,0
		Much	1	5,0	11	55,0
		Very Much	-	-	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	10	47,6	10	47,6
		Little	6	28,6	7	33,3
		Partly	4	19,0	3	14,3
		Much	1	4,8	1	4,8
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 50 % of the subjects state that they are “never” informed about how to study better on their own in the pre-test while the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “much” informed about how to study better on their own is 5 %. In the post-test, 55 % of the subjects state that they are “much” informed about how to study on their own while 15 % of the subjects state that they are “partly” informed about how to study better on their own.

In the control group, 47, 6 % of the subjects state that they are “never” informed about how to study better on their own whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “much” informed about how to study better on their own. As for the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are never informed about how to study on their own has remained the same. Likewise, only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “much” involved about how to study better on their own.

Whereas 70 % of the subjects state that they are “much” informed about how to study better on their own in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is only 4,8 % in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

14: How much are you encouraged to keep the journals and take notes to follow your progress during English learning?

14th item was designed to measure whether the subjects of the experimental group are encouraged to keep the journals and take notes to follow their progress during English learning.

Table 24: Frequency Distribution of Item 14 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	7	35,0	-	-
		Little	8	40,0	3	15,0
		Partly	4	20	3	15,0
		Much	1	5,0	8	40,0
		Very Much	-	-	6	30,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	8	38,1	8	38,1
		Little	8	38,1	5	23,8
		Partly	4	19,0	3	14,3
		Much	1	4,8	5	23,8
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 40 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged to keep journals and take notes to follow their progress during English learning in the pre-test whereas 5 % of them state that they are “much” encouraged to follow their English learning process. In the pos-test, there is no subject who has stated that they are never encouraged to keep the journals and take notes to follow their progress during English learning while 40 % of the subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to keep the journals and take notes.

In the control group, 38, 1 % of the subjects state that they are “never” encouraged to keep journals and take notes whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “much” encouraged to follow their progress in the pre-test. In the post-

test, the percentage of the subjects who state that they are “never” encouraged to keep journals has not changed (38, 1 %) whereas 23, 8 of the subjects state “much”.

Whereas 70 % of the subjects state that they are encouraged to keep journals and take notes to follow their progress during English learning in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is 23,8 % in the control group. A meaningful difference between the experimental and control group can easily be observed ($p=0,001<0,01$ paired sample t-test).

15: How much are you encouraged to prepare your learning plans?

15th item was designed to measure whether the learners were encouraged to prepare their learning plans.

Table 25: Frequency Distribution of Item 15 in the LAQ 1

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>F</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Never	12	60,0	1	5,0
		Little	7	35,0	8	40,0
		Partly	1	5,0	6	30,0
		Much	-	-	5	25,0
		Very Much	-	-	-	-
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Never	12	57,1	4	19,0
		Little	8	38,1	11	52,4
		Partly	1	4,8	3	14,3
		Much	-	-	1	4,8
		Very Much	-	-	2	9,5
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 60 % of the subjects state that they are “never” encouraged to prepare their learning plans whereas 5 % of them state that they are “partly” encouraged to prepare their learning plans in the pre-test. In the pos-test, 25 % of the subjects state that they are much encouraged to form learning plans while only 40 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged.

As for the control group, 57, 1% of the subjects state that they are “never” encouraged to prepare their learning plans while 4, 8 % of the subjects state that they are “little” encouraged in the pre-test. In the post-test, 52, 4 % of the subjects state that they are little encouraged to prepare their learning plans while only 9, 5 % of the subjects have reported that they are very much encouraged to prepare learning plans.

25 % of the subjects state that they are much encouraged to prepare their learning plans in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who state “much” is 14,3 % in the control group. A meaningful difference between the experimental and control group exists ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

4.1.7. The Findings of Each Item in LAQ 2 in terms of Both Tests in the Experimental and Control Group

1: I need to learn more than I am required with all my efforts.

1st item was designed to measure whether the subjects were motivated learn more than they were required.

Table 26: Frequency Distribution of Item 1 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	5,0	-	-
		Disagree	4	20,0	2	10,0
		Not Sure	4	20,0	1	5,0
		Agree	7	35,0	15	75,0
		Strongly Agree	4	20,0	2	10,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	-	-	3	14,3
		Disagree	4	19,0	7	33,3
		Not Sure	1	4,8	6	28,6
		Agree	6	28,6	4	19,0
		Strongly Agree	10	47,6	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As indicated in the table, in the experimental group, 35 % of the subjects state that “agree” whereas only 20 % of the subjects have ticked “disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of subjects who have reported “agree” has risen to 75 % while only 5 % of the subjects state “not sure”.

In the control group, 47, 6 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “not sure”. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “disagree” is 33, 3 % while only 4, 8 % of the subjects have ticked “strongly agree”.

85 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group whereas the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 23, 8 % in the control group. A significant difference between the experimental and control group exists ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

2: I follow my progress while learning English.

2nd item was designed to identify whether the subjects evaluate themselves in while learning English.

Table 27: Frequency Distribution of Item 2 in LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	10,0	-	-
		Disagree	5	25,0	3	15,0
		Not Sure	6	30,0	3	15,0
		Agree	6	30,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	1	5,0	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Disagree	6	28,6	5	23,8
		Not Sure	6	28,6	12	57,1
		Agree	6	28,6	3	14,3
		Strongly Agree	1	4,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As indicated in the table, in the experimental group, 30 % of the subjects state that “agree” whereas only 25 % of the subjects have ticked “disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of subjects who have reported “agree” has risen to 55 % while only 15 % of the subjects state “not sure”.

In the control group, 28, 6 % of the subjects state “agree” while only 28, 6 % of the subjects state “disagree”. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “not sure” is 57, 1 % whereas only 14, 3 % of the subjects have ticked “agree”.

70 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who “agree” with the statement is 14, 3 % in the control group. There is a significant difference between the experimental group and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

3: I like projects and activities where I can work on my own.

3rd item was designed to measure whether the subjects like working alone and prefers the projects and activities where they can work on their own.

Table 28: Frequency Distribution of Item 3 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	10,0	-	-
		Disagree	2	10,0	1	5,0
		Not Sure	6	30,0	5	25,0
		Agree	5	25,0	7	35,0
		Strongly Agree	5	25,0	7	35,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	4,8	3	14,3
		Disagree	2	9,5	8	38,1
		Not Sure	7	33,3	4	19,0
		Agree	6	28,6	6	28,6
		Strongly Agree	5	23,8	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As the table illustrates, in the experimental group, 30 % of the subjects state that “not sure” whereas only 10 % of the participants are in the opinion of “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, 35 % of the subjects state “agree” while only 5 % of them report “disagree”.

In the control group, 33, 3 % of the subjects state “not sure” while only 28, 6 % of the subjects have ticked “agree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, 38, 1 % of the subjects have chosen “disagree” whereas the percentage of the subjects who have ticked “not sure” is 19, 0 %.

70 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group whereas the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 28,6 % in the control group. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

4: I can learn English grammar on my own/without needing a teacher.

4th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were able to learn or study grammar without needing a teacher.

Table 29: Frequency Distribution of Item 4 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	10,0	-	-
		Disagree	4	20,0	1	5,0
		Not Sure	3	15,0	5	25,0
		Agree	3	15,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	8	40,0	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	9,5	1	4,8
		Disagree	5	23,8	5	23,8
		Not Sure	3	14,3	6	28,6
		Agree	4	19,0	7	33,3
		Strongly Agree	7	33,3	2	9,5
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As shown in the table, in the experimental group, 40 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” whereas only 10 % of the subjects have ticked “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” has risen to 55, 0 % while only 5, 0 % of the subjects state “disagree”.

In the control group, 33, 3 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” while the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is 9, 5 % in the pre-test. As to the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly agree” is 33, 3 % whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects have reported “strongly disagree”.

70 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while 42, 8 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. There is a significant difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0, 05$ paired sample t-test).

5: I understand the meaning of a word identifying prefix and suffix of a word.

5th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were competent enough to synthesize the words to clarify the meaning.

Table 30: Frequency Distribution of Item 5 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	30,0	1	5,0
		Disagree	8	40,0	4	20,0
		Not Sure	2	10,0	4	20,0
		Agree	4	20,0	7	35,0
		Strongly Agree	-	-	4	20,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	28,6	3	14,3
		Disagree	9	42,9	8	38,1
		Not Sure	2	9,5	3	14,3
		Agree	4	19,0	5	23,8
		Strongly Agree	-	-	2	9,5
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 30, 0 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” whereas only 20 % of the subjects have reported “agree” in the pre-test. As to the post-test, only 5 % of the subjects have ticked “strongly disagree” while the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 35 %.

In the control group, the percentage of the subjects who state “disagree” is 42, 9 % while only 9,5 % of the subjects state “not sure” in the pre-test. When examined in the post-test, 38, 1 % of the subjects state “disagree” whereas only 9, 5 % of the subjects have ticked “strongly agree”.

55 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 33, 3 %. There is not a meaningful relation between the experimental and control group ($p=0,126>0,05$, paired sample t-test).

**6: I can identify and select the additional materials to support the subjects
I study.**

6th item was designed to measure whether the subjects identified the additional materials when necessary and chose them in a concrete way.

Table 31: Frequency Distribution of Item 6 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	15,0	1	5,0
		Disagree	2	10,0	3	15,0
		Not Sure	5	25,0	2	10,0
		Agree	6	30,0	6	30,0
		Strongly Agree	4	20,0	8	40,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	14,3	1	4,8
		Disagree	3	14,3	5	23,8
		Not Sure	6	28,6	5	23,8
		Agree	6	28,6	7	33,3
		Strongly Agree	3	14,3	3	14,3
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As it can be seen in the table, in the experimental group, 30 % of the subjects state “agree” whereas only 10 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is only 5 % while 40 % of the subjects state “strongly agree”.

In the control group, 28, 6 % of the subjects state “agree” while the percentage who states “strongly disagree” is only 14, 3 % in the pre-test. In the post-test, 33, 3 % of the subjects states “agree” whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

70 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group 47, 6 % of the subjects state “agree”. A significant relation can not be observed between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001 < 0,05$ paired sample t-test).

7: I can evaluate myself in terms of my tasks and projects.

7th item was designed to measure whether the subjects could evaluate themselves in terms of their tasks and projects.

Table 32: Frequency Distribution of Item 7 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	15,0	1	5,0
		Disagree	1	5,0	1	5,0
		Not Sure	2	10,0	1	5,0
		Agree	7	35,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	7	35,0	6	30,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	9,5	3	14,3
		Disagree	3	14,3	5	23,8
		Not Sure	2	9,5	5	23,8
		Agree	7	33,3	6	28,6
		Strongly Agree	7	33,3	2	9,5
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is 15 % whereas 35 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, only 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” while the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 55 %.

In the control group, 33, 3 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” while only 9, 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, 28, 6 % of the subjects state “agree” whereas only 14, 3 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

Whereas 85 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is only 38, 1 % in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

8: I actively participate in the course.

8th item was about the active participation for the subjects in terms of following the course.

Table 33: Frequency Distribution of Item 8 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	30,0	1	5,0
		Disagree	2	10,0	-	-
		Not Sure	8	40,0	6	30,0
		Agree	2	10,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	2	10,0	6	30,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	28,6	1	4,8
		Disagree	2	9,5	5	23,8
		Not Sure	9	42,9	8	38,1
		Agree	3	14,3	5	23,8
		Strongly Agree	1	4,8	2	9,5
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is 30 % whereas only 10 % of the subjects state “agree” in the pre-test. 55 % of the subjects state “agree” while only 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” in the post-test.

In the control group, 28, 6 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” while only 14, 3 % of the subjects report “agree” in the pre-test. Whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 23, 8 % in the post-test.

85 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 33,3 % in the control group. There is not a meaningful difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,153>0,05$ paired sample t-test).

9: I have several strategies to understand and remember English grammar.

9th item was designed to measure whether the subjects had the strategies that would assist them in understanding and remembering English grammar.

Table 34: Frequency Distribution of Item 9 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	20,0	-	-
		Disagree	4	20,0	-	-
		Not Sure	6	30,0	3	15,0
		Agree	3	15,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	3	15,0	6	30,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	14,3	-	-
		Disagree	3	14,3	6	28,6
		Not Sure	5	23,8	4	19,0
		Agree	5	23,8	5	23,8
		Strongly Agree	5	23,8	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly agree” is 15 % whereas 20 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, there is no subject who states “strongly disagree or disagree” while 55 % of the subjects state “agree”.

In the control group, 23, 8 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” while 14, 3 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, 23, 8 % of the subjects state “agree” whereas 19 % of the subjects state “not sure”.

85 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group whereas 27, 8 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. A significant relation can be observed between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0, 05$ paired sample t-test).

10: If I can not learn English in the classroom, I can work on my own.

10th item aims to get information about the subjects’ attitudes to independent learning and whether they are able to learn English on their own without the presence of a teacher.

Table 35: Frequency Distribution of Item 10 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	10,0	2	10,0
		Disagree	6	30,0	1	5,0
		Not Sure	3	15,0	1	5,0
		Agree	6	30,0	11	55,0
		Strongly Agree	3	15,0	5	25,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	9,5	-	-
		Disagree	5	23,8	5	23,8
		Not Sure	5	23,8	5	23,8
		Agree	5	23,8	10	47,6
		Strongly Agree	4	19,0	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 30 % whereas 30 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” has increased (55 %) while only 5 % of the subjects state “disagree”.

In the control group, 23,8 % of the subjects state “agree” whereas the percentage of the subjects who state “disagree” is 23,8 % in the pre-test. As to the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “disagree” is 23, 8 % while 47, 6 % of the subjects’ state “agree”.

80 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while 52, 4 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. There is a significant relation between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

11: I am aware of my learning strategies.
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11th item was designed to measure whether the subjects were aware of their learning strategies which lead them to be more successful in their learning.

Table 36: Frequency Distribution of Item 11 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	25,0	-	-
		Disagree	6	30,0	2	10,0
		Not Sure	1	5,0	7	35,0
		Agree	7	35,0	6	30,0
		Strongly Agree	1	5,0	5	25,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	23,8	1	4,8
		Disagree	5	23,8	4	19,0
		Not Sure	1	4,8	3	14,3
		Agree	8	38,1	6	28,6
		Strongly Agree	2	9,5	7	33,3
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As observed in the table, in the experimental group, 35 % of the subjects have reported “agree” while only 25 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 30 % whereas only 10 % of the subjects have ticked “disagree”.

In the control group, 38, 1 % of the subjects state “agree” while only 23, 8 % of the subjects have reported “disagree” in the pre-test. Once discussed in the post-test, 33, 3 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” while the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is just 4, 8 %.

While 55 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group, 61, 9 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. There is not a significant difference between the experimental and control group ($p=0,741>0,05$ paired sample t-test).

12: I have some games to keep the words I learn in my mind.

12th item aims to get information on whether the subjects had some strategies or techniques to keep the words they learn in their minds.

Table 37: Frequency Distribution of Item 12 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	60,0	4	25,0
		Disagree	6	30,0	4	25,0
		Not Sure	1	5,0	3	5,0
		Agree	1	5,0	6	30,0
		Strongly Agree	1	5,0	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	57,1	14	66,7
		Disagree	6	28,6	4	19,0
		Not Sure	1	4,8	2	9,5
		Agree	1	4,8	6	28,6
		Strongly Agree	1	4,8	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is 60 % whereas only 5 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” in the pre-test. While the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” has considerably increased (30%), 25 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the post-test.

In the control group, 57, 1 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” whereas only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” in the pre-test. As for the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly disagree” is 66, 7 % while only 4, 8 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

Whereas 45 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group, 33, 4 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. A meaningful difference can be observed between the experimental and control group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

13: I am responsible for my own learning.
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13th item was designed to identify whether the subjects were responsible for their own learning.

Table 38: Frequency Distribution of Item 13 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	5,0	1	5,0
		Disagree	4	20,0	1	5,0
		Not Sure	4	20,0	2	10,0
		Agree	6	30,0	13	65,0
		Strongly Agree	5	25,0	3	15,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	4,8	-	-
		Disagree	3	14,3	2	9,5
		Not Sure	3	14,3	7	33,3
		Agree	5	23,8	11	52,4
		Strongly Agree	9	42,9	1	4,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

In the experimental group, 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” whereas 30 % of the subjects state “agree” in the pre-test. While 65 % of the subjects state “agree”, only 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

In the control group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly agree” is 42,9 % while only 4,8 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, 52, 4 % of the subjects state “agree” while 9, 5 % of the subjects state “disagree”.

Whereas 80 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state is 57, 2 %. A significant relation can be observed between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0,05$ paired sample t-test).

14: I like my way of studying English.

14th item was designed to measure whether the subjects liked their way of studying English.

Table 39: Frequency Distribution of Item 14 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	25,0	3	15,0
		Disagree	3	15,0	3	15,0
		Not Sure	1	5,0	6	30,0
		Agree	7	35,0	7	35,0
		Strongly Agree	4	20,0	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	9,5	4	19,0
		Disagree	5	23,8	8	38,1
		Not Sure	1	4,8	4	19,0
		Agree	6	28,6	6	28,6
		Strongly Agree	7	33,3	5	23,8
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As one can conclude from the table, in the experimental group, 25 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” whereas 35 % of the subjects state “agree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” has remained the same (35 %) whereas only 15 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

In the control group, the percentage of the subjects who state “strongly agree” is 33, 3 % whereas only 9, 5 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, 38, 1 % of the subjects state “disagree” while 28, 6 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

While 40 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 52, 4 %. There is not a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,379>0,05$ paired sample t-test).

15: I know how to study English by myself.

15th item was designed to gain insights about the subjects’ self-evaluation for their study skills.

Table 40: Frequency Distribution of Item 15 in the LAQ 2

Group			Pre-Test		Post-Test	
			<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Experimental	Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	20,0	3	15,0
		Disagree	6	30,0	3	15,0
		Not Sure	6	30,0	6	30,0
		Agree	3	15,0	7	35,0
		Strongly Agree	1	5,0	1	5,0
		Total	20	100,0	20	100,0
Control	Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	19,0	4	19,0
		Disagree	4	19,0	8	38,1
		Not Sure	7	33,3	4	19,0
		Agree	4	19,0	5	23,8
		Strongly Agree	2	9,5	-	-
		Total	21	100,0	21	100,0

As one can infer from the table, in the experimental group, 30 % of the subjects state “disagree” whereas 15 % of the subjects state “strongly agree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” has increased (35 %) whereas only 15 % of the subjects state “strongly disagree”.

In the control group, the percentage of the subjects who state “agree” is 19 % whereas only 19 % of the subjects state “disagree” in the pre-test. In the post-test, 38, 1 % of the subjects state “disagree” while 23, 8 % of the subjects state “agree”.

40 % of the subjects state “agree” in the experimental group while 23, 8 % of the subjects state “agree” in the control group. There is a meaningful difference between the control and experimental group ($p=0,001<0, 05$ paired sample t test).

4.2. Results and Interpretation

In this section, the results of the data gathered by LAQ 1 and LAQ 2 will be discussed and between experimental and control group in terms of post-test will be made to identify whether the learners have become more autonomous after the treatment.

4.2.1. The Interpretation of the Data Gathered From the Experimental Group in the Post-Test in terms of Previous Preparatory School Attendance

When the relation between the experimental group in the post-test and the previous preparatory school attendance is examined, we can state that there is no meaningful difference not only in LAQ 1 but also LAQ 2. At the beginning of this study, the researcher thought that there would be a relation between the degree of autonomy and the previous prep school attendance. It is widely accepted that the learners with a long history of language learning, may display more autonomy than those with shorter one. However, when the calculation, with student t-test and Mann Whitney U-test, was made, we observed that it is not the case. The reason for this

finding may be that the learners who took English prep school attendance previously may not have studied in a way which encourages, on the contrary hinders autonomy.

4.2.2. The Interpretation of the Data Gathered from the Post-Test of Experimental and Control Group

Experimental group showed significant differences in the mean values of both LAQ 1 and LAQ 2 through the paired samples t-tests' findings. Student development of learner autonomy can easily be seen when the pre and post test are statistically compared to one another.

The findings of the paired t-tests convincingly indicate that the implementation of learner autonomy has been successful in fostering learner autonomy. These results compare favorably with the findings of the control group due to the fact that control group does not display significant differences in the pre and post-test regarding the promotion of autonomy.

By consulting the researcher observation notes during the implementation phase, it is possible to mention positive behavior of the experimental group towards the autonomy implementation.

Week 1: The teacher, at the beginning of the lesson, wrote the classroom rules on the board by taking the learners' ideas, and they formulated them cooperatively.

Week 3: There was a discussion on which how the lesson was to be studied, and the teacher gave a brief explanation about what learning stands for by mentioning some principles of ELT.

Week 4: After the teacher had collected their learners' writing papers, she distributed them to the learners randomly. When everybody had papers

which did not belong to them, she asked them to evaluate and give grades for the papers.

Week 5: When the learners' projects were discussed, the teacher took their interests regarding the subject of the projects.

As we can easily state from these statements, the necessities of autonomy in the classroom were made to create the self-directed atmosphere.

In LAQ 1, we may gauge that there are very important differences in the experimental group in terms of pre and post-test regarding the learner choice on the course while focusing on the findings of the questionnaires. Examining five levels of increasing the degree of autonomy by Nunan (1997), we can easily observe the stage 'Involvement', where learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives offers some example goals in its section. Holec (1981) states that learner choice in learning is essential to learner autonomy. As Cotteral (1995) believes, at the heart of learner autonomy lies the concept of choice. These decisions include setting objectives, identifying content as well as selecting methods and techniques. One interpretation of this finding is that experimental treatment is very effective in guiding the learners to decide on the objectives, content, time and place of the lesson. Lee (1998) supports that students can work greatly on their own pace, deciding on the questions of what, when, how, and how often. It seems fairly impossible to employ what has been mentioned above in a real setting at first. Nonetheless, the autonomy implementation makes it possible for the learners to undergo such learning experience. In the experimental group, the percentage of the subjects participating in those decisions has considerably improved. According to Broady (1996), the learners generally have little experience in making any content choice and they have never been able to be encouraged, which hinders effective learning. As we can infer, learner choice and selection have doubled their importance in promoting learner autonomy in the classroom. Benson (2001) notifies that the results of the experimental group in which the learners are asked to set their own goals, plan activities within the classroom have indicated that letting the learners

control their selections is beneficial to language learning. As a result of these findings based on the learner choice, item 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 and 10, it is possible to claim that autonomy implementation is very efficient for the learners to slowly become aware of the importance of their development of “learner choice”. However, it should be noted that “it is not an “all or nothing” concept, thus, the learners may not become responsible for their own learning in spite of the fact that they all are involved in all these processes.

Being involved in formulating the classroom rules, which is greatly related to 6th item, is vitally significant as long as the learners feel like a member of the community while participating in the decision-making of the classroom rules and norms, we can reach a conclusion that the learners who have been taught within the autonomy implementation have greatly undergone a more autonomous practice through the experimental treatment. Considering the alterations in the teacher’s role in autonomous classroom, there may be a democratic atmosphere in which the norms and rules of the classroom are formed cooperatively. Littlejohn (1983, cited in Gardner and Miller, 1999) supports that the learners may be encouraged to take more control over the management of their own study both inside and outside the classroom, and the rules about the classroom.

The 5th item, which focuses on the decisions on the methodology of the lesson, is great significance of autonomy as the teachers should not teach the way they are taught, on the contrary they should teach the way their learner learn best. As we can easily come to a conclusion, the learners have become more involved in decisions on the methodology of the lesson than those in the control group, which also signifies that the learners’ needs in terms of how they are taught have not been neglected during the experimental treatment. It is widely accepted that being involved in deciding the methodology of the lesson enhances learner autonomy because it is the learner who has the word to say about how to learn best. However, autonomy implementation for a period of twelve weeks has not been enough for the learners to promote their autonomy greatly.

In order to help learners to assume greater control over their own learning, it is essential to help them become aware of and identify the strategies that they already use or could potentially use (Holmes and Ramos, 1991, cited in James and Garrett, 1991). Learning strategies are one category of learner training content to be included in plans to help learners become more autonomous (Wenden, 1991). That the learners are encouraged to find out their learning strategies is very important since it is a fact that learner strategies help the learners be aware of how they study more efficiently. In addition, as Dam (1995) claims, teachers train learners to gradually become more active, reflective and critical thinkers in using learning strategies for their own learning as well as encouraging them to initiate experimental practice inside and outside the classroom. It may be possible to infer that the experimental group has been encouraged to discover their own learning strategies. As a response to this fact, the learners were encouraged to find out the strategies, which was also a key element in promoting learner autonomy. The more the learners are aware of the strategies they employ, the more autonomous they will become. As an autonomous learner, one knows the way to study better on his own because he has developed metacognitive strategies, which help him to acquire the language in a conscious sense. The findings of the data revealed that the experimental group has practiced a more autonomous learning perspective rather than the control group while we focused on the items 9, 12 and 13.

Dickinson (1988) states that learner training is increasingly being advocated as a way of preparing students to get the best out of autonomous learning. Since learner training should aim to help learners develop the ability to take more responsibility for their own learning, this process in terms of not only how to study better but also what to focus on the materials provided to the learners has gained its importance by providing the learners with the learner training to identify their learning styles and appropriate strategies.

Harmer (2001) suggests that many teachers ask students to keep journals or diaries of their learning experiences, in the hope that their students will then reflect on their lessons, explore their successes and difficulties, and come to a greater

understanding about learning and language. Based on the item 14, it is also possible to mention that the learners in the experimental group, through the autonomy implementation, have acquired a significant degree of autonomy in terms of self-evaluation and self-awareness based on the findings of LAQ 1. In order to be able to gauge their actual progress, they have experienced keeping journals and learner logs with a view to becoming aware of how long they have gone.

When the motivation and assessment are in question, it is possible to claim that the experimental group has undergone a considerable degree of autonomy in terms of motivation thanks to the autonomy implementation rather than traditional written and tedious exams (8, 11, 15th item). Due to the fact that the learners in the experimental group have been exposed to self-assessment and alternative assessment procedures which are widespread in autonomy, autonomy implementation creates a positive place for the learners while reinforcing the importance of self-assessment as they can revise their learning goals, objectives, learning process and the product based on their own feedback from their perceptions and goals (Bailey, 1996, cited in Kuçuroğlu, 1997). It was also revealed that the learners were assessing themselves at the every phase of the course. Broady (1997, cited in Egel, 2003) states if learners are only extrinsically motivated by exams and marked exercises, they are less likely to develop the motivation needed to sustain greater autonomy.

In LAQ 2, 1st item is closely related to motivation that the learners have during the learning process. The scores of the experimental group underscored those of the control group since the learners in the experimental group were given the opportunity to increase their motivation while their needs and interests being taken into account. The materials, the activities and the teacher may all have allowed this increase to happen in the experimental group. The tasks and projects had gained lots of importance in that they gave the chance to the learners to choose what they wanted to focus. In the literature, Dörnyei (2001) believes that the relevance of autonomy to motivation in psychology has been best highlighted by the influential ‘self-determination theory’, according to which the freedom to choose and to have choices, rather than being force or coerced to behave. When the importance of self-

determination theory is examined in terms of autonomy, the increase in motivation which is related to the first item is getting more and more crucial. Through the activities, the learners' motivation level has greatly improved so that they can take the responsibility for their own learning.

The items 4, 6, 10, 13, 15 which focus on “the independent work in language learning” are closely related to the learners' abilities to work independently. As we can infer the definitions of autonomy in the literature (Holec, 1981, Little, 1990, Kohonen, 1992), learner autonomy entails that the learners work independently. It can be easily seen in the table 29, 31, 35, 38 and 40 that the experimental group maintained their scores using the autonomy implementation. Many of the learners had been learning English at least for three years and they had the chance to experience many language learning techniques during this time. For instance, they learned English through group work, pair work, project work, games and songs. Moreover, they had the opportunity to be encouraged to work independently during the implementation stage through the explanations made by the teacher, the chance to choose their materials. They had more responsibility than the control group. Thus, as the test scores display, experimental group showed certain increases in their scores after the experimental treatment. We can conclude that the learners in the experimental group had shown signs of becoming less dependent on their teachers. When the answers in the pre and post-test were compared with each other, the learners were more informed about how to study better.

Little (1990a) claims that learning activities in the autonomous classroom also need to be supported by some kind of source centre that embraces the spoken as well as the written language and ideally equipped with the learners' interests and needs. In the lights of the findings of LAQ 2, which are all about language learning activities, table 28, regarding the item 3, has illustrated that the learners in the experimental group have gained more autonomy than the control group after the autonomy implementation. The reason underlying this finding may be that the learners have been exposed to more activities based on the individual during the implementation phase. Another important point may be that the learners in the

experimental group have kept their portfolios to reflect their own learning process, which provides the learners with the insights about their performance. Since the activities implemented in the experimental group were based on more than a few aspects such as motivation, learner strategies, self-monitoring, they all helped the learners to enhance their autonomy during the implementation phase.

As McNamara and Deane (1995) point out, self-assessment enables learners to undertake more responsibility regarding their own learning, identify their weak and strong areas as well as effective language learning strategies and materials. As we can infer from these, self-assessment can provide the learners with the opportunity to observe their progress. Based on the item 2, during the implementation stage, the learners were notified the presence of the diary, journals and learner logs, as a result of this, those in the experimental group had come to the point in which they could evaluate themselves. On the contrary, the learners in the control group had the ability to evaluate the tasks and projects even though they were not informed about the details of evaluation and no activities based on were made.

Holec (1981) and Little (2004) claim that through self-awareness, learners may set up learning goals, plan and practice learning activities, select and use appropriate learning strategies, monitor their progress, and actively engage in the learning process. As observed in the table 32, 34 and 37, experimental group showed greater awareness than the control group. Also in accordance with the assessment, the learners became more aware of their evaluation through the portfolio assessment based on the items 7, 9 and 12.

Sheerin (1997) mentions that the learners analyze their needs, set their objectives, plan a programme of work, choose the materials and activities, work unsupervised and evaluate the progress, and synthesize the structure and lexis of a language by means of self-access learning and self-access systems. Since self-access learning was carried out during the implementation stage, the learners in the experimental group did display the degree of autonomy required. When the results of the pre and post-test are compared with one to another in the item 5, we can easily

observe that there has been an increase in the experimental group in terms of synthesis. However, the control group did also show a greater degree of autonomy notwithstanding the fact that they had not been given the autonomy implementation. Statistically, there is not a meaningful difference between the experimental and control group even though both groups increased their scores in terms of synthesizing the language as we can easily see in table 30.

Chan (2001b) asserts that the learners participate actively in and contribute to classroom activities, explore alternative solutions to problems, evaluate critically the teacher's decision on management, materials and give alternative suggestions and initiate appropriate learning activities in and outside class through independent action". As a result of this, in an autonomous classroom, the learners are actively participated in the course. During the implementation phase, the learners were encouraged to take part in the class in the experimental group whereas the teacher did nothing to realize this. Yet, as we can observe in the table 33, about the item 8, there is not a meaningful difference between the experimental and control group. It may be that the learners had been involved in the course actively through the education they took in three months.

When total scores of the item 11 are examined in terms of self-awareness, we can state there is not a significant relation between the experimental and control group. As Dickinson (1993) claims, autonomous learners are able to monitor their use of strategies, which aid them in learning more effectively. It is a fact that the learners in the experimental group practiced larger degree of autonomy thanks to the activities fulfilled in the classroom. On the other hand, the control group, with no autonomy implementation, increased their scores because the reason may be that they had the education within three months and they had been learning English for at least 6 years, and they may have become aware of their learning strategies through this period. Another reason may be that in order to survive in learning English they may have developed some strategies and become aware of how they learnt. When 14th item, also closely related to self-awareness, was asked to the learners in both groups, we can state that there is not a meaningful difference between the

experimental and control group according to the result of paired sample t-test. The results of the paired sample t-test reveal that most of the learners in the experimental group liked their way of learning whereas those in the control group stated nearly the same. When their pre-test scores are examined, a considerable increase can easily be seen in both groups. The reason may be that the learners in the experimental group, since they were informed about how to study better, showed higher degree than their pre-test.

4.2.3. Comparing Autonomy of Experimental and Control Group after the Experimental Treatment

After the autonomy implementation, statistical analysis was needed in order to compare the learner autonomy of the experimental and control group. Student t-test was used so as to fulfill this comparison. As a result of test, it is possible to claim that the majority of the students in the experimental group showed increased autonomy thanks to the implementation. On the contrary, the students in the control group did not change a lot with a few exceptions.

4.2.4. Comparing the Results of the Present Study with those of the Similar Studies

When the results are compared with those of the study fulfilled by Lee (1998), we can easily state that there is a difference which can be reasoned by the following factors. In the study by Lee whose aim was to promote learner autonomy, the experimental treatment did not work efficiently due to the fact that the stage was much shorter than this study. Whereas the study by Lee was processed within 8 weeks, this study took more than twelve weeks, which is more appropriate in the autonomy literature. The conclusion to be drawn by the study by Lee, creating a self-directed learning programme, however, does not in itself enable learners to become self-directed. However, in the present study, not only was a self-directed learning programme was implemented but also the activities and exercises were made during the implementation phase.

In spite of the fact the subjects do not share the same features with those in the study performed by Egel (2003), we can compare the results of her study with this study. In Egel's study, the subjects were young learners studying in primary school Grades 4 and 5. Also, the implementation of European Language Portfolio was made to the experimental group to promote learner autonomy. As we can conclude from the results of the study, it is stated that the promotion of autonomy has been achieved through ELP implementation. This study took twelve weeks to finish, and at the end of the experimental treatment, we can come to a conclusion that the learners in the experimental groups have become more autonomous than the control group. There is a relation between the results of her study and those of the present study.

The study fulfilled by Gündoğdu (1997, cited in Koçak, 2003) was on the investigation of autonomous learning in a primary school in England. Despite the fact that this study was described as a case study, it, however, shared some aspects with the present study. Based on the results of that study, it can be inferred that autonomous learning could occur when teachers assumed the role of facilitator of knowledge, became a supporter of helping pupil build self-responsibility, self-confidence and self-direction and created a child-centered classroom enabling children to be independent, on which the results of the present study focuses.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

In this chapter, conclusions of the study will be presented, pedagogical implications will be provided and some suggestions in the light of the results of this study will be made.

5.1. Summary and Conclusion

The aim of this study was to promote learner autonomy through activities at Gazi University Prep School. To achieve this aim, some important arrangements were made. Two groups were appointed as experimental and control group in this study to be able to identify whether any change would exist after the experimental treatment. The first step was to give the questionnaire to both experimental and control group to explore how much autonomy they had before the treatment of autonomy. Both the groups had the same education with the same teacher and for the same amount of time. With the Experimental Group, the lessons were carried out through the applications and principles of autonomy and activities designed to promote learner autonomy while the lessons were conducted without implementing the principles of learner autonomy with the control group. This implementation process lasted within 12 weeks by means of several changes. During this period, the learners kept journals and diaries which they could explain their feelings and ideas by the guidance of their teacher, filled learner logs which allowed them to follow their progress. Besides, the activities to promote learner autonomy were conducted for the experimental group, the results of which were recorded. Administered to the experimental group before the treatment of autonomy, the questionnaire was administered in both control and experimental group to find out whether there would

be any difference among the experimental and control group as a consequence of autonomy implementation to the 41 learners during the second term of the 2005-2006.

In order to carry out this study more efficiently, LAQ 1 developed by the researcher and LAQ 2 developed by Demirel (2002) were administered to 41 learners studying at preparatory school, Gazi University. Both instruments utilized in this study were found to have relatively high reliability. The Cronbach's alpha value of the questionnaire developed by the researcher was 0, 88 whereas the Cronbach's alpha value of the questionnaire developed by Demirel (2002) was 0, 87.

There were two reasons for choosing preparatory school EFL learners were used as the subjects in this study. First of all, it was anticipated that the learners who were about to commence one-year language programme were on the verge of a long-lasting period, language learning. Once they acquired the basic principles of how to study English in a more effective way, it certainly meant that it would be unproblematic for them to use it in the future. The earlier they were aware of their language strategies about learning, the easier it would be for them to travel in this path. Secondly, it was assumed that they were a bit more motivated to learn English since it was inevitably important for them in their future careers and they would not continue studying at their departments unless they passed the preparatory class.

The results of the data gathered from the questionnaire revealed that the promotion of autonomy in the foreign language classroom was achieved in a large scale. Implementing autonomy within twelve weeks in a foreign language classroom at Gazi University, Prep School enhanced the learner autonomy of the participants in the experimental group of this study. On the contrary, the control group -with traditional teacher-centered language learning- did not undergo much change, with a few exceptions, in terms of developing autonomy.

After the autonomy implementation, experimental group showed higher degree of autonomy than the control group. However, some learners in the control group displayed more autonomy without implementation. This may be the reason that the learners in question had some background in English and had been so motivated to learn English. Another reason may be that they were taught English and their autonomy degree may have improved in accordance with their attitudes towards English itself within twelve weeks. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the autonomy implementation as a supplementary aid was an efficient and motivating way of language learning for the prep school learners.

Several factors which had an effective impact on the promotion of autonomy during the implementation stage should be mentioned.

1. Teacher's counseling integration in a more systematic way

Unlike the traditional language learning in which the teacher directs the courses without letting anyone talk or share his ideas in the classroom, the teacher following the courses in the experimental group did not neglect her learners' interests and needs during the implementation stage. Lee states (1998) that if, as teachers, we are to succeed in promoting learner autonomy, we need to understand and consider how our learners perceive autonomous learning and their responsibilities in learning. Besides, as Rogers (1961) believes, we should see our learners as whole creatures with their emotions and cognitive skills. In order to promote learner autonomy, one of the most important things that the teacher has to take into account is that she gives the learners the sense of being looked up to in the classroom. Moreover, the teacher is at their service as soon as the learners desperately need their teacher in terms of learning English when they are in trouble.

2. Portfolios, Learning Logs, Journals, Learner Contract

Genesee and Upshur (1996) claim that portfolios can provide information about students' views of their own learning and the strategies that they apply. The portfolios which enabled the learners to keep their progress day by day by collecting what they have produced were very important factors in promoting learner autonomy since they had the chance the opportunity to assess themselves.

As Genesee and Upshur (1996) indicate, learners themselves can use their learning logs for self-assessment, to monitor their progress towards achieving their personal goals or the objectives of other content areas, and to identify areas difficulty linguistic or non-linguistic through learner logs. In this respect, that the learners kept learner logs twice a week helped them to be aware of their learning goals and improvement.

Harmer (2001) suggests that many teachers ask students to keep journals or diaries of their learning experiences, in the hope that their students will then reflect on their lessons, explore their successes and difficulties, and come to a greater understanding about learning and language. Consequently, journals played a great role in promoting learner autonomy in the experimental group. According to Little (1990a), the study fulfilled in Scandinavia revealed that journals enabled the learners to keep an individual record of the learning undertaken and assesses how well or badly particular tasks have been done, and thanks the journals and more, they became more autonomous than the past. In this study, the journals required for the learners to keep did work a lot.

Learner contract is widely accepted as an important tool in fostering autonomy owing to the fact that learning contracts provide a vehicle for making the planning of learning experiences a mutual undertaking between a learner and any helper, mentor, or teacher (Hiemstra, 1994). As it can be concluded that the learners who have no clear idea or objective about learning should be provided the learner contract. As a matter of a fact, in this study before the experimental treatment in the

experimental group an agreement between the teacher and learners was made so that the learners could know their responsibilities.

3. Activities

It is widely known what has been stated above may not be adequate for the learners in the experimental group to become more autonomous. In order to achieve that in a more effective sense, some activities that are designed to foster autonomy based on several aspects of autonomy were implemented in the classroom in order that the learners would be encouraged to take their responsibility for their own learning.

5.2. Pedagogical Implications

This study has shed light on the significance of promotion of autonomy for the learners studying at Prep School, Gazi University and presented the necessity of autonomy in the foreign language classrooms, especially for the adults. In the light of the finding which has been discussed so far, we can draw three educational implications.

The first one is that autonomy should be developed at universities for the learners who have just commenced their academic education since it will lead them to become competent enough to take the responsibility for their own learning. It is generally recognized that students arrive at university with different experiential backgrounds and learning achievements, but we know little about students' autonomous dispositions at entry therefore the extent to which higher education develops or constrains autonomy in learning. Learners need metacognitive skills such as power of reflection, decision-making and independent action since learners are required to take responsibility and find their own methods of gathering, synthesizing and evaluating information at university. It is an essential step at universities due to the fact that the learners, when they have become university students, do not have

lots of study skills which will help them in their future education career. Through the autonomy implementation, this situation could be improved so that they might not face any difficulty in doing their academic career. While aiming to foster autonomy at universities, several key points are to be considered.

- a) Syllabuses and assessment models of the universities should be redesigned in accordance with the principles of autonomy.
- b) The course books to be followed at universities are required to be assessed whether it encourages autonomy or not.
- c) Lectures ought to be trained on learner autonomy and some in-service training should be fulfilled.

The second one is that autonomy, which gives the learners the ability to study on his own, is to be taken into account at State Primary Schools as it will lead the learners to take their own responsibility for their own learning from the scratch. Based on the proverb “You can't teach an old dog a new trick”, the learners who study at primary school should be trained to be responsible for their own learning so that they could feel do better in their future education. As a response to the lack knowledge of the teachers at state primary schools, pre-service training may be held so as to inform them about the basic principles of autonomy.

The third one is that the importance of European Language Portfolio is doubling its importance day by day which can also be examined with learner autonomy owing to the fact that the former does emphasize some elements of autonomy. As mentioned in the review of literature, ELP requires that it promote self-directed learning and responsible language learning. Moreover, the central role of self-assessment and self-assessment instruments provided for ELP are highly encouraged in autonomy. Above all, all the projects carried out throughout the world underline that lifelong learning for the citizens should be developed, which we can associate with learner autonomy.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

This study has revealed that autonomy implementation in the foreign language classroom has increased the degree of autonomy for the learners studying English at Prep School. Three suggestions could be made for the further research driven from the findings of this study.

- a) This study could be repeated with a larger number of the subjects so that the results may be gained more reliably.
- b) Action research, which is particularly suited to the field of autonomy since it can help us to develop our own autonomy as teachers, is an ideal approach and is likely to be most successful when it addresses specific questions. Therefore, this study could be fulfilled with the action research for the further studies in order that the researcher can practice the implementation at the same time and control the students' development of autonomy.
- c) The autonomy implementation stage lasted within 12 weeks in this study, for further research this duration should be extended because it takes a long time to process. The reason why a-twelve-week period has been used is that the learners change their classes and teacher when the first semester is over. When the new semester starts, the classes will be mixed with new teachers, which causes lots of difficulties for the learners to adapt to the new environment.
- d) It is generally assumed that more autonomous learners are regarded as more successful learners. This study could be repeated by focusing on the relation between the grades of the students and level of learner autonomy.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE

GAZİ UNIVERSITY
GAZİ FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PREPARATORY
SCHOOL LEARNERS
2006-2007

TO THE PARTICIPANT

This questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part is made up of your background information. You will find some questions related to learner autonomy in the second section. As for the third section, your opinions regarding learner autonomy will be required. Recommending that the carried out study will make your language learning process more efficient, I thank you for your responses.

Res. Assist. Cem BALÇIKANLI
 Department of ELT

SECTION I:

PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. **Gender:** Male () Female ()
2. **Age**
3. **Lycee Type**
 - a. State High School ()
 - b. Anatolian High School ()
 - c. Anatolian Teacher Education High School ()

- d. Super High School ☐
- e. Private High School ☐
- f. College ☐
- g. Vocational High School ☐
- Others: _____

4. Education Type

Day Class ☐ Evening Class ☐

5. Faculty

- a. Faculty of Economics and Administrative ☐
- b. Faculty of Engineering and Architecture ☐
- c. Faculty of Technical Education ☐
- d. Faculty of Medicine ☐
- e. Others: _____

6. Do you like learning English?

Yes ☐ No ☐

7. Have you attended preparatory school before?

Yes ☐ No ☐

8. How long have you been learning English?

a. less than 6 years ☐ b. more than 6 years ☐

9. How do you find your English level?

a. good ☐ b. middle ☐ c. bad ☐

SECTION II:

This part constitutes 15 questions concerning the concept “learner autonomy”. Please put a **cross (X)** in the box appropriate for you.

1. Never**2. Little****3. Partly****4. Much****5. Very much**

☺	LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE -1	1	2	3	4	5
1	How much are you involved in establishing the objectives of a course?					
2	How much are you involved in deciding the course content?					
3	How much are you involved in selecting materials?					
4	How much are you involved in decisions on the time, place and pace of the course?					
5	How much are you involved in decisions on the methodology of the course?					
6	How much are you involved in decisions on classroom management?					
7	How much are you involved in decisions on homework tasks?					
8	How much are you encouraged to assess yourself?					
9	How much are you involved in decisions on what to focus on from materials given by the teacher?					
10	How much are you involved in decisions on the choice of learning tasks (projects, presentations)?					
11	How much are you encouraged to formulate your own explanations for classroom tasks?					
12	How much are you encouraged to find out learning strategies by yourself?					
13	How much are you informed about how to study better on your own?					
14	How much are you encouraged to keep the journals and take notes to follow your progress during English learning?					
15	How much are you encouraged to prepare your learning plans?					

SECTION III:

There are 15 statements about learner autonomy in this part. Please tick the option which you consider the most appropriate.

1: I strongly disagree**2: I disagree****3: Not sure****4: I agree****5: I strongly agree**

☺	LEARNER AUTONOMY QUESTIONNAIRE -2	1	2	3	4	5
1	I need to learn more than I am required with my all efforts.					
2	I follow my progress while learning English.					
3	I like projects and activities where I can work on my own.					
4	I can learn English grammar on my own/without needing a teacher					
5	I understand the meaning of a word identifying prefix and suffix of a word.					
6	I can identify and select the additional materials to support the subject.					
7	I can evaluate myself in terms of my tasks and projects.					
8	I actively participate in the course.					
9	I have several strategies to understand and remember English grammar.					
10	If I can not learn English in the classroom, I can work on my own.					
11	I am aware of my learning strategies.					
12	I have some games to keep the words I learn in my mind.					
13	I am responsible for my own learning.					
14	I like my way of studying English.					
15	I know how to study English by myself.					

APPENDIX 2

ÖĞRENEN ÖZERKLİĞİ ANKETİ

GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
GAZİ EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜ
HAZIRLIK ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN “ÖĞRENEN ÖZERKLİĞİ*” ANKETİ
2006–2007

KATILIMCI'YA

Bu anket üç ana bölümden oluşmaktadır. İlk bölüm kişisel bilgilerinizi içermektedir. İkinci bölümde öğrenen özerkliğiyle ilgili soruları cevaplamanız, üçüncü bölümde ise verilen durumlara ilişkin görüşleriniz istenecektir. Yapılan çalışmanın dil öğrenmenizi daha etkin kılmak için düzenlendiğini hatırlatarak vereceğiniz cevaplar için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Cem BALÇIKANLI
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi ABD

1. BÖLÜM: KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Bay () Bayan ()
2. Yaşınız
3. Mezun Olduğunuz Okul Türü:

a. Düz Lise ()	e. Özel Okul ()
b. Anadolu Lisesi ()	f. Kolej ()
c. Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi ()	g. Teknik/Meslek Lise ()
d. Süper Lise ()	

 Diğer: _____

4. I. Öğretim () II.Öğretim ()

5. Fakülteniz:

- a. İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi ()
- b. Mühendislik Mimarlık Fakültesi ()
- c. Teknik Eğitim Fakültesi ()
- d. Tıp fakültesi ()
- e. Diğer : _____

6. İngilizce öğrenmeyi seviyor musunuz?

Evet () Hayır ()

7. Daha önce İngilizce Hazırlık Eğitimi aldınız mı?

Evet () Hayır ()

8. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?

- a. 6 yıldan az b. 6 yıldan çok

9. İngilizce seviyenizi nasıl buluyorsunuz?

- a. iyi () b. orta () c. kötü ()

2. BÖLÜM:

Bu bölüm, öğrenen özerkliği kavramıyla ilgili 15 soruyu içermektedir. Size en uygun gelen bir seçeneğe ait boş kutuya **çarpı (X)** işareti koyarak işaretleyin.

1. Hiç

2. Biraz

3. Kısmen

4. Fazla

5. Çok Fazla

☺	HAZIRLIK ÖĞRENCİLERİ ÖZERKLİK ANKETİ -1	1	2	3	4	5
1	Dersin amaçlarını oluşturma aşamasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
2	Dersin içeriğine karar verme aşamasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
3	Derste kullanılacak materyallerin seçiminde ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
4	Dersin zamanı, yeri ve aşamalarıyla ilgili kararların alınmasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
5	Dersin nasıl işlenmesi gerektiğiyle ilgili kararlar üzerine ne kadar yorumda bulunuyorsunuz?					
6	Sınıf yönetimiyle ilgili kararların alınması aşamasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
7	Verilen ödevlerle ilgili kararların oluşturulması aşamasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
8	Kendinizi değerlendirilmenizle ilgili olarak ne kadar cesaretlendiriliyorsunuz?(motive ediliyorsunuz)					
9	Size sağlanan materyallerden neye odaklanacağınızla ilgili kararlar aşamasında ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
10	Öğrenim etkinliklerinizin (projeler, sunular,vb) seçiminde ne kadar bulunuyorsunuz?					
11	Öğrenim etkinlikleriniz için kendi açıklamalarınızı oluşturmanızda ne kadar motive ediliyorsunuz?					
12	Kendi öğrenme stratejilerinizi keşfetmeniz ve geliştirmeniz konusunda ne kadar destekleniliyorsunuz?					
13	İngilizce'yi yalnız başınıza daha iyi çalışabilmeniz için ne kadar bilgilendiriliyorsunuz?					
14	İngilizce öğrenme sürecinizdeki gelişiminizi takip edebilmek için günlük veya not tutmanız için ne kadar cesaretlendiriliyorsunuz?					
15	Öğrenme planlarınızı hazırlarken ne kadar motive ediliyorsunuz?					

3. BÖLÜM:

Bu bölümde toplam 15 tane önerme bulunmaktadır. En uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

1: Hiç katılmıyorum

2: Katılmıyorum

3: Fikrim yok

4: Katılıyorum

5: Tamamen katılıyorum

☺	HAZIRLIK ÖĞRENCİLERİ ÖZERKLİK ANKETİ -2	1	2	3	4	5
1	Öğrenmem istenenden daha fazlasını kendi çabalarım ile öğrenmeye istek duyarım.					
2	İngilizce öğrenirken gösterdiğim gelişimi izlerim.					
3	Kendi başıma çalışabileceğim projeleri veya aktiviteleri yapmaktan hoşlanırım.					
4	İngilizce dil bilgisini kendi kendime/öğretmene gerek duymadan öğrenebilirim.					
5	İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, kelimenin ön ve son eklerini belirleyerek çıkarırım.					
6	Çalıştığım konuları destekleyen ek materyalleri belirleyip seçebilirim.					
7	Kendimi ödevlerim veya projelerim açısından değerlendirebiliyorum.					
8	Derse etkin katılmayı severim					
9	Grameri daha iyi anlayabilmek ve hatırlamak için bazı stratejiler geliştiririm					
10	Derste öğrenemediğim bir konuyu tek başıma çalışarak öğrenebilirim.					
11	Öğrenme yöntemlerimim farkındayım.					
12	Öğrendiğim kelimeleri aklımda tutmak için kendime ait oyunlarım var.					
13	Öğrenmemden ben sorumluyum.					
14	İngilizce çalışma yöntemimi seviyorum.					
15	İngilizce'yi yalnız başıma nasıl çalışacağımı biliyorum.					

SUGGESTED SAMPLE ACTIVITIES

Ready made questionnaires answering questions on learning styles and activities

Main goal	collecting information
Language focus	reading comprehension
Preparation	handouts

You may ask students to fill in the questionnaires in the lesson, or, to save classroom time, you may assign them for homework. If you find any of them too difficult for your students to do in the foreign language, you may use a translated version, as the emphasis here is on the collection of information rather than on language practice.

1. Questionnaire to survey past experience

Please read the questions carefully and answer as many as you can.

Did your last language teacher always explain every point to you? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did you have to guess rules/meanings yourself? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did your last language teacher ever ask you to work in pairs or groups? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did your last language teacher usually stand at the front of the class when he/she was teaching? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did your last language teacher speak the foreign language most of the time in a lesson? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did you ever have to speak/write about yourself in the English lesson or as homework? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did you get an extra task or a bad mark if you did not do your homework? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did you ever have to correct/mark the work of another pupil? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did your teacher ever ask for your opinion about what to do in the lesson or how you would like to learn? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

Did you often use other materials in the lesson (or only the textbook)? YES/NO/DON'T KNOW

What did you especially like or dislike about the way you were taught?

.....
.....

(Based on Wright, 1987 p. 134.)

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2. Questionnaire on learning styles

Please read the sentences carefully, and tick the ones that apply to you.

a)

In class, I like to learn by games.

In class, I like to learn by pictures, films, video.

I like to learn the foreign language by talking in pairs.

I like to go out with the class and practise the foreign language.

At home, I like to learn by using cassettes.

In class, I like to listen and use cassettes.

b)

I like to study grammar.

At home, I like to learn by studying foreign language books.

I like to study the foreign language by myself (alone).

I like the teacher to let me find my mistakes.

I like the teacher to give us problems to work on.

At home, I like to learn by reading newspapers.

c)

I like to learn by watching, listening to foreign language speakers.

I like to learn by talking to friends in the foreign language.

At home, I like to learn by watching TV in the foreign language.

I like to learn by using the foreign language in shops, on the phone, ...

I like to learn the foreign language words by hearing them.

In class, I like to learn by conversations.

d)

I like the teacher to explain everything to us.

I want to write everything in my notebook.

I like to have my own textbook.

In the foreign language class, I like to learn by reading.

I like to study grammar.

I like to learn new words by seeing them.

(Adapted from Willing, 1989.)

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Key:

Each group of sentences corresponds to a learning style, as follows:

a) Concrete b) Analytical c) Communicative d) Authority oriented. Most students are characterised by a mixture of two or three styles, with a dominant one among them.

3. Questionnaire on responsible attitudes

This questionnaire has two parts: the first one asking about the learner and the second one about the group in general. Some students may tend to overrate themselves, trying to please the teacher: take this into account when you evaluate the first part. Use the second part as a description of the general mood or norms of behaviour in the classroom. Work out the result by adding up the numbers for questions 2, 3, and 5, and deducting the numbers for 1, 4, and 6. The maximum score is 15, indicating a very responsible student, and the minimum score is -15, indicating an alarmingly irresponsible one.

Explain to students that you would like to learn about their attitudes towards learning the foreign language, and you would like them to fill in a questionnaire as honestly as they can. Make it clear that it will not affect their marks in any way. Give each of them a copy of the questionnaire. If necessary, explain the first sentence. (They should first decide how they rate their own knowledge – good or bad – and then decide how much that can be explained by having had good or bad teachers.) The second part may also need some explaining: students shouldn't worry about describing individual classmates, but the general atmosphere in the class.

3. Questionnaire on responsible attitudes

Read the sentences carefully. If you completely agree, circle 6. If you do not agree at all, circle 1.

As for me ...

the reason why I am good (bad) at the foreign language, is because I have had good (bad) teachers. 1 2 3 4 5 6

I know what I should practise more in the foreign language. 1 2 3 4 5 6

I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at. 1 2 3 4 5 6

I want only to survive the language lesson. 1 2 3 4 5 6

sometimes I learn/read things that the teacher did not give as a task. 1 2 3 4 5 6

I do as little as possible for my homework.	1 2 3 4 5 6
it is important for <i>me</i> to learn the foreign language (not only for my parents' sake or for the marks).	1 2 3 4 5 6

As for most of the others in the class . . .

the reason why they are good (bad) at the foreign language, is because they have had good (bad) teachers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

they know what they should practise more in the foreign language.	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

they pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something they are not so good at.	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

they want only to survive the language lesson.	1 2 3 4 5 6
--	-------------

sometimes they learn/read things that the teacher did not give as a task.	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

they do as little as possible for their homework.	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

it is important for them to learn the foreign language (not only for their parents' sake or for the marks).	1 2 3 4 5 6
---	-------------

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4. Questionnaire on attitudes towards learning the foreign language

Please read the sentences carefully and finish them with the adverb that best applies to you.

I enjoy learning the foreign language	very much / quite a lot / not much / not at all
---------------------------------------	---

In my language learning this year I expect to do	very well / quite well / not badly / poorly
--	---

We waste a lot of time in the foreign language class	very often / sometimes / never
--	--------------------------------

In five years' time my command of the foreign language will be	much better / a little better / the same / worse
--	--

I like the people in my language class	very much / quite a lot / not much / not at all
--	---

I would like to visit / have friends from a country where the foreign language is spoken	very much / quite a lot / not much / not at all
--	---

I would like to live in a country where the foreign language is spoken	very much / quite a lot / not much / not at all
--	---

Is there anything else you find important about your feelings towards the target language, or the people who speak the target language?

.....

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5. Strengths and weaknesses analysis

This questionnaire can give you important information on your students' perception of their command of the foreign language, and it can also be a first step to get your students to think about their learning.

5. Questionnaire on strengths and weaknesses

Think about what you can do or cannot do in the foreign language. (For example: talking with another student, filling in grammar tests, speaking without grammar mistakes, writing without grammar mistakes or spelling mistakes, understanding tape recorded speech, speaking in front of the whole class, speaking with correct pronunciation.) Finish the sentences below giving more than one example if you can.

In the foreign language, I am quite good at

.....

.....

In the foreign language, I am fairly good at

.....

.....

In the foreign language, I am not so good at

.....

.....

In the foreign language, I find it difficult to

.....

.....

Is there anything that you are good at, but still keen to improve, or anything that you find difficult, but you don't mind that much? Would you like to add any other comments?

.....

.....

Group discussions

comparing likes and dislikes in learning

Main goal	collecting information on learner preferences
Language focus	oral fluency practice, writing a report, <i>like</i> with gerund
Preparation	(handouts)

Students work in groups to compare their likes, dislikes, and abilities in learning the foreign language. You may need to ask one student in each group to lead the discussion. If this role is new to the students, you may give one student in each group a role card entitled 'Group leader' like the one below:

Group leader

You will lead the discussion in this group.

- Make sure that everybody in the group has a chance to say what they think, and that nobody talks too much.
- Be polite but firm.
- If nobody is willing to speak, say what you think and ask some very easy questions.

You may write the questions to be discussed on the blackboard or give handouts to the groups. Give them some 10–15 minutes to talk and ask them to produce a short report. If necessary, you can also supply the patterns to be used in the report. So, the handout might look like this:

Discuss similarities and differences in the group in the following areas. Before you start, choose a secretary to take notes, and a chairperson to lead the discussion.

- types of class activities that you like best (dialogues in pairs, reading stories, listening to stories, doing grammar tests, etc.)
- your favourite sense (reading texts, watching pictures/video, listening to speech, listening to music, touching, miming)
- your best talent in the foreign language
- ways you use the foreign language outside class (friends, computer games, newspapers, holiday, etc.)

When you finish the discussion, write a report about the group as a whole.

You can start your sentences like this:

Most of us . . .

Some of us . . .

Not one of us . . .

First words

teaching and learning some internationally used words

Level	beginner/elementary
Main goal	self-confidence
Language focus	vocabulary building
Preparation	pictures or objects
Note	this activity is fairly short but spreads over two lessons

The point of this activity is to show students how much they already know, to mobilise their existing knowledge, and to encourage their contribution to classroom work.

In one of your first lessons with the group, for homework ask your students to find words that they already know, and find a way to teach them to or share them with the others (e.g. by miming them, or bringing a picture of them). Encourage them to choose words they think are unknown to the others – although students will also profit from relearning familiar words as they can confirm their correct pronunciation and spelling in the target language.

You may demonstrate the task before assigning it as homework. Bring a few objects or pictures of objects that your students are likely to know in the foreign language (in the case of English, such words may include cigarettes, a radio, a window), show them the objects and simply say their names, and perhaps write them on the blackboard.

In the next lesson, students will teach each other their chosen words – the whole class, or in groups of five to ten students. Ask a student (or a delegate from each group) to put the words on the blackboard so that they can see how much they know already. (You may need to teach ‘nothing’ to students who did not do their homework!)

Variation 1:

At the end of a lesson ask students how many *verbs* they know in the foreign language and ask them to think about the answer at home. At the start of the next lesson ask the same question. Mime a simple verb and have the learners guess what it is. Collect all guesses on the blackboard, then mime another one or ask a student to carry on. Keep on with the activity until the list is long enough to be an encouragement for all the students. (Most of them are likely to make low estimates of their vocabulary.) If you think that miming would take too much time, you can simply have students brainstorm all the verbs they know.

Variation 2:

Instead of verbs, you can ask students to think of words in their mother tongue that are the same (or similar) in the foreign language.

Guessing hidden strengths ✓ *talking about special skills in the group*

Level	elementary/intermediate
Main goals	self-confidence, group cohesion
Language focus	gerund forms, short answers
Notes	works well as a warm-up for groups of up to 15, use carefully if the local culture discourages self-praise, and use only with groups that have been together for a few weeks at least

The point here is to give confidence to the students and give them a chance to win the respect of the others in the group.

Ask students to write one sentence about themselves like this: *I am good at . . . -ing*. Tell them to choose a hidden strength that most others in the group do not know about. Collect all the sentences, shuffle them and give one to each student (make sure that nobody is given their own sentence). Ask students to try and guess who wrote the sentence they got, and read it out like this: *I think/suspect X is good at . . . -ing*. Then X can confirm if the statement applies, and if this was really the hidden strength (s)he wrote about. (To make this part easier for shy students, you can ask them either to just nod and smile or shake their head in response to the sentence.) You may need to intervene towards the end if there are students whom nobody mentioned. Just say 'Let me make a guess, too', and repeat one of the previously used sentences with the name of a neglected student. In a small class, you can let the guessing go on until students find the author of each sentence, while in a large class you can save time by limiting guesses to three and resolving any 'mysteries' at the end of the activity. For a more structured activity of this type see *The wallchart* (page 41). (Adapted from Davis and Rinvulcri, 1990.)

Out in the world

reporting on the use of the foreign language outside the classroom

Level	intermediate/advanced
Main goals	self-confidence, identifying difficulties
Language focus	reporting, written fluency practice, past tenses, reported speech
Note	may be used as a homework assignment

*Eiffel tower**choosing a colour to repaint a building*

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goals	self-confidence, creativity
Language focus	arguing and persuading, conditionals

As there are no wrong answers, this activity gives room for creativity and increases confidence.

Ask pairs to discuss what colour they would want to paint the Eiffel tower in Paris if they had the chance to decide. If students don't know the tower, choose some other building they are familiar with, e.g. their school. At the elementary level students may simply practise *would* in questions and answers, while advanced students can try their hands at persuasion techniques. After five minutes, in a small class you may just ask a few pairs about their decision and their reasons, or in a larger class form groups of four students and have them exchange their views. You may also collect 'votes' and then officially state the majority decision of the class.

Variation:

You may also ask students what other changes they would like to make to the building if they could (and had lots of money).

Pastimes

comparing favourite pastimes to learning preferences

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goal	discovering learning styles
Language focus	comparing, expressing preferences using <i>prefer/like</i> <i>doing something</i> , comparative adjectives

Ask students to think about how they like to spend their free time, and to make a list of favourite activities. Have pairs or groups share notes, and arrange the activities into groups under the following headings: picture, sound, movement, and touch. (Groups may overlap.) Ask them to check which group(s) their favourite pastimes tend to belong to. Explain that the categories they used correspond to the four main types of perception (see note for *Questionnaire on learning styles* on page 18). To clarify what this means in practice, you may put the four types on the blackboard and ask students how they could do a learning task (e.g. memorising irregular verb forms, or presenting a story for the class) in different ways corresponding to the four types. Then, ask them to think of their preferred type of perception when they learn things, e.g. do they read aloud or silently, or do they learn words by writing them down, and see if it is in the same group as their favourite pastimes. For example, Anita did pantomime for a few years and she is a devoted theatregoer: she remembers words best if she writes them down several times. So, it seems that for her *picture* and *movement* are more important than *sound*.

Grouping words

learning new words

Main goal	memory techniques
Language focus	vocabulary building
Preparation	(copies of word lists)

This activity introduces a technique for learning new words. On the blackboard, write a list of words you think are new to the class. It should be a random collection, with no grammatical or topical cohesion. Ask learners to look at the list and try to memorise as many of the words as they can in, say, five minutes. Then, erase the words and ask them to write down as many as they can remember. Do a quick survey to check results. Then, give them another list where the same number of new words are grouped in some logical way, and give them the same task. Check results and compare them with the first one. Explain that, in theory, learners should do better on the second task, as the meaningful grouping of words helps retention. If this was not the case, discuss what other factors may have helped them in doing the first task. Ask students what other techniques they know of and use for learning new words.

For more practice, you may give them the first list on a handout and ask them to try and group the words and learn them for the next lesson. You can check results next time.

Level	intermediate/advanced
Main goals	scanning, skimming
Language focus	reading practice
Preparation	handouts with task sheet and written passage

The activity helps students realise that different reading tasks require different strategies in reading.

Select a written passage appropriate to the level of the class. Give each student the same passage but different task sheets to one half than to the other. The first task sheet should instruct students to look for specific pieces of information in the text, e.g. the name and occupation of characters or if there are any animals mentioned, etc. The second sheet should ask general comprehension questions that require careful reading of the whole text. The number of questions should be about the same. Give students the task sheet first and ask them to read it carefully before they set about the task. Then give them the text: they should read it only once, and *time* their reading.

Students in the first group are likely to finish earlier, so you may give some extra follow-up task at the bottom of the sheet that does not require further reading (e.g. make a list of animal names you know in the foreign language). When both groups have finished, have them compare reading times, and reveal the difference in their tasks. Discuss implications for reading strategy. For further practice in reading strategies, see *Reading assignment* on page 74.

Associations

linking new words to old ones

Main goals	memory techniques, personalising new input, sharing ideas
Language focus	vocabulary review
Preparation	new words on the blackboard or on OHP
Note	may be used as a homework assignment

This activity provides practice and shows new ways of making associations when learning new words.

As a follow up for an activity that involved learning new words (e.g. reading a passage from the textbook), ask students to look at the new words and try to associate each with another word they already know. Look at for example, three words connected to ice:

- icicle* – bicycle (sounds similar)
- frost* – frozen (same topic, begins with same sound)
- hail* – storm (goes together in compound word)

When they finish, ask them to work in pairs (or small groups) and try to put their associations into categories, such as 'sounds similar', 'begins with same syllable', 'goes together in a phrase', 'similar meaning', 'similar topic', or any other they find suitable. Do not give too many examples as that may influence the students' own ideas too much. When each pair or group has covered most of the words, let them each explain one category to the whole class. You may then discuss how they use categories and associations in learning new words, and perhaps other memory techniques they can use.

Level	beginner/elementary/intermediate
Main goals	memory techniques, creativity
Language focus	vocabulary review
Preparation	as many pictures as groups

Concepts are easier to remember if we link them to an image: the activity provides practice in this technique.

Prepare some pictures each showing something different (people or objects) and neither too simple nor too complex, such as a family coming out of a house, a dog chasing a cat, a figure standing in the rain. Give one picture to each group and ask them to write down as many words about or connected to the picture as they can. Make it clear that this is not a free associations exercise: the purpose is to link words (concepts) to pictures. When they have some ten to fifteen words, or at the end of five minutes, groups exchange their photos. They will now use the same list they have compiled, and try to link the old words with the new picture. They can use all sorts of associations now. Look at the example overleaf:



The first picture may prompt the following associations: *alone, rain, cold, dark*. These words may be linked to the second picture like this:

- they are going to see Grandma who lives *alone*
- they are wearing boots because the soil is damp from the *rain*
- they are coming outside because it's *cold* and *dark* in the house

Discuss how they can use this technique when learning words, e.g. they can make a list of words they find difficult to remember, and try to link each with a picture (mental or real). Knowing about this technique may also help them choose study materials.

As a follow up, you may use the lists to practise word types: ask them to rewrite the lists grouping nouns or adjectives together. Alternatively, you may refer back to the pictures and check if students tended to write more verbs or nouns for particular photos and if so, why.

My learning self

comparing personalities in and outside the classroom

Level	intermediate/advanced
Main goal	focusing on the learning process
Language focus	describing people, adjectives, simple present
Preparation	list of adjectives on OHP or blackboard

This activity helps students think consciously about themselves as learners.

Make up a list of adjectives that may describe people as language learners (e.g. *slow, careful, lazy, serious, friendly, shy, talkative, interested, enthusiastic, passive, quick, diligent, impatient, careless, thorough, forgetful, discouraged, active, attentive, playful* – try as much as possible to avoid any reference to values attached to the adjectives!) and display it for the class to see. Encourage students to add to the list and then ask them to pick the words they feel best characterise them. Ask them to work in pairs and discuss if these characteristics are true for their personalities in general, or only in language learning. They can also think about which ones help their learning and which do not.

You may use the list of adjectives in the next activity to teach word formation: the use of suffixes and prefixes in forming adjectives.

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goal	discovering learning styles
Language focus	reporting
Preparation	handouts with questionnaire
Note	may take up half or all of a lesson

The idea here is to help students realise that members of the group may have different preferences, and to get them to think of reasons behind their own likes and dislikes.

Prepare a questionnaire on what types of classroom activities students like best (see pages 18 and 23 for some ideas). Explain to students that you would like to know how they like to learn, so that you can make the lessons more effective, and ask them to fill in the questionnaire individually. Then, they get into groups and compare their tastes and try to explain their preferences. Ask each group to report one activity they all like, and one that they have mixed feelings about. If they can, they should explain the reasons behind their choices. Once the groups have finished, collect questionnaires for later analysis. You may use *My learning self* (page 43) as a lead-in to this activity.

Variation 1:

If you have used *My learning self* as a lead-in, you may ask students to work in pairs/groups corresponding to their adjectives, and see if their characteristics correspond to their tastes in classroom activities.

Variation 2:

You may use this variation some time later, when students have had more experience in thinking about classroom work. Ask students to think over the activities done in class over some period (that lesson, day, week, etc.). Using what they recall, make a list on the blackboard (in a large class, groups work together to compile the list), and then ask them to decide (either individually or in small groups)

- how much they liked the activity
- how useful they found the activity
- why it was useful (what they practised, gained) or not useful, and
- how it could be improved.

Follow with a discussion with the whole class, or in groups in the case of a large class. (See also *What's the point?* on page 77.)

Watch your slips
correcting mistakes in written work

Main goals	identifying difficulties, self-correction
Note	works best as a homework assignment

This activity invites students to work on their mistakes in writing. You need to explain that this task helps them take control over their learning – lest some of them may feel abandoned or frustrated, thinking that you are trying to save time at their expense.

When marking some written work of the students, do not give the correct version: only indicate if the mistake is that of spelling (sp), grammar (g), word order (wo), or perhaps style (s), in the case of advanced learners. Ask students to correct the mistakes for the next

lesson and write a note for you on those they could not correct. You may answer these questions individually, writing a note to each student or, if problems overlap, you may deal with them by having a remedy session for the whole class.

Speak to yourself
recording and analysing a short talk

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goals	identifying difficulties, self-evaluation
Language focus	oral fluency practice
Preparation	evaluation sheets
Note	works best as a homework assignment

This activity invites students to identify fluency, pronunciation or other problems in their speech. You may need to explain to students that the task is solely for their benefit and you will not use it for evaluation purposes. (*Doing* the task may still be a condition of getting a good mark.)

Ask students to choose a topic that they find interesting and/or easy to talk about, do a one to three minute talk on the topic, and record it. Remind them *not to read* their speech! Give each student an evaluation sheet, which they should fill in while listening to their own talk. (See an example opposite.) You may spread this assignment over one semester and check the work of two or three students each week. Comment on the talk and on the self-evaluation of each student (be as reassuring as possible) and discuss in class possible exercises that may help them improve.

*Message in a bottle**sending a message via the Internet or post*

Level	intermediate/advanced
Main goals	choosing learning material, bringing in outside knowledge
Language focus	writing a message
Note	see below for a variation that does not require any technical equipment

This activity invites the students to use their knowledge of the foreign language outside the classroom and find out something of interest to them. The activity also serves as a side-track from the dominant route of information between teacher and learner: this helps to weaken the students' reliance on the teacher.

Brainstorm about the use of the Internet: the function of contacting people is almost certain to come up. Explain to students that you would like them to use this function and contact someone else in another country and exchange messages. A lot of web pages (e.g. run by universities, large international companies, or public institutions) invite the browser to

contact the owner of the page. Students can ask for some information, join a discussion group, or write to a personal home page: it is all their choice. Ask them to report on their findings to the whole class or in groups.

Variation:

Most international companies run a help line or provide an address for queries: you may ask students to write a letter of complaint/enquiry/congratulations about some product they have bought or service they have used, and send it to the company.

Sharing knowledge

helping each other to understand a text

Level	intermediate/advanced
Main goals	choosing learning materials, being a source of information, cooperation
Language focus	question forms
Preparation	text for reading activity
Note	may take up half or all of the lesson

This activity makes students turn to each other for information rather than to the teacher. This will develop their ability to cope with a task using limited resources and will lessen their dependence on the teacher.

After a reading comprehension task, give each student slips of paper and ask them to write down a question for everything (or the most important things) that they cannot understand in the text. This may include the meaning or use of certain words, or of a whole paragraph, as long as the questions are not too vague. Then ask them to get into groups, collect their questions, and exchange them with another group. Students in the other group will try and answer (and return to the sender) as many of the questions as they can, within a set time limit. They may do this individually, allocating the questions in some way, or they may choose to cooperate. You can pool and assign the remaining questions for homework, or collect the slips and answer them in the next lesson.

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goals	producing learning materials, creativity, sharing personal experiences
Language focus	greeting people, asking for and giving personal information

Role plays already give considerable freedom to the students in the choice of the language they use. This activity is an example of further increasing this freedom by inviting students to write their own role cards.

Tell students that you will give a mini party for the class. (Bring some snacks or refreshments if you can.) The speciality of the party is that participants can choose their personality. Just as in a fancy dress ball, they can be someone else or borrow some characteristics they would like to have. The first time you may give a list of characteristics (age, gender, nationality, place of residence, profession, family, hobbies), and ask students to think up a personality they want to represent. Give them about five minutes to write their role cards. If necessary, prepare them for the party phase: ask them about ways to approach somebody, to introduce oneself, to start a conversation, etc., and put some useful phrases on the blackboard. Then the party begins: students walk around and talk to others, with the aim of discovering each other's personalities.

Variation 1:

Once students are familiar with the activity, you may leave the number and type of personal characteristics completely open.

Variation 2:

You may apply some interesting restriction, such as, all professions should be in some way connected to music, everybody should do some sport, everybody should be happy with life (for different reasons), etc. If students like the idea, you may also let them decide on restrictions or themes: from time to time volunteers can come up with suggestions and organise a mini party for the class.

Variation 3:

You may use the well-known 'Find someone who . . .', to give more structure to conversations during the party. When students have written their role cards, ask them to write down what kind of people they are hoping to meet at the party. Encourage them to ask more detailed questions to the people who fulfilled their hopes.

All you have always wanted to know . . .

asking questions about a famous person

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goals	producing learning materials, being a source of information, bringing in outside knowledge
Language focus	simple past, asking questions (scanning or focused listening)
Preparation	(written or recorded passage on the life of a famous person)
Note	you may use this activity to introduce a new topic

The point of this activity is that students ask and answer each other, and not the teacher, about a topic they are genuinely interested to learn about.

Ask students about famous people whose lives have aroused their curiosity. Using their suggestions, make a list of names on the blackboard and get the class to agree on one or two people that they all find interesting. For homework, ask them to put down some of the information they have about one of these people, and some questions on things they would like to know about this person. You may suggest that students search for more information in magazines, books, or on the Internet.

In the next lesson, have each student read his or her notes to the class (or in smaller groups if the class is too large) while the others listen carefully to find out if any of their questions are answered. Provided that you have a suitable passage, you may read it or play the recording at this point, and then ask students how many of their questions still remained unanswered. If there is someone in the class who knows a lot about the particular celebrity, invite the others to put some of their questions to him/her.

Variation 1:

You can use the same framework to explore other topics, such as exotic countries and animals, scientific inventions, bygone civilisations, or one that the students choose for themselves.

Variation 2:

As an alternative follow up, you may ask the students to pick one of their questions that does not seem too difficult to answer, and write that on a slip of paper, with their names. Students exchange slips, and search for the answer as homework. This variation encourages students to rely on each other rather than on the teacher.

Correcting homework

correcting group mates' homework

Main goal	peer-correction
Language focus	grammar and/or vocabulary review
Preparation	give writing task for homework in previous lesson
Notes	spreads over two or three lessons, but does not necessarily take a long time; may not work out well if students are very sensitive to criticism

When correcting the work of their peers, students are invited to apply the rules of the foreign language consciously and to distance the rules from the authority of the teacher. The activity works best with a homework assignment with a relatively narrow focus on some grammatical pattern or other rule.

Ask students to exchange their solutions to the homework exercise, read each other's work and correct any mistakes they find. If there are students who have not done their homework, either ask them to do it then and there, or ask them to form a pair with someone who has come prepared.

When ready with their corrections, students return the solutions to their author, and then put on a slip of paper any questions they may have about either what they corrected or their own work. Ask students if they have any general questions: they may put these to the class and you can help with eliciting the answers. Then you may collect all their written questions and, as necessary, deal with them individually or in a separate remedy session in the next lesson.

If the main purpose of the homework task was practice, you may not need to look at the students' solutions, since the activity already provided ample feedback for students, and the questions they ask will give you an idea of problem areas.

Variation:

If students are very sensitive to criticism, and especially when it is coming from peers, you may ask them to work in groups, discussing solutions and correcting mistakes together.

Student-generated test groups write a test for the class

Level	elementary/intermediate/advanced
Main goals	deciding on learning procedures, producing learning materials, self-evaluation
Language focus	grammar review, written fluency practice
Note	may help you tackle problems with cheating

This activity encourages students to see a test for what it is: a means of measuring their knowledge or identifying problem areas, and something which is useful for them, too, and not only for the teacher. Preparing a test and discussing difficulties arising with peers may require more time than studying for a teacher-written test, but it may considerably increase students' understanding of the material.

You may start by asking students what items of grammar or vocabulary they found most useful or important over the given period, and decide together what should be included in the test. Then assign each set of items to a pair or group of students and ask them to prepare a test. You may provide a set framework (e.g. multiple choice sentences for which they write choices, or a text for a cloze test), a few patterns to choose from, or give them total freedom concerning form.

Depending on the complexity of the material they have to work on, pairs or groups may finish their work during the lesson, or may do the task for homework. Next, collect the completed test pieces, and make any necessary corrections. You may combine the pieces into one comprehensive test which you give to the whole class and then correct and mark them yourself or together with the whole class. If you don't want to use the test results to evaluate individual performance, you can ask groups to work on the test together.

Variation:

Alternatively, you may make each group responsible for the administration of their bit of the test: in this case students get the test items on separate slips of paper (and only the ones written by some other group),

and when they have finished everything, they give their answers to the authors of the test item for correction. This may result in some confusion if there are more than three or four groups, so you may need to help by collecting and redistributing answers and then returning the corrected answers to each student.

JOURNAL

Hello my diary,

This week was very enjoyable. Because I went around in the shopping center on Saturday and on Sunday. On Saturday I went with my mother to buy a pair of boots. But I didn't buy boots, because I didn't like them and I didn't choose anyone. The following day, on Sunday I went out with my close friend. My friend's name is Ezgi. Ezgi and I are very old friends. Because we were in the same class from primary school. But now she studied at Hacettepe University. Anyhow we went to a cafe. And we had lunch together. It was very enjoyable. Because we missed each other.

See you next week.

I got up at nine o'clock. I had a shower. I had breakfast at half past ten. I watched TV at about 30 minutes. I generally go out at twelve o'clock and get on a bus. My lessons always start at one o'clock. We learned new, important grammar subjects. For example, "infinitive of purpose". We often use an infinitive (to + verb) to say why we do things. Ex: She's going to Liban to study Portuguese. And we learned: "might and will". If we are sure one thing, we used to "will" but we don't sure one thing, we used to "might". Might is used for something that is possible, but not certain now or in the future. And we used infinitive (verb + to) with might or will. Asli teacher taught us "will and might". Didan teacher said this subjects again and we learned very well. We had a quiz today. It included: "comparative and superlative". I think quiz was good and easy. The lessons finished at six o'clock and I went home. I ate dinner at quarter past seven. I had a rest about one hour. I did my homework and I prepared my writing. I'm going to bed at twelve o'clock.

LEARNER LOGS

Learner Log

195

Week: 8 Lesson: 4 Time: EverytimeWhat did we do in the lesson? We studied.Superlative and Comparative and.
We saw Asli's picture~~Why~~ Why did we do it?We did it to learn.

How did you learn?

Speaking and writing.

Learner Log

Week: 7th Lesson: Reading Time: 15:15

What did we do in the lesson?

reading (The Gersons and Terrell)

Why did we do it?

Because, we learn a new word

How did you learn?

easily

Learner Log

196

Week: 6 Lesson: _____ Time: _____

What did we do in the lesson?

We read book and did homework.

Why did we do it?

Because we passed the class

How did you learn?

Perfect

Learner Log

Week: 8 Lesson: _____ Time: _____

What did we do in the lesson?

We did writing (A Day in the life of
Patty Stevens &

Why did we do it?

because,

We improved our writing, our English
and our speaking.

How did you learn?

I learnt with the reading, writing, listening,
working with a dictionary.

APPENDIX 5

LEARNER CONTRACT

My learning contract

Name: _____

From: 20.1.06 to 17.5.2006 (date) I will practise the following. Tick the relevant boxes.

- ☒ Read a story book
- ☒ Listen to something in English
- ☒ Write a short story
- ☒ Learn some new words
- ☒ Play games using English
- ☒ Complete worksheets

Signature:  Date: 20.1.006

My learning contract

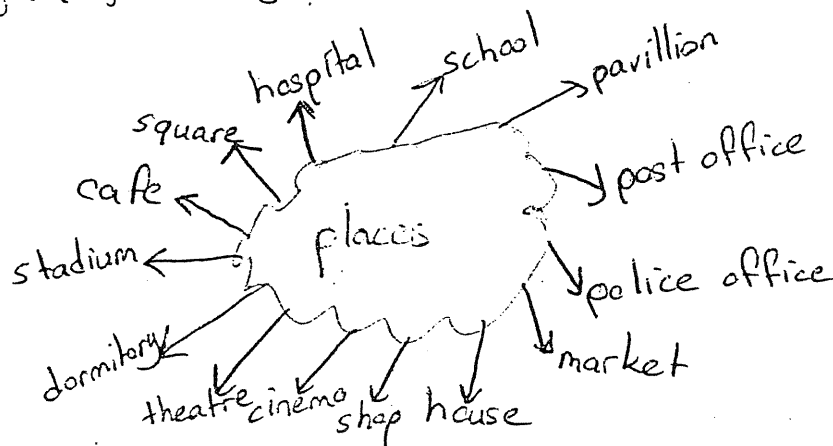
Name: _____

From: _____ to _____ (date) I will practise the following. Tick the relevant boxes.

- ☐ Read a story book
- ☐ Listen to something in English
- ☐ Write a short story
- ☐ Learn some new words
- ☐ Play games using English
- ☐ Complete worksheets

Signature: _____ Date: _____

- fantastic: (adj) very good. / He is a very fantastic man.
- awful: (adj) very bad. / We had an awful holiday.
- nice: (adj) good / Have a nice day.
- large: (adj) greater in size or amount than is usual. / This shirt is very large.
- small: (adj) not large in size. / A small car.
- busy: (adj) full of activity and things to do. / I've had rather a busy week.
- quiet: (adj) no noise. / Be quiet.
- interesting: (adj) enjoyable and entertaining to. / He is an interesting person.
- famous: (adj) well-known. / Jackie Chan is a famous actor.
- friendly: (adj) behaving in a kind and pleasant way. / She is very friendly.

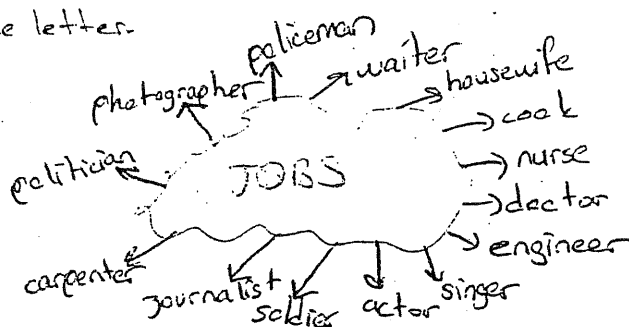


quite ^{not} very; to a certain degree; rather. / quite small

alone: (adj) without any other person. / I live alone.

tissue: (Noun) a thin piece of soft paper that you use as a handkerchief and throw away after you have used it. / A box of tissues.

stamp: (Noun) a small piece of paper that you stick on to a letter. / He stuck stamp on the letter.



tired: (adj) feeling that you need to rest or sleep. / I'm very tired.

practise: (verb) to do sth many times so that you become very good at it
You must practise everyday.

clean: (verb) to remove dirt and marks from sth. / Don't forget to clean your teeth

cook: (verb) to prepare food for eating by heating it. / I'm cooking dinner.

meet: (verb) to come together by chance. / Where did you ^{first} meet your husband

leave: (verb) to go away sth/sb. / The train leaves ~~leaving~~ at just after ten

free: (adj) not in prison or in a cage / He is a free man.

ZORRO

Suddenly I turned into Zorro two days ago. My full name was Horrocco Martines Adriano Zorro. But Everyone ~~said~~ called me only Zorro. I had a very useful sword. My clothes ~~was~~ fantastic. I was in Latin America in 1789. I had a beautiful and big horse. Its name was Carlos Andre Carrito Morrocco Anton. But I ~~said~~ it only Anton. When someone made bad things I punished him. I ~~said~~ him because in 1789 ~~women~~ didn't make bad things. So our King was a very bad man. But his daughter was beautiful and goodhearted. Her name was Alexandra Perrina Olalla Peron. She was my girlfriend. But her father didn't want that. Because sometimes I went to King's palace and fought his soldiers. This wasn't very difficult for me. King became angry. On the other hand Peron loved me and my carisma. This was very big contradiction.

Everyone loved me. Normally Only bad men didn't love me. I was a very carismatic here. So My especial signature: Z. I signed it with my sword on my enemy.

Suddenly My mother woke up me :)

Z

Wow!
What a dream :)
This is excellent, Ahmet!
catali

HE.MAN

Students were anxious about why Asli Teacher didn't come school for three days. An other teacher came lesson. But C7 class didn't want him. Because he said "modJvl". Students called him "ModJvl Teacher". In the second lesson Acelya Teacher came in class and said something to ModJvl Teacher. Everyone waited quiz. But ModJvl Teacher said bad message: "Some students didn't like some rules of university. And they caused trouble for change rules in all of the university. And then they thought hire mafia for kidnap one of their teachers. But they didn't choose teacher. Tramps didn't like Asli Teacher. Because she gave little point them in the midterm. They chose her." Students were very afraid. They went to safe for watch TV news.

Huseyin learnt that while he was in Kenya. He visited his family. Huseyin decided to use HE.MAN FORCE for rescue his teacher. And then HE.MAN went to Ankara. He searched for Asli Teacher. And he found where her kidnapped. He went that place. Tramps' plan was very good. But it was very easy for HE.MAN.

HE.MAN planned how rescue her. He was going to go into from ventilation. He came room in pipe of ventilation. He looked. Tramps were three men. And Asli Teacher was in the room. They tied her hands. HE.MAN opened cover of the ventilation. final event was very easy for him.

be Batman?

I want to be Batman in the future.

Because the ^{crimes?}guilties are going to increase I think.

So one of the people must stop the guilties.

Batman is going to fight them one by one? by one by

and he is going to do everything for

humanity. The guilties are going to go

out for crime and Batman is going to go

out to catch them. He is going to fight

for humanity at nights because the guilties

are going to think that the night is going to

hide them.

Thank you, Erhan!
This is very nice :)
catala