

ELT STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIOR RELATED TO LEARNER
AUTONOMY AS LEARNERS AND FUTURE TEACHERS

Özgür YILDIRIM

MA THESIS
English Language Teaching Program
Advisor: Prof.Dr. Zülal BALPINAR

Eskişehir
Anadolu University
Institute of Educational Sciences
June, 2005

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÖĞRENCİ VE GELECEĞİN
ÖĞRETMENLERİ OLARAK OTONOM ÖĞRENME İLE İLGİLİ GÖRÜŞ VE
DAVRANIŞLARI

Özgür YILDIRIM

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
Danışman: Prof.Dr. Zülal BALPINAR

Eskişehir
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Haziran, 2005

To my father,
who taught me how to live ...

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÖĞRENCİ VE GELECEĞİN
ÖĞRETMENLERİ OLARAK OTONOM ÖĞRENME İLE İLGİLİ GÖRÜŞ VE
DAVRANIŞLARI

Özgür YILDIRIM

Anadolu Üniversitesi

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, Haziran 2005

Danışman: Prof.Dr. Zülal BALPINAR

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlarını araştırmaktır. Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencileri hem dil öğrenmekte olan kişiler hem de geleceğin dil öğreticileri olarak kabul edilebilecekleri için çalışma bu iki noktada odaklanmıştır. Diğer bir deyişle, bu çalışma Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlarını hem İngilizce öğrenen öğrenciler olarak hem de geleceğin İngilizce öğretmenleri olarak incelemiştir. Çalışmanın bir diğer amacı da İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin İngilizce'yi nasıl öğretebileceklerini öğrendikten sonra otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlarının değişip değişmediğini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçlara ulaşabilmek için öncelikle Anadolu Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Anabilim Dalı'nda öğrenim gören 179 öğrenciyle bir anket çalışması yapılmıştır. Bu öğrencilerden 90 tanesi 1. sınıf öğrencisi, 89 tanesi 4. sınıf öğrencisidir. Bu

çalışmada özellikle 1. ve 4. sınıf öğrencilerinin kullanılmasının sebebi 1. sınıf öğrencilerinin geleceğin İngilizce öğretmenleri olmaları fakat henüz İngilizce öğretimiyle ilgili herhangi bir eğitim almamış olmaları, 4. sınıf öğrencilerinin ise geleceğin İngilizce öğretmenleri olmaları ve İngilizce öğretimi ile ilgili özel bir eğitim almış olmalarıdır. Anket çalışmasında iki farklı araç kullanılmıştır. Araçlardan birincisi katılımcıların İngilizce öğrenen bireyler olarak otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlarını araştırmaktayken, diğer araç katılımcıların geleceğin İngilizce öğretmenleri olarak otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlarını sorgulamıştır. Anket çalışması ile elde edilen verileri desteklemek amacıyla ayrıca katılımcıların bir bölümüyle mülakat çalışması yapılmıştır. Mülakat sırasında katılımcıların anket çalışmasında verdikleri cevapların sebepleri sorgulanmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, İngilizce öğrenen bireyler olarak, İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin bazı alanlarda daha fazla sorumluluk ve kontrol sahibi olmaya hazırlanırken, bazı diğer alanlarda daha fazla destek ve yönlendirmeye ihtiyaç duydukları belirlenmiştir. Geleceğin İngilizce öğretmenleri olarak ise katılımcılar genellikle otonom öğrenme ile ilgili olumlu görüşler bildirmişlerdir. Çalışmadan alınan bir diğer sonuç ise 1. ve 4. sınıf İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencileri arasında otonom öğrenme ile ilgili görüş ve davranışlar açısından öğrenci ve geleceğin öğretmenleri olarak çok fazla fark bulunmadığıdır.

M.A. THESIS ABSTRACT

ELT STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIOR RELATED TO LEARNER
AUTONOMY AS LEARNERS AND FUTURE TEACHERS

Özgür YILDIRIM

Anadolu University

Institute of Educational Sciences

English Language Teaching Program, June 2005

Advisor: Prof.Dr. Zülal BALPINAR

The main aim of this study was to investigate Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy. As ELT students in Turkey are both learners of English as a foreign language and future teachers of English as a foreign language, the study focused on these two aspects. That is, the study aimed at investigating ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy both as learners of English, and as future teachers of English. While investigating ELT students' views related to learner autonomy, we also wanted to see whether the education they receive on how to teach English make any difference in their perceptions. In order to reach those aims, first of all a questionnaire study was conducted with 179 students studying Teaching English As A Foreign Language at Anadolu University, English Language Teaching Department. 90 of the participants were 1st year students in the program, and 89 of the participants were 4th year students. We specifically focused on the 1st and 4th year

students because we accepted the 1st year students as future teachers of English who did not receive any education on how to teach English, and we accepted the 4th year students as the ones who were educated on how to teach English. Two different instruments were used in the questionnaire study. One of the instruments aimed at investigating participants' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English. The other one aimed at investigating participants' perceptions related to learner autonomy as teachers of English. In order to support the quantitative data with qualitative data, we also conducted follow up interview sessions with some of the participants. In the interview sessions, referring to the questionnaire answered, we asked the interviewees their reasons for their answers. The results of the study indicated that, as learners of English, the participants seem ready to take more responsibility and control for their own learning in some aspects of learning, while in some other aspects they need some support and guidance. As future teachers of English the participants generally reported positive views related to learner autonomy. The results also indicated that generally there is not much difference between the 1st and 4th year participants of the study in terms of their perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners and future teachers of English.

JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Özgür YILDIRIM'ın, "ELT STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIOR RELATED TO LEARNER AUTONOMY AS LEARNERS AND FUTURE TEACHERS" başlıklı tezi 22/06/2005 tarihinde, aşağıda belirtilen jüri üyeleri tarafından Anadolu Üniversitesi Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddeleri uyarınca Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Programı yüksek lisans tezi olarak değerlendirilerek kabul edilmiştir.

	Adı-Soyadı	İmza
Üye (Tez Danışmanı)	: Prof.Dr.Zülal BALPINAR	
Üye	: Prof.Dr. İlknur KEÇİK	
Üye	: Doç.Dr.Hülya ÖZCAN	
Üye	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Belgin AYDIN	
Üye	: Yard.Doç.Dr.Aysel BAHÇE	

Prof.Dr. İlknur KEÇİK
Anadolu Üniversitesi
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürü

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are a lot of people who helped and supported the completion of this thesis, though only one name appears as the author of it.

First of all, I would like to thank and express my deepest appreciation to my advisor, Prof. Dr. Zülâl Balpınar, for her invaluable support, contribution and guidance, and for her unlimited patience. She was more than an advisor during all the phases of the preparation of this thesis. And she continues to model my life.

I would also like to thank Prof. Dr. İlknur Keçik, Asc. Prof. Dr. Hülya Özcan, Ass. Prof. Dr. Belgin Aydın and Ass. Prof. Dr. Aysel Bahçe for their priceless suggestions and support.

I am also deeply grateful to all my colleagues at the Department of Foreign Languages Teaching for their presence, patience, help, encouragement and suggestions during the process of data collection and the writing of the thesis.

I would also like to thank all my students who participated in this study.

My sincerest thanks are for Ali Merç as a ‘real’ friend.

And special thanks go to my friend and colleague Barış Dinçer for being a fast ‘type-writer.’

My deepest gratitude goes to my father and mother who have been encouraging and supporting me for 27 years.

And my precious, Selin Müftüoğlu. There are 232.974 characters used in this thesis and even one of them could not happen without her. Thank you very much.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
TITLE (English)	i
TITLE (Turkish)	ii
DEDICATION	iii
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÖZÜ	iv
M. A. THESIS ABSTRACT	vi
JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ix
ÖZGEÇMİŞ	x
CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Background to the Study	1
1.1.1 Introduction	1
1.1.2. What is learner autonomy?	4
1.1.3. What makes autonomy important and desirable?	7
1.2. Statement of the Problem	11
1.3. Aim of the Study	12
1.4. Statement of Research Questions	15
1.5. Terminology	15
CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	17
2.1. Historical Background of Learner Autonomy in Language Teaching ..	17
2.2. The Concept of Learner Autonomy: Definitions and Misconceptions ..	19
2.3. Development of Autonomy through Language Teaching	23
2.4. Characteristics of Autonomous Learner	27
2.5. Fostering Learner Autonomy	30
2.5.1. Resource-based Approaches	30

2.5.1.1. Self-access	31
2.5.1.2. Self-directed learning	33
2.5.1.3. Distance learning	34
2.5.2. Technology-based Approaches	35
2.5.3. Learner-based Approaches	37
2.5.4. Classroom-based Approaches	38
2.5.5. Curriculum-based Approaches	40
2.5.6. Teacher-based Approaches	40
2.6. Learner Autonomy and Culture: Readiness for Learner Autonomy	45
CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY	51
3.1. Participants	51
3.2. Instruments	53
3.2.1. The Learner Questionnaire	54
3.2.2. The Teacher Questionnaire	57
3.2.3. Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaires	58
3.3. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure	59
CHAPTER 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	62
4.1. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior Related to Learner Autonomy as Learners of English	62
4.1.1. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Responsibility	62
4.1.1.1. 1 st Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility	62
4.1.1.2. 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility	68
4.1.1.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility	72
4.1.2. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning	75
4.1.2.1. 1 st Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning	75

4.1.2.2. 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning.....	77
4.1.2.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning.....	79
4.1.3. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities.....	81
4.1.3.1 1 st Year Students' Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities.....	81
4.1.3.2. 4 th Year Students' Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities	86
4.1.3.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities.....	89
4.1.4. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use	91
4.1.4.1. 1 st Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use	91
4.1.4.2. 4 th Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use.....	92
4.1.4.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use.....	92
4.2. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions Related to Learner Autonomy From The Teacher's Point of View.....	93
4.2.1. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Responsibility From The Teacher's Point of View	93
4.2.1.1. 1 st Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility.....	93
4.2.1.2. 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility.....	97
4.2.1.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility.....	102
4.2.2. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities in Learning English From The Teacher's Point of View.....	104
4.2.2.1. 1 st Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities in Learning.....	104
4.2.2.2. 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities in Learning.....	106
4.2.2.4. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities in Learning	109

4.2.3. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	111
4.2.3.1. 1 st Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	111
4.2.3.2. 4 th Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	113
4.2.3.3. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	115
4.3. Summary of The Results	117
CHAPTER 5. CONCLUSION	120
5.1. Summary of the Study	120
5.2. Conclusions and Implications of the Study	121
5.2.1. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior of Learner Autonomy as Learners of English	121
5.2.2. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior of Learner Autonomy as Learners of English	125
5.2.3. 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy as Future Teachers of English	127
5.2.4. Comparison of 1 st and 4 th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy as Future Teachers of English	128
REFERENCES	132
Appendix A – The Learner Questionnaire	142
Appendix B – The Teacher Questionnaire	146

LIST OF TABLES

<u>Table</u>	<u>Page</u>
4.1. 1 st Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Teachers' and Their Own Responsibilities	64
4.2. 4 th Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Teachers' and Their Own Responsibilities	69
4.3. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 1 Items of the Learner Questionnaire	74
4.4. 1 st Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning	76
4.5. 4 th Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities in Learning	78
4.6. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 2 Items of the Learner Questionnaire	80
4.7. 1 st Year Participants' Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities	82
4.8. 4 th Year Participants' Engagement in Outside Class Learning Activities	87
4.9. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 3 Items of the Learner Questionnaire	90
4.10. 1 st Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Students' and Their Own Responsibilities	94
4.11. 4 th Year Participants' Perceptions of Their Students' and Their Own Responsibilities	98
4.12. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 1 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire	103
4.13. 1 st Year Participants' Perceptions of Students' Abilities in Learning	105
4.14. 4 th Year Participants' Perceptions of Students' Abilities	

in Learning	107
4.15. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 2 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire	110
4.16. 1 st Year Participants' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	112
4.17. 4 th Year Participants' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	114
4.18. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 3 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire	116
4.19. Summary of The Results	117

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

1.1.1. Introduction

“Tell me and I forget; teach me and I remember; involve me and I learn”

Chinese Proverb

Major innovations in language teaching theory and methodology over the last 30 years have changed the roles of teachers and learners in the language classroom. Communicative language teaching and learner-centeredness are among those major innovations and they both share the idea that learner should stand at the center of the process of teaching and learning (Benson, 2001). With the development of these approaches, teachers have become less likely to dominate classroom events in contrast to traditional classrooms, and learners have started to be more involved in classroom actions (Benson and Voller, 1997; Koçak, 2003).

Communicative approach to language teaching is one of the concepts that affected the traditional roles and responsibilities of learners and teachers in the language classroom. According to Hedge (2000), the communicative approach suggests that communicative practice must be a part of classroom learning if the development of communicative language ability is the ultimate goal. Considering this principle of communicative approach, she states that the teacher of a communicative classroom has a wider range of roles beyond that of providing and

presenting new language. The teacher should devote a good deal of time to manage learning. S/he should be involved in tasks such as setting up activities, organizing material resources, guiding students in group-work, encouraging contributions, monitoring activities, and diagnosing the further needs of students. While the teacher is engaged in all these tasks, students of the communicative classroom also do much more than just staying passively. In a typical group-work activity of a communicative classroom students listen and ask questions to clarify, check meaning with peers, discuss information, report, and give feedback.

Larsen-Freeman (1986) points the same change in the roles and responsibility of teachers and students in communicative classroom. She states that in a communicative classroom the teacher is a facilitator of the students' learning, and the students are communicators, they are actively engaged in negotiating meaning. As the teacher's role in the communicative classroom is less dominant than in a traditional classroom, students are considered more responsible for their own learning. Richards and Rodgers (1990) support this view by saying that "the emphasis in communicative language teaching on the process of communication, rather than mastery of language forms, leads to different roles for learners from those found in more traditional second language classrooms (pp. 76-77)."

Another concept that affected the traditional roles and responsibilities of learners and teachers in the language classroom is learner-centeredness. Yang (1998) states that language teaching practice shifted to a more communicative approach in the past two decades, and as a result of this it has also become more learner-centered. Language learners have become the source of information for classroom activities and the focus of curriculum design.

According to learner-centered approach, language learning is not just a set of rules transferred from teachers to the learners; instead, it is an interdependent and collaborative process between learners and teachers. Learner-centeredness cannot be a method, and it cannot be reduced to a set of techniques. It is an approach, and it views learning as a process in which learners have more active and participatory roles than in traditional approaches. Similarly, the teacher of the learner-centered classroom has less dominance on classroom events when compared to traditional classroom in which teachers are considered as the ones who are the authorities and who transfer knowledge (Tudor, 1993; Koçak, 2003).

Nunan (1995:133-134) states the key difference between learner-centered and traditional curriculum as:

“...learner-centered curriculum will contain similar components to those contained in traditional curricula. However, the key difference is that in a learner-centered curriculum, key decisions about what will be taught, how it will be taught, when it will be taught, and how it will be assessed will be made with reference to the learner. Information about learners, and, where feasible, from learners, will be used to answer the key questions of what, how, when, and how well.”

The concept of learner autonomy in language teaching has emerged from these new notions such as communicative and learner-centered approaches. The change in the roles and responsibilities of teachers and learners in the language classroom has also brought the concept of learner autonomy into the field of language teaching and learning. Benson and Voller (1997) state that all learner-centered approaches to language education include autonomy and independence among their aims. Benson (2001) also talks about the relationship between learner autonomy and communicative and learner-centered approaches. He suggests that the basic ideas of autonomy are in harmony with major innovations in language teaching

theory and methodology over the last 30 years. The development of discourse analysis, pragmatics, sociolinguistics and functional approaches to grammar has supported a shift towards more communicative approaches in language teaching. And, the idea that language learning should be a process of learning how to communicate also launched the notion of learner-centeredness, which puts the learner rather than the teacher at the center of the process of teaching and learning.

He concludes by saying:

“Communicative teaching, learner-centeredness and autonomy share a focus on the learner as the key agent in the learning process, and several prominent researchers in the field of communicative language teaching and learner-centered practice have incorporated the idea of autonomy into their work (p. 17).”

Littlewood (1996), too, supports the idea that the concept of learner autonomy is in harmony with central notions in language teaching. He states that teachers’ attempts to introduce “learner-centered” approach, their goal of helping learners to become independent from their teachers in their learning and use of language, and their view that language learning requires the active involvement of learners are all connected to the notion of learner autonomy.

1.1.2. What is learner autonomy?

In common use, the term *autonomy* denotes a significant measure of independence from the control of others. In general educational settings we can define *autonomy* as a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action (Little, 1991). Esch (1997) emphasizes the importance of language learning specific issues in learner autonomy. He says that “it is necessary to consider whether language has specific features which need to be taken into

consideration when we talk about autonomous language learning. Is language learning different from any other learning, say physics or geography? The answer is yes because we use language to describe and talk about our learning experience. In any community language constitutes a powerful vehicle for culturally transmitted views of language, of learning and of learning situations (p. 166).”

Benson and Voller (1997: 1-2) claim that the word ‘autonomy’ is used at least in five different ways in language education:

1. for *situations* in which learners study entirely on their own;
2. for a set of *skills* which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning;
3. for an inborn *capacity* which is suppressed by institutional education;
4. for the exercise of *learners’ responsibility* for their own learning;
5. for the *right* of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

In addition, ‘learner autonomy’ has been used interchangeably with some other concepts such as ‘self-access learning’ and ‘self-directed learning’. However, those two concepts are different from ‘learner autonomy,’ and they cannot be used interchangeably with the term learner autonomy. Reinders (2000) defines ‘self-access learning’ as the learning which takes place in a self-access center; a self-access center consists of a number of resources (materials, activities, help) in one place and learners study in that center with the supervision of a counselor. He also defines ‘self-directed learning’ as a learner-initiated process. In this process the decision to study lies with the learner. Although both of these concepts include independence and autonomy in their implementation, the concept of ‘learner

autonomy' we refer in this study is different from the concepts of self-access and self-directed learning.

In this study we refer to 'learner autonomy' as the capacity to take control over, or responsibility for, one's own learning; that control or responsibility may take a variety of forms in relation to different levels of the learning process (Benson, 2001). In a simpler definition, "learner autonomy is the ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holec 1981, cited in Little 1991:7)."

The definition of learner autonomy may create such an idea that autonomous learners are completely independent of their teachers or peers. However, this is not the case. Koçak (2003:16) points the same issue as:

"Because the term autonomy focuses attention on independence, autonomous learning may mistakenly be interpreted as solitary learning in which students make progress by studying on their own. This, however, is a mistake. ... people are social creatures who depend on one another and learn from each other. Therefore, the independence which implies the total freedom of teachers or teaching materials and which is exercised for autonomous behavior is always conditioned and constrained by inescapable interdependence which means working together with teachers and other learners towards shared goals."

Benson (2001) also focuses on the misconceptions about the nature of the concept of learner autonomy and its implementation. He talks about two basic misconceptions. Firstly, he suggests that autonomy often implies learning in isolation, learning without a teacher or learning outside the classroom. Secondly, he says that autonomy is often seen as necessarily implying particular skills and behaviors and particular methods of organizing the teaching and learning process. He concludes by emphasizing that "these misconceptions are, at least in part, a result of terminological and conceptual confusion within the field itself (p.1)."

As there are many different misconceptions related to the concept of learner autonomy, describing what autonomy is *not* would also help us to express what we

mean by learner autonomy. Little (1991) and Benson (2001) summarize what autonomy “**is not**” in language learning as follows:

1. Autonomy **is not** a synonymy for self-instruction; that is, autonomy is **not** limited to learning without a teacher.
2. In the classroom context, autonomy **does not** require the teacher to relinquish all the responsibility and control to the students; it is not a matter of letting the learners get on with things as best they can.
3. Autonomy **is not** something that teachers do to learners, it is **not** another language teaching method.
4. Autonomy **is not** a single, easily described behavior.
5. Autonomy **is not** a steady state achieved by learners.

To capture all the aforementioned arguments, it is possible to summarize that learner autonomy as applied to language learning means students’ taking more control over and having more responsibility for their own language learning process. It does not mean learning in isolation. Autonomous learners do not learn language without a teacher and without peers. Instead they develop a sense of interdependence and they work together with teachers and other learners towards shared goals (Little, 1991; Benson and Voller, 1997; Littlewood, 1999; Reinders, 2000; Benson, 2001; Koçak, 2003).

1.1.3. What makes autonomy important and desirable?

Answering the question “Why is autonomy desirable?” Crabbe (1993) talks about a combination of three arguments: the ideological, the psychological and the

economic. The ideological argument is that the individual has the right to be free to exercise his or her own choices, and this right should be applied to learning just as it is applied to other areas of life. The psychological argument is that people learn better when they take control of their own learning because learning is more meaningful and more permanent when the individual is in charge. Having more control in the learning process may also increase motivation and a motivated learner is often a successful learner. And at last, the economic argument is that individuals must be able to provide for their own learning needs because society does not have enough resources to provide the level of personal instruction needed by all its members in every area of learning. Crabbe concludes by stating that the psychological argument is the most appealing of the three arguments because it is pedagogical rather than political.

Kenny (1993) brings a sharper perspective to the discussion of the importance and desirability of learner autonomy by stating:

“Indeed it can be said that only when autonomy is being allowed to function is education taking place at all. For where autonomy is repressed or ignored- in other words where the learner has no say and no being- then what we have is not education but some sort of conditioning procedure; the imposition and reinforcement of dominant opinion. But education as an emancipatory agent empowers a person’s autonomy, which allows new interpretations of the world and possibility of change (p.440).”

The importance and desirability of fostering learner autonomy in the language classroom are also stated by Ellis and Sinclair (1989:1, cited in Esch, 1997) as:

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.

These two points related to importance and desirability of learner autonomy have been supported by some other researchers. Dickinson (1995:165), supporting the first point stated above, says that “there is convincing evidence that people who take the initiative in learning learn more things and learn better than do people who sit at the feet of teachers, passively waiting to be taught.”

Supporting especially the second point stated above, Lee (1998) says that language learning is a life long process, and that’s why it is important to help students become aware of the benefits of independent learning so that they can have the habit of learning continuously, and they can maintain it after they have completed their formal studies.

Scharle and Szabo (2000) explain the importance of giving more responsibility to learners with the help of an American proverb. They talk about the student groups who never do their homework, who are reluctant to use the target language, who do not learn from their mistakes, who do not listen to each other, who do not use the opportunities to learn; and they state that such behavior generally stems from one common cause: learners’ over-reliance on the teacher. Then, while answering the question ‘Why should you develop responsibility and autonomy?’ they use the proverb as follows:

“You can bring the horse to water, but you cannot make him drink. In language teaching, teachers can provide all the necessary circumstances an input, but learning can only happen if learners are willing to contribute. Their passive presence will not suffice, just as the horse would remain thirsty if he stood still by the river waiting patiently for his thirst to go away. And in order for learners to be actively involved in the learning process, they first need to realize and accept that success in learning depends as much on the students as on the teacher. That is, they share responsibility for the outcome. In other words, success in learning very much depends on learners having a responsible attitude (p. 4).”

Characteristics of autonomous learners stated in the literature also indicate the importance and necessity of fostering learner autonomy in language teaching. Long lists related to the characteristics of autonomous learners have been suggested by many researchers (Dickinson, 1993; Cotterall, 1995; Littlewood, 1996; Breen and Mann, 1997; Sheerin, 1997; Chan, 2001; Benson, 2001). We can summarize their common characteristics as follows:

Autonomous learners:

- set learning goals
- identify and develop learning strategies to achieve those goals
- develop study plans
- reflect on their own learning
- can work cooperatively
- select relevant resources and support
- are aware of the nature of learning
- assess their own progress

If teachers promote learner autonomy in their classrooms, they will have students who have the characteristics stated above, who take more control over and responsibility for their own learning. Many researchers suggest that language learning would be more effective when students become more responsible for their own learning process. (Ellis and Sinclair, 1989; Benson and Voller, 1997; Scharle and Szabo, 2000; Benson, 2001). Nunan (1995:148) states the rationale and benefits of having students who carry these characteristics as:

“By sensitizing learners to the nature of the learning process, by helping them to develop skills in cognitive operations such as classifying, brainstorming, inductive and deductive reasoning, by getting them to cooperate with each other, by giving the opportunities to make choices and to develop independent learning skills, we are fostering the cognitive, affective, interpersonal and intercultural knowledge, skills, and sensitivities which provide a rationale for great many educational systems around the world.”

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Considering the definition and importance of learner autonomy, and the characteristics of autonomous learners, one may claim that every teacher should start to foster learner autonomy as soon as possible. However, although everything seems perfect in theory, implications and applications of these theories might change when they come into practice. Literature suggests that the concept of learner autonomy is perceived differently in different cultural contexts. That is, the culture and educational contexts of students and teachers affect the realization of learner autonomy (Gremmo and Riley, 1995; Littlewood, 1999; Reinders, 2000; Littlewood, 2000; Benson, 2001).

Ho and Crookall (1995:236-237) state this view as:

“While personal autonomy appears to be a universally desirable and beneficial objective, it is important to remember that learner autonomy is exercised within the context of specific cultures. Therefore, in choosing the skills and kinds of knowledge to develop and selecting the procedures or methods that are to be used to help learners develop skills for autonomy, the culturally-constructed nature of the classroom setting needs to be taken into account.”

Since the perception of autonomy changes according to different cultural conditions, before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy, we should investigate students’ and teachers’ readiness for learner autonomy. That is, we should shed light on how ready students and their teachers appear to be to take on the autonomous learning conditions and opportunities (Chan, 2003). Benson and Voller (1997:93) state, “both learners and teachers need to know who they are, what they

can expect from each other and what their respective attitudes are towards the institutional and social context of learning if autonomous learning is to work.”

Promoting learner autonomy involves responsibility change between teachers and learners, and researchers state that prior to this responsibility change, we should investigate learners’ and teachers’ readiness for this change; such a knowledge of readiness for learner autonomy can be held by investigating students’ and their teachers’ perceptions of responsibility in the language learning process, and their actual autonomous language learning practices (Cotterall 1995; Scharle and Szabo, 2000; Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan, 2002; Chan, 2003).

Such an understanding of learners’ and teachers’ readiness for learner autonomy could provide guidance for curriculum development, material revision and adaptation, classroom practice and teacher training (Little, 1995; Ho and Crookall, 1995; Scharle and Szabo, 2000; Chan, 2003; Koçak, 2003).

1.3. Aim of the Study

A number of studies on learners’ and teachers’ readiness for learner autonomy were conducted in different language learning contexts in the world (Cotterall, 1995; Cottarell, 1999; Chan, 2001; Spratt, Humphreys and Chan, 2002; Chan, Spratt and Humphreys, 2002; Chan, 2003). In Turkey, Koçak (2003) has conducted a study on university level English learners’ perceptions related to learner autonomy. However, in the world, and especially in Turkey, we haven’t encountered any study conducted on future language teachers’ readiness for learner autonomy. As members of an institution that educates future English language teachers, we wanted to focus on those future teachers’ perceptions and behavior for learner autonomy.

Future language teachers' positive perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy are important because we cannot expect them to foster learner autonomy in their future classrooms if they do not perceive autonomy as an important aspect of language learning, and if they are not experiencing autonomy in their own learning. That is, they should be autonomous as learners, and they should be aware of the importance of learner autonomy as future language teachers.

The aim of this study was to explore Anadolu University English Language Teaching (ELT) department students' readiness for learner autonomy. In order to reach that aim, these students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy were investigated by the researcher.

Turkish ELT students can be considered as both learners of English as a foreign language and future teachers of English as a foreign language, and students in Anadolu University ELT department are no exception. They are learners of English because the language teacher education programs in Turkey provide teacher candidates with an intensive language learning program especially in their first and second years in the program. Therefore, firstly, the study focused on ELT students' perceptions and behavior of learner autonomy as learners of English as a foreign language. ELT students in Turkey are also future teachers of English because they take classes on how to teach English, and they are expected to teach English when they graduate. Therefore, their perceptions of learner autonomy from the language teachers' points of view were also important, and those perceptions made the other focus of this study.

First of all we investigated 1st and 4th year students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English as a foreign language. Considering

the information gained, we had a learner profile of our students in terms of learner autonomy. We hoped that this profile would provide guidance for our language teaching program especially in the areas of curriculum development, material design and classroom procedures. In addition, we focused on the differences and/or similarities between 1st and 4th year students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English. Investigating those differences and/or similarities, we hoped to gain information about whether the teacher training we provide to our students make any difference in their perceptions and behavior of learner autonomy as English learners.

Second, we investigated 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view. By learning their perceptions from the teacher's perspective, we tried to understand their views of learner autonomy as future teachers of English. In addition, we focused on the differences and/or similarities between 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to learner autonomy as future English teachers. Investigating those differences and/or similarities, we hoped to gain information about whether the teacher training we provide to our students make any difference in their perceptions of learner autonomy as future teachers. We hoped the information gained through this study would provide guidance for our teacher training program.

The reason for choosing especially the 1st and 4th year ELT students was that we accepted 1st year students as future teachers who know nothing about how to teach, and we accepted 4th year students as future teachers who were educated on how to teach English.

1.4. Statement of Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed to reach the aims of this study:

1. What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English?
2. What are the differences and/or similarities between 1st and 4th year students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English?
3. What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view?
4. What are the differences and/or similarities between 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view?

1.5. Terminology

In this study following terms will be used for the following meanings:

Learner Autonomy

“The capacity to take charge of, or responsibility for, one's own learning (Benson, 2001:47).”

“The ability to take charge of one's own learning (Holec, 1981, cited in Little, 1991:7).”

Learner Responsibility

“Responsible learners accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly; ... they are willing to cooperate with the teacher and the others in the learning group for everyone's benefit; ... and they

consciously monitor their own progress, and make an effort to use available opportunities to their benefit, including classroom activities and homework (Scharle and Szabo, 2000:3).”

Self-access Learning

The learning which takes place in a self-access center; a self-access center consists of a number of resources (materials, activities, help) in one place and learners study in that center with the supervision of a counselor (Reinders, 2000).

Self-directed Learning

A learner-initiated process in which the decision to study lies with the learner (Reinders, 2000).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter will cover definitions, terms, misconceptions, and historical and theoretical background of learner autonomy in foreign and second language learning and teaching. It will also refer to specific studies conducted on learner autonomy for different purposes in different learning contexts.

2.1. Historical Background of Learner Autonomy in Language Teaching

When we look at the origins of learner autonomy in language learning we see that the concept of autonomy first entered the field of language teaching with the establishment of the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project 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. This center rapidly became an important point for research and practice in the field of language learning and teaching. Yves Chalon, the founder of CRAPEL, is considered by many to be the father of autonomy in language learning. The leadership of CRAPEL was passed on to Henri Holec after Chalon's death in 1972. Holec is still considered a prominent figure in the field of learner autonomy today. Holec's (1981) project report to Council of Europe is a key early document on autonomy in language learning (Benson, 2001).

Although CRAPEL is considered the first concrete realization of learner autonomy in language learning and teaching, the roots of CRAPEL –and autonomy

of course- goes back to ideals and expectations in Europe in the post war period. Talking about the historical background of learner autonomy, Gremmo and Riley (1995) state that in the 20 to 25 years following the Second World War, educational research and practice started to be interested in the ideas of autonomy. They identified some important social events and currents of thought which contributed to the emergence and spread of the ideas related to learner autonomy in language learning in that period:

1. First of all, the wave of minority rights movements was very important in the development of the concepts related to learner autonomy in language learning.
2. The reaction against behaviorism was the second important reason:
 - a. Although there were numerous differences among the educationists, there was also a convergence on the notion of learner-centeredness.
 - b. In addition, linguists and philosophers of language started to give importance to sociolinguistic disciplines.
 - c. Humanistic psychology and cognitive psychology were two distinct but compatible reactions against behaviorism within the field of psychology.
3. The interest in minority rights had a direct influence on the development of adult education in Europe.
4. Developments in technology made a crucial contribution to the spread of autonomy.
5. The demand for foreign languages greatly increased as a result of political development (European Union, the United Nations), the rise of multinational corporations (IBM, Renault, Shell) and easier travel and tourism.

6. The vast increase in the school and university population encouraged the development of new educational structures for dealing with large numbers of learners.

To summarize, the roots of the concept of learner autonomy in the field of language teaching goes back to various factors affecting social life from 1940s to 1960s.

2.2. The Concept of Learner Autonomy: Definitions and Misconceptions

Although the definitions and misconceptions related to learner autonomy were discussed briefly in Chapter 1, we thought it would be beneficial to deal with these issues in more detail in order to understand the further discussions in this study.

Kamii and Clark (1993) defines the term autonomy in common parlance.

They suggest that:

“...autonomy means the *right* of an individual or group to be self-governing. For example, when we speak of Palestinian autonomy, we are referring to this kind of political right. In Piaget’s theory, however, autonomy refers not to the right but the *ability* to be self-governing, in the normal as well as the intellectual realm. Autonomy is the ability to think for oneself and to decide between right and wrong in the moral realm, and between truth and untruth in the intellectual realm, by taking all relevant factors into account, independently of reward and punishment. Autonomy is the opposite of heteronomy. Heteronomous people are governed by someone else, as they are unable to think for themselves (p. 328).”

When we turn to the definitions of autonomy in language learning, as it is stated in Chapter 1, we see that the word ‘autonomy’ is used at least in five different ways (Benson and Voller 1997). However, in this study we refer to ‘learner autonomy’ as the capacity to take control over, or responsibility for, one’s own learning; that control or responsibility may take a variety of forms in relation to

different levels of the learning process (Benson, 2001). In a simpler definition, “learner autonomy is the ability to take charge of one’s own learning (Holec 1981:3, cited in Little 1991:7).”

Benson (2001:47) simplifies the definition of learner autonomy just to take control over one’s own learning assuming that “it is neither necessary nor desirable to *define* autonomy more precisely than this, because control over learning may take variety of forms in relation to different levels of the learning process. In other words, it is accepted that autonomy is a multidimensional capacity that will take different forms for different individuals, and even for the same individual in different contexts or at different times.”

Moving from the simplest definition of learner autonomy as the capacity to take control over one’s own learning, Benson (2001:2) states the three main points important to theory and practice of learner autonomy:

1. The concept of autonomy is grounded in a natural tendency for learners to take control over their learning. As such, autonomy is available to all, although it is displayed in different ways and to different degrees according to the unique characteristics of each learner and each learning situation.
2. Learners who lack autonomy are capable of developing it given appropriate conditions and preparation. The conditions for the development of autonomy include the opportunity to exercise control over learning. The ways in which we organize the practice of teaching and learning therefore have an important influence on the development of autonomy among our learners.
3. Autonomous learning is more effective than non-autonomous learning. In other words, the development of autonomy implies better language learning.

Discussing its meaning and implementation in the language classroom, Esch (1997) states three common misconceptions to be avoided related to learner autonomy concept. The first common misconception is the reduction of autonomous learning to a set of skills, or to a series of techniques to train language learning skills.

Esch considers this reduction as the negation of the radical content of the concept. However, he accepts that this misconception, not surprisingly, seems to be increasingly popular at a moment when the range of technical possibilities for accessing information and manipulating data at a distance is increasing. He suggests that in our modern society competing for markets is higher on the agenda than reflecting about educational values. Second misconception related to definition and implementation of learner autonomy is the avoidance of language-learning specific issues. Esch thinks that in order to understand and implement learner autonomy successfully, we should consider whether language has specific features which need to be taken into account. He asks the question “Is language learning different from any other learning, say physics or geography?” and he says the answer is yes. Therefore, he states that if we want to encourage autonomous learning, we need to take language learning specific issues into consideration. Avoiding those specific issues would lead us to a misconception related to understanding and implementing learner autonomy. Third common misconception stated by Esch related to learner autonomy is taking it as learning in isolation. He claims that the developments of especially the last two decades (new technologies, self-learning materials, etc.) brought a sense of freedom to language learning. However, this new found ‘freedom’ has led to confusion with individualization and isolation, but neither of these concepts are in fact relevant to autonomous learning. Reinders (2000:24) supports Esch as he states “just as autonomous learning is not necessarily learning alone, it is not necessarily learning without teacher. ... Learners need help to develop their autonomous learning skills. For this and other reasons the need for teachers will not

decrease, but their roles, and the role of teaching in the learning process, will change.”

Especially the misconception of learner autonomy as learning in isolation brought the concept of ‘interdependence’ into the discussion of learner autonomy. Benson (2001) states that one of the most challenging developments in the theory of autonomy in the 1990s has been the idea that autonomy implies interdependence. Kohonen (1992, cited in Benson, 2001:14) has argued the point forcefully: “Personal decisions are necessarily made with respect to social and moral norms, traditions and expectations. Autonomy thus includes the notion of interdependence that is being responsible for one’s own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways.” Little (1991) has also argued that collaboration is essential to the development of autonomy as psychological capacity. He stated that the development of a capacity for reflection and analysis depends on the development of an internalization of a capacity to participate fully and critically in social interactions.

Looking at the definitions, implementations, research and misconceptions related to learner autonomy, many language teachers agreed that autonomy is a good idea in theory; but it is somewhat idealistic as a goal of language teaching in practice (Chan, 2001). After discussing the history of the concept of autonomy, its sources beyond the field of language education, its definitions and its misconceptions, we can end the discussion itemizing three points that Benson (2001:104) said about autonomy that suggest that it is less idealistic than it may appear at first sight:

- Autonomy has a long and respected tradition in educational, psychological and philosophical thought. In particular, research within the psychology of learning

provides strong grounds for believing that autonomy is essential to effective learning.

- The concept of autonomy in language learning is well researched at the level of theory and practice, and has proved itself to be adaptable and responsive to change.
- The concept of autonomy is supported by evidence that learners naturally tend to exercise control over their learning both generally and in the field of language learning.

2.3. Development of Autonomy through Language Teaching

A student does not become an autonomous learner over-night. Students generally do not think much about how they learn, they are not aware of their own learning processes. However, when they are given the chance of making choices, and responsibility of their own learning, the awareness grows fast. When students are introduced to the process of taking more responsibility, there may be surprise, resistance, or confusion, but when they get started, many learners develop original, innovative techniques to approach their own language learning, autonomy develops in a rewarding process (Bertoldi, Kollar, Ricard, 1988).

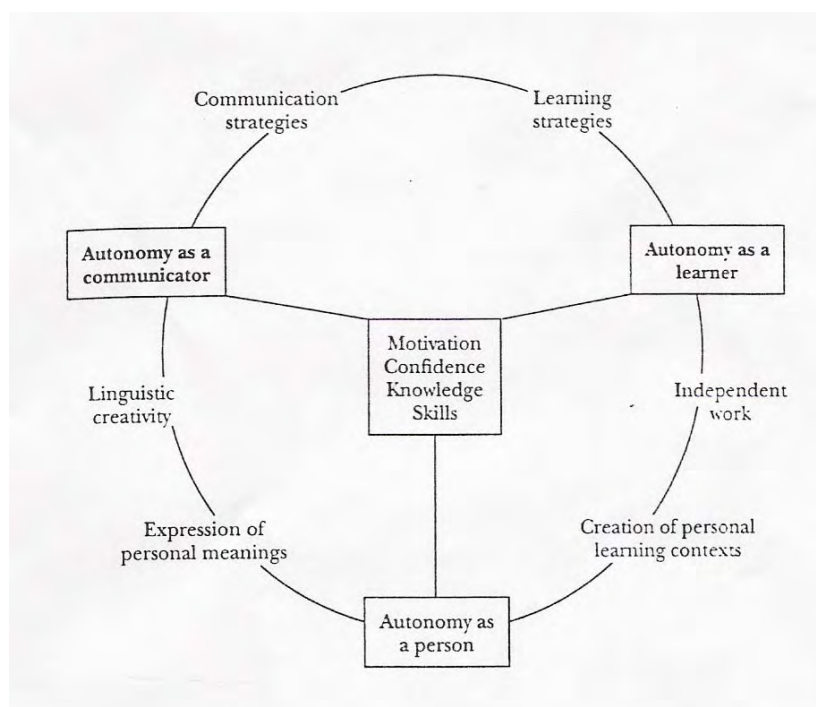
Littlewood (1997:81-84) makes a detailed explanation on how autonomy develops in language learner through the process of language learning. He starts his explanation by distinguishing three kinds of autonomy to be developed relevant to language teaching:

1. Language teachers aim to develop students' ability to operate independently with the language and use the language to communicate in real, unpredictable situations.
2. 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.
3. 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.

After itemizing the three relevant kinds of autonomy, Littlewood (1997) suggests that in all three domains, autonomy is possible only to extent that students possess both the *willingness* and the *ability* to act independently. Furthermore, he states that students' willingness to act independently depends on the level of their *motivation* and *confidence*; and students' ability to act independently depends on the level of their *knowledge* and *skills*.

Then, in language teaching teachers need to help students develop the motivation, confidence, knowledge and skills that they require in order (a) to communicate more independently, (b) to learn more independently and (c) to be more independent as individuals. Littlewood uses Figure 2.1 to illustrate the development of autonomy through language teaching.

Figure 2.1. Developing autonomy through language teaching (Littlewood, 1997:83)



In Figure 2.1., the center box contains the four components which contribute to a learner's willingness and ability to act independently. The three outside boxes show the three overlapping kinds of autonomy which students can develop. The six additional labels placed around the circle (Communication strategies, Learning strategies, Linguistic creativity, Independent work, Expression of personal meanings, Creation of personal learning contexts) show some of the concrete ways to express three kinds of autonomy in language learning. Each way is placed next to the kind of autonomy to which it relates most closely. That is, expressing linguistic creativity by the creative use of language and/or employing communication strategies in order to convey meanings demonstrate and develop language learners' independence as communicators. Applying personal learning strategies and/or engaging in independent work, language learners demonstrate and develop their ability as independent learners. And creating their personal learning contexts and/or expressing

their personal meanings, language learners demonstrate and develop their autonomy as persons.

Although the items in Figure 2.1. are presented separately, in practice all of them are interconnected and linked to each other. Littlewood (1997) suggests perceiving the figure as three-dimensional, which rises up from the page in the form of cylinder. The third dimension demonstrates the different degrees of autonomy acquired by individual. For example, at a particular stage of learning it is possible that one student might have acquired a considerable degree of autonomy as a learner in terms of motivation and confidence, but still lack some of the knowledge (e.g. about learning strategies) and skills. Because of this lack this student's overall autonomy as a communicator may still be low. Another student might have developed the necessary knowledge and skills for autonomous communication but lack sufficient confidence and motivation to communicate effectively.

Nunan (1995, 1997) considers the development of learner autonomy as a way of closing the gap between learning and instruction. However, he states that it is a mistake to assume that learners come into the language classroom with a natural ability to make choices about what and how to learn. He believes that "there are relatively few learners who are naturally endowed with the ability to make informed choices about what to learn, how to learn it, and when to learn (Nunan, 1995:134)." Therefore, he outlines the following process for gradually increasing the degree of autonomy exercised by learners in a program of language learning:

"I should like to suggest that, all other things being equal, the gap between teaching and learning will be narrowed when learners are given a more active role in the three key domains of content, process, and language.

In the experiential content domain, when:

- instructional goals are made explicit to learners

- learners are involved in selecting, modifying, or adapting goals and content
- learners create their own goals and generate their own content
- active links are created between the content of the classroom and the world beyond the classroom.

In the learning process domain, when:

- learners are trained to identify the strategies underlying pedagogical tasks
- learners are encouraged to identify their own preferred learning styles and to experiment with alternative styles.
- learners are given space to make choices and select alternative learning processes
- learners are encouraged to become their own teachers and researchers

In the language content domain, when:

- learners are given opportunities to explore the organic, nonlinear relationships between language forms and communicative functions or ... to explore the relationships between what language is and what it does
- classroom learning opportunities are created which enable learners to draw on the external factors of instruction and interactional opportunities in order to articulate their understanding of how language works as well as putting language to communicative use in real or simulated contexts (Nunan, 1995:154).”

2.4. Characteristics of Autonomous Learner

The discussion of the process of the development of learner autonomy through language teaching emerges the discussion of characteristics of autonomous learner. Many researchers in the relevant literature have suggested different characteristics related to autonomous learners. Talking about the characteristics of autonomous learners, Dickinson (1993) says that first of all, although quite a lot of learners actually do not know what is going on in their classes, autonomous learners are able to identify what has been taught. Secondly, she states that they are able to formulate their own learning objectives in collaboration with the teacher, or as something that is in addition to what the teacher is doing. As the third characteristic, they can select and implement appropriate learning strategies consciously, and they

can monitor their own use of learning strategies. In addition, those students are able to identify strategies that are not working and not appropriate for them. They can use other strategies because they have a relatively rich repertoire of strategies, and have the confidence to eliminate those that are not effective and try something else. Dickinson gives monitoring their own learning and self-assessment as the final characteristics of autonomous learners. Cotterall (1995:199) agrees with Dickinson on self-assessment as she says “autonomous learners not only monitor their language learning, but also assess their efforts, ... it is essential that learners be able to evaluate the quality of their learning. An appreciation of their abilities, the progress they are making and of what they can do with the skills they have acquired is essential if learners are to learn efficiently.” In addition, Cotterall (1995:200) suggests that “autonomous learners are likely to be individuals who have overcome the obstacles which educational background, cultural norms and prior experience may have put in their way.” Supporting Dickinson and Cotterall, Sheerin (1997:57) state that “the activities involved in independent learning include at least: analyzing needs; setting objectives; planning a program of work; choosing materials and activities; working unsupervised and evaluating progress. Each activity can be thought of in terms of a cline ranging from teacher dependence to learner independence.”

Some other researchers itemized the characteristics of autonomous learners in lists. In the context of language learning, Breen and Mann (1997: 134-136) suggest that 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 or in control;
- are in an authentic relationship to the language 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 strategically;
- are able to negotiate between the strategic meeting of their own needs and responding to the needs and desires of other group members.

Candy (1991, cited in Benson, 2001:85) has listed more than 100 competencies associated with autonomy in learning. These are grouped under 13 headings. According to Candy, the learner capable of autonomous learning will characteristically:

- be methodical and disciplined
- be logical and analytical
- be reflective and self-aware
- demonstrate curiosity, openness and motivation
- be flexible
- be interdependent and interpersonally competent
- be persistent and responsible
- be venturesome and creative
- show confidence and have a positive self-concept
- be independent and self-sufficient
- have developed information seeking and retrieval skills
- have knowledge about, and skill at, learning process
- develop and use criteria for evaluating

So far we have discussed the ideas related to definition and development of learner autonomy, and the characteristics of autonomous learner. This discussion indicates that autonomy is important for effective language learning which enables language learners to develop more control for their own learning (Koçak, 2003). Therefore, a lot of studies focused on fostering learner autonomy in language classrooms. The following part of the chapter will deal with various studies that are related to promotion of learner autonomy.

2.5. Fostering Learner Autonomy

According to Benson (2001), the capacity for control over learning has various aspects, and autonomy may take various forms. Therefore, fostering learner autonomy cannot be described as any particular approach to practice. Although theoretically any practice that encourages and enables learners to take greater control on their learning can be considered a means of fostering learner autonomy, in the field of language education, autonomy has come to be closely identified with certain practices. In this part of the chapter we will discuss these practices.

Benson (2001:111) discusses the practices to foster learner autonomy under the title of “Approaches to the Development of Learner Autonomy” and he provides six broad headings related to these approaches:

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

Benson states that the distinctions made in this classification are largely a matter of focus, approaches are often combined in practice. However, as classification helps our interpretation, we will also discuss the studies conducted on fostering learner autonomy under these six broad headings.

2.5.1. Resource-based Approaches

In resource-based approaches, the focus for the fostering of autonomy is put on the learner’s independent interaction with learning resources (Hill, 1994; Benson, 2001). Therefore, studies related to self-access learning, self-directed learning with

the help of self-instruction materials, and distance learning will be discussed under this heading.

2.5.1.1. Self-access

Harmer (2001:340) defines self-access center as follows:

“In self-access centers students can work on their own (or in pairs and groups) with a range of material, from grammar reference and workbook-type tasks to cassette tapes and video excerpts. Self-access centers may have large collections of learner literature, dictionaries, reading texts and listening materials. Increasingly, self-access centers are equipped with computers for reference and language activities, together with access to the Internet and the rich possibilities it provides. Where possible, self-access centers are rooms divided into sections for different kinds of material ...”

Self-access centers have had a central position in the practice of autonomy, and many teachers tried to foster learner autonomy through these centers (Benson, 2001). However, the effectiveness and usefulness of self-access centers have been discussed by many researchers. Sturtridge (1997) discussed a number of factors contributing to the success or failure of self-access centers, and she concluded with a set of questions to be asked in order to evaluate the effectiveness of a self-access center. Those questions are classified under the headings of management, facilities, staff training and development, learner training and development, learner culture, and materials.

In their article, Barnett and Jordan (1991) tried to answer the question “What are self-access facilities for?” and they concluded that it is important to concentrate not only on hardware and materials, but also on procedures, that is, how the facilities will be used. And they identified three important areas related to the use of facilities: accessibility of materials, learner training and learner strategies, and alternative uses of self-access facilities.

Another important issue related to effectiveness of self-access centers is involvement of teachers and learners. Research suggests that the success of a self-access center largely depends on the amount of students' and teachers' involvement in the establishment and development of the center. Considering the results of a study, Littlejohn (1985) states that learner choice is a fundamental aspect in the establishment of a self-access center. In addition, he discusses that both teachers' and students' positive values and attitudes towards the self-access center is a key factor in the effectiveness of it. Discussing problems faced by teachers in the introduction of a self-access center, O'Dell (1992) also states the importance of teachers' positive attitudes towards the value of the center. In another study Aston (1993) made his students evaluate the resources available in the self-access center. Considering the results of his study, Aston concluded that learner involvement is one of the key issues in the success of self-access centers.

Some other researchers focused on the issue of effective material development for self-access centers. Gardner (1995) focused on the methods of converting teaching materials to self-access learning materials. Related to material development, Waite (1994) suggested some ways of improving low-resourced self-access centers, and Lin and Brown (1994) concentrated on in-house materials.

Covering all the issues stated above, Miller and Rogerson-Revell (1993), Moore and Reinders (2003), Cotterall and Reinders (2000) and Tamburini (1999) provided guidance for the establishment of effective self-access centers in different learning contexts.

2.5.1.2. Self-directed learning

Self-directed language learning is the situation in which learners study languages on their own, without the help of others (peers or a teacher), primarily with the aid of self-instruction (or ‘teach yourself’) materials (software or packages with a set of books and cassettes or CDs) (Jones, 1993). Self-directed learning refers to learning that is carried out under the learner’s own direction, rather than under the direction of others. It is described as autonomous modes of learning because it requires the learner to study independently of direct contact with a teacher (Lee, 1998; Benson, 2001; Gabel, 2001; Reinders, 2002).

The effectiveness of self-directed learning and self-instruction materials has been discussed by many researchers in the field of language learning. Jones (1998) conducted a detailed study to see how effective and successful self-directed learning can be. The results of the study suggested that there is clear separation between languages with and without self-instruction, and the most effective learning route for language learning appears to be starting with classwork, but adding or going over to self-directed learning at a later stage. On the other hand, Cross (1981) reported that he found some positive results related to self-directed learning. Considering the results of his study on self-directed learning at a London school, he stated that “the self-learn program has been both motivating and effective (p.107).” Similarly, in one of the early papers on self-directed learning, Dickinson (1979) argued that a self-directed learning would be most appropriate for the learners who cannot get to classes, and for the classes in which the learners have very varied needs.

Learner expectations, beliefs and attitudes appear to be important issues for the effectiveness of self-directed learning according to studies conducted by White

(1999) and Jones (1994). In addition, Carver (1984) and Victori and Lockhart (1995) reported effective learner training as a precondition for the success in self-directed language learning.

2.5.1.3. Distance learning

Like self-directed language learning, distance language learning has also been considered an autonomous way of learning just because it requires the learner to study independently of direct contact with a teacher (Branden and Lambert, 1999; Passerini and Granger, 2000; Benson, 2001).

In one of the important studies on distance language learning, White (1995) compared strategy use between distance and classroom language learners. Data on strategy use were gathered through a questionnaire administered to 417 students. Results of the study indicated that participants' mode of study was the dominant influence on metacognitive strategy use. In particular, the study indicated that distance language learners employed self-management strategies much more than classroom language learners.

In another study Hurd, Beaven and Ortega (2001) investigated the notion of autonomy in relation to distance language learning, and examined the skills and strategies needed by distance language learning students in order to achieve successful outcomes. The results of their study indicated rewarding points for distance learning course writers in terms of promoting learner autonomy.

2.5.2. 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).”

Using technology for promoting learner autonomy has been discussed by many researchers beyond language teaching, in the field of general education. For example, the effectiveness and success of online classrooms were taken into consideration by many researchers. In this respect, Winer and Cooperstock, 2002, Niemiec and Walberg (1992), Huang (2002) and Lin and Hsieh (2001) considered the effects and effectiveness of computers on learning; Knowlton (2000), Carstens and Worsfold (2000), Moneta and Moneta (2002), Jung (2001) and Berge (2000) discussed the components and theoretical framework for online classrooms; Morrison and Guenter (2000), and Hacker and Niederhauser (2000) focused on the design and durability of instruction in online classrooms. Students’ emotional conditions for successful online learning were also discussed by many researchers. For instance, Weiss (2000) emphasized the importance and necessity of humanizing online classrooms. Some other researchers reported the importance of considering culture specific issues in the design of technology-based learning systems (Chen, Masshadi, Ang and Harkrider, 1999; Joo, 1999; McLoughlin, 1999).

Use of technology in language learning has generally been discussed under the heading of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) (Thompson and Chesters, 1992; Legenhausen and Wolff, 1990). Healey (2002) provided some of the considerations in planning and successfully implementing self-directed learning with technology. She stated that technology can offer a great deal on the linguistic side

(with the help of huge amounts of data including authentic texts, graphics, audio and video online) and it can provide practice in various ways. Discussing the past, present and future of CALL, Bax (2003) tried to answer three basic questions: where has CALL been, where is it now and where is it going? She suggested that in the past computer was considered as an aid to language learning but today “it is indeed possible to use computers for genuine communication, ... it would therefore be possible to argue for a more genuinely ‘communicative’ role for CALL ... (p. 23).” Discussing the future of CALL, Bax talks about the concept of ‘normalization’. He claims that in the future, use of computers in language learning will be as normal and natural as the use of books in today’s teaching. He explains the concept of normalization as:

“Normalization is the stage when a technology is invisible, hardly even recognized as a technology, taken for granted in everyday life. CALL has not reached this stage, as evidenced by the use of the very acronym ‘CALL’ – we do not speak of PALL (Pen Assisted Language Learning) or of BALL (Book Assisted Language Learning) because those two technologies are completely integrated into education, but CALL has not yet reached that normalized stage (Bax, 2003:23).”

Actual realization of the theoretical background of CALL was reported by many researchers. In one of those studies, Liaw (1998) reported his investigation related to the efficacy of integrating electronic mail writing into two EFL classrooms. Results of the study indicated positive responses. The use of e-mail provided the student to use English for communication, and “acquiring computer skills and establishing potential friendship with mysterious partners were interpreted by many students as a wonderful experience (p. 335).” In another study, Sullivan and Pratt (1996) compared students in two ESL writing environments. One of them was a networked computer assisted classroom, and the other was a traditional classroom.

Although writing quality improved in the computer assisted classroom, results suggested that writing environment had no effect on attitudes toward writing. In Turkey, Yumuk (2002) discussed the role of the Internet in letting go of control to the learner, and she concluded as follows:

“As a new way of processing information, the Internet can encourage learners not only to view themselves as being in charge of their own learning, but also to perceive teachers as facilitators in their learning process. Unlike resources such as textbooks, journals and other materials used in traditional teaching and learning, the Internet can stimulate learners to find the most updated information in a shorter amount of time. The Internet, with its hyper-linking capabilities to sources from all over the world, gives learners instant access to an enormous amount of information which, as a result, can enhance their desire and curiosity to learn more (pp. 142-143).”

2.5.3. 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 learning (Benson, 2001:142).”

Learner-based approaches to the promotion of learner autonomy largely focused on language learning strategies and strategy training. Benson (1995:1) itemized six major learner training methodologies:

“I use ‘learner training’ as a general cover term, and I will define it as an area of methodology where students are encouraged to focus on their learning.

Current interest in learner training goes back to the 1970s, and in the literature, we can see six major forms in which it has appeared

1. Direct advice on how to learn languages independently, often in the form of self-study textbooks or manuals designed for individuals working abroad.
2. Methods and materials based on ‘good language learner’ research, which aim to convey insight from observation of strategies used by “successful” language learners.
3. More open-ended methods and materials, where learners are expected to experiment with strategies and decide for themselves which ones suit them best.
4. ‘Synthetic’ approaches drawing on a wide range of sources.
5. ‘Integrated’ approaches that treat learner training as a part of general language learning.

6. ‘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.

These six forms of learner training are not independent of each other.”

Rubin and Thompson (1994) is one of the most comprehensive resources related to strategy training and learner autonomy. Using non-technical terms, they tried to share with learners the ways that can enable them to become better foreign language learners. They provided sufficient answers to four basic questions: (a) What is the nature of language and communication? (b) How to define objectives for language study? (c) How to plan one’s language study? (d) How best to manage the language-learning process?

While Rubin and Thompson were providing a detailed guide book for students, Scharle and Szabo (2000) provided a comprehensive resource for language teachers who would like to encourage their learners take a more active role in their own learning. They provided some sample activities for teachers to use in their classrooms. These activities mainly focused on developing learner strategies, monitoring learning process, establishing self-evaluation, promoting motivation and developing co-operation.

2.5.4. Classroom-based Approaches

Classroom-based approaches basically emphasize learner 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).

One of the important studies related to promotion of learner autonomy by fostering learner control over the planning of classroom learning was conducted by Littlejohn (1983). In the study students were given a degree of control over the content of learning. The results suggested that “students responded very positively to a movement toward placing more control in their hands. For students who had been described as ‘very heavy going,’ they began to display considerable energy and enthusiasm for their student-directed lessons, the fruits of which became readily apparent (p. 606).”

Peer teaching has been considered as another realization of classroom-based approaches since it involves learner control over planning. Assinder (1991) reported a study on peer teaching. In the study students were given the chance of teaching each other. They prepared video materials to present to each other. Assinder reported that she observed positive effects such as increased responsibility, increased participation, increased accuracy, and sustained motivation.

Self-assessment has been regarded as another actualization of giving more control to learner in the classroom (McNamara and Deane, 1995). “Self-assessment has been a prominent theme, both in the literature on autonomy and in the literature on language testing. Although self-assessment has been linked to the idea of autonomy in the language testing field, greater emphasis has been placed on the reliability of summative self-assessments of language proficiency (Benson, 2001:155).”

Accepting the importance of self-assessment in language learning, Harris (1997:12) asked “what is the role of self-assessment in formal education settings, where there is less room for self-directed learning?” Answering this question, he

provided some practical suggestions for carrying out self-assessment in formal settings. He concluded by saying “self-assessment should not be restricted to the field of self-directed learning. In the conventional school and university classroom it is a practical tool, if implemented systematically and integrated into everyday classroom activities (p. 19).”

2.5.5. Curriculum-based Approaches

In curriculum-based approaches to the promotion of learner autonomy, “learners are expected to make the major decisions concerning the content and procedures of learning in collaboration with their teachers (Benson, 2001:163).”

In one of the important studies related to curriculum-based approaches, Dam (1995) reported her applications of involving students in the curriculum development. She studied with Danish learners of English for long years, and she reported the classroom practices she used. In her classrooms, students were given the chance of involving in decisions about their learning of English throughout their secondary school years.

Clarke (1991) and Wenden (1988) have also discussed the basic concepts and their implementations related to promoting learner autonomy involving students in the process of deciding what to learn and how to learn.

2.5.6. Teacher-based Approaches

Teacher-based approaches to promotion of learner autonomy mainly focus on teacher’s role on giving more control to language learners. The discussion of teacher-based approaches can be held in two basic aspects: the role of teachers in the practice

of promoting learner autonomy, and the role of teacher education in the practice of promoting learner autonomy (Benson, 2001).

Voller (1997) gives three basic teacher roles in autonomous learning: *facilitator*, in which teacher provides support for learning; *counselor*, in which there is one-to-one interaction with the learner; and *resource*, in which teacher is the source of knowledge and expertise. After giving the basic teacher roles in autonomous language learning, he discusses features of these roles under two headings: technical support and psycho-social support.

“The psycho-social features are:

- the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, emphatic, open, non-judgmental);
- 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);
- 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).

Features related to technical support are:

- 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;
- helping learners evaluate themselves (assessing initial proficiency, monitoring progress, and self and peer-assessment);
- 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) (Voller 1997:102).”

Crabbe (1993) talks about two different domains of learning: public domain and private domain. Shared classroom activities take place in the public domain of learning; whereas, learner’s personal learning activities take place in the private domain. Crabbe states that if a teacher aims to foster autonomy, his/her focus of attention should be on both of these domains and the interface between them. That is, teachers should always consider what learning activity the learner is transferring

from the public domain to private domain, and vice versa. Crabbe claims that “the public domain task, in short should demonstrate something about learning so that it has relevance to the private domain. If teachers ignore the private domain of learning, those of their learners who do not know how to manage it are not likely to be successful in their language learning (p. 444).”

Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest three gradual stages teachers should take into consideration while promoting learner autonomy. The first stage is *raising awareness*. In this stage teachers present new view-points and new experiences to the learners in order to make them aware of the concept of taking more control on their own language learning process. The next step is *changing attitudes*. In this stage teachers try to make students practice skills introduced at the first stage, and in this way they try to help learners get accustomed to taking more responsibility. The last stage is *transferring roles*. In this stage there occurs a considerable change in the roles of the teacher and learners in the classroom. Scharle and Szabo explain the implementation of the stages as follows: “We see this as a smooth process where one phase develops into the next. So, even though we want the learner to be aware of the process as a whole and the actual changes within each phase, the transition from one phase to the other is not some momentous event that may be announced as an achievement (p. 9).” Cotterall (2000) also emphasized the importance of following a smooth process while itemizing the principles for designing language courses to promote learner autonomy.

In addition to providing guidance for teachers about how to promote learner autonomy in their classrooms, some researchers mentioned possible problems that teachers may face while they are trying to foster learner autonomy. For example,

Cotterall (1995) mentioned learner expectations of teacher authority as a possible obstacle to teachers who are trying to transfer responsibility to their learners. In their 'guidebook' for teachers, Scharle and Szabo (2000) provided possible problems and possible solutions to these problems. They suggest that the school, the community of teachers, the parents of the students and the students themselves have expectations related to roles of a teacher. These expectations may be in conflict with the teacher roles that promote learner autonomy; therefore, teachers must be very patient and cautious.

They (Scharle and Szabo, 2000) suggest that people oppose changes for different reasons. They may not want to face the uncertainties and risks, they may have had negative experiences with some other alternative teaching methods, etc. Scharle and Szabo's main suggestion to deal with those problems is to take a gradual approach, to give time to everybody to get used to the change. They also bring a list of suggestions for stronger reactions:

“To prevent or deal with strong negative reactions, we recommend that you:

- think about who may respond negatively to the changes you propose and why,
- try taking the viewpoint of any potential opponents and think about how you could lower their apprehension or aversion,
- accept the validity of other teaching methods, and be ready to compromise,
- share information about what you are doing or planning to do with your superiors, colleagues, parents, and (perhaps most importantly) your students,
- involve your colleagues as much as possible by sharing your problems and discussing your experiments with them, and
- be receptive to suggestions and criticism (p. 6-7).”

Another important aspect of teacher-based approaches to promoting learner autonomy focuses on language teacher training. Little (1995) discusses the importance of promoting learner autonomy in future language teachers' education. Talking about the dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy, he claims

that “genuinely successful teachers have always been autonomous in the sense of having a strong sense of personal responsibility for their teaching, exercising via continuous reflection and analysis the highest possible degree of affective and cognitive control of the teaching process, and exploiting the freedom that this confers (p. 179).” In other words, he suggests that in order to be a good promoter of learner autonomy, first of all the teachers himself or herself must be autonomous. He, therefore, states that learner autonomy must be a part of teacher education. He thinks that learner autonomy should become a part of language teacher training in two senses. According to him “we must provide trainee teachers with the skills to develop autonomy in the learners who will be given into their charge, but we must also give them a first-hand experience of learner autonomy in their training (p. 179-180).”

Little (1995) suggests that future teachers of English can be provided with some information related to importance and fostering of learner autonomy, but that would not be enough unless they are provided with the opportunities of feeling learner autonomy themselves in their own learning process. He concludes by providing some guidance for teacher educators. He says:

“Language learners are more likely to operate as independent flexible users of their target language if their classroom experience has already pushed them in this direction, by the same token, language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous. What I am advocating, therefore, is that teacher education should be subject to the same processes of negotiation as are required for the promotion of learner autonomy in the language classroom. Aims and learning targets, course content, the ways in which course content is mediated, learning tasks, and the assessment of learner achievement must all be negotiated; and the basis of this negotiation must be a recognition that in the pedagogical process teachers as well as students can learn, and students as well as teachers can teach (p. 180).”

2.6. Learner Autonomy and Culture: Readiness for Learner Autonomy

So far we have discussed the historical background of learner autonomy in language teaching, the concept of learner autonomy, misconceptions related to learner autonomy, characteristics of autonomous learners, and at last the ways of fostering learner autonomy. Looking at the definition of learner autonomy, characteristics of autonomous learners, and positive results taken from different implementations of learner autonomy, we may conclude that autonomy can be considered something desirable for language learning environments, and teachers should foster learner autonomy in their classrooms immediately. However, there is one vital point that shouldn't be forgotten. Implementation of learner autonomy; that is, trying to create a more autonomous learning environment, is something that happens in specific schools or classrooms. Therefore, before taking one or some of the suggested ways of promoting learner autonomy, and applying these ways to their classrooms, teachers should consider the specific conditions of their learning environment. Some researchers might have used some ways of fostering learner autonomy, taken positive results, and suggested those ways to other teachers. However, the same ways may not work in another learning environment as effectively as it worked, or, what is worse, implementing those ways may cause negative and undesired results. Therefore, literature suggests that before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy in a learning environment, we should investigate what the students and teachers of that learning environment know, feel and do about learner autonomy. We can suggest an appropriate plan for fostering learner autonomy only after making such an investigation because the results of the investigation would provide guidance for teachers about how best to implement autonomy (Chan, 2001;

Cotterall, 1995; Cottarell, 1999; Spratt, Humphreys and Chan, 2002; Chan, Spratt and Humphreys, 2002; Koçak, 2003).

Benson (2001:55) support this view as he says “if accept that autonomy takes different forms for different 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 cultural context.” Reinders (2000) supports Benson in his words:

“Teaching learners to become more independent is one thing, how learners experience this and what they think of it, is another. It is largely determined by how they see languages, language learning, learner and teacher roles etc, when they enter a particular educational institution. These beliefs will have an influence on their behavior and it is therefore important to understand them (39).

Talking about the implementation of self-directed learning environments, Gremmo and Riley (1995) points the same issue:

“All in all, the work carried out over the past 20 years or so (only a small amount of which has been specifically referred to) justifies a reasonable amount of confidence and optimism. “Autonomous learning” has been shown to be a fruitful approach and one that impinges on every aspects of language learning theory and practice, in all parts of the world. However, one important lesson which has been learnt from this work is that self-directed learning schemes and resource centers have to be planned locally, taking into account specific institutional requirements and expectations, the particular characteristics of the learners and staff, including the sociocultural constraints on learning practices. There is no universal model for setting up a self-directed learning scheme, since all these parameters vary, but enough experience has been acquired, and enough research conducted, to put forward general guidelines and objectives which can be adapted to meet local needs. For example, although self-direction was originally part of European educational thinking, it has been adopted and adapted in many places in South East Asia, in Egypt and in Mexico (p. 156).”

As the aim of this study is to investigate Turkish ELT students’ readiness for learner autonomy, we thought it would be beneficial to have a closer look at similar studies that attempted to investigate learners’ readiness for learner autonomy in different learning contexts.

Chan (2001) conducted a study with a class of 20 students at Hong Kong. His aim was to answer three questions: (1) What are my students' attitudes towards autonomous learning? (2) To what extent are they able to learn autonomously? (3) In what ways can the teacher help to incorporate a greater degree of learner autonomy in the teaching and learning process? Chan carried out a questionnaire survey which was supported with a follow up interview. Major findings of the questionnaire study were given under the headings of (a) Learning English: aims and motivation, (b) The teacher's role, (c) The learner's role, (d) Learning Preferences. For (a), results suggested that the group was generally instrumentally motivated. For (b), most of the students said that they preferred the teacher to give them the opportunity to discover things by themselves. For (c), the results showed students' strong desire for involvement in the learning process. And for (d), the students reported that they preferred group works. Considering the results of the study, Chan concluded that there were strong indications of a highly positive attitude towards learning autonomously.

A similar study was conducted by Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002). The participants of the study were 508 students studying English at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The researchers aimed to investigate students' perceptions of their own and their teachers responsibilities in the language learning process, their level of motivation, and their engagement in activities which can be considered autonomous. They collected the data through a questionnaire they developed taking principles of autonomous learning into consideration. The results indicated that generally the participants perceived the teacher as being more responsible for the methodological areas such as course planning and classroom management. On the

other hand, for the areas concerning outside class activities participants reported more responsibility for themselves. For motivation, large majority of students reported themselves as being 'motivated' to learn English. And for engaging in outside class activities, of the 22 outside-class activities, there were 10 activities which more than half of the students said they 'sometimes' or 'often' engaged in. Considering the results, researchers concluded that students did not appear to be 'ready' for autonomous learning, especially in terms of their beliefs related to learner and teacher responsibility.

Chan (2003) focused on the teachers' perspectives related to learner autonomy. A questionnaire was administered to 41 English teachers. The questionnaire aimed 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, and related to their encouragement of autonomous activities. Results indicated that generally teachers perceive themselves to be more responsible for the methodological and motivational aspects of learning, but they reported themselves less responsible for students' engagement in outside class activities. In addition, the results revealed that teachers generally have positive attitudes towards their students' potential ability related to various aspects of learning. It is concluded that teachers in Hong Kong generally regard themselves more responsible for majority of the decisions, but they also regard students as able to make some of the decisions.

Cotterall (1995, 1999) worked on students' beliefs and the effects of those beliefs on learner autonomy. She worked with learners of English applying a 90-item questionnaire in order to investigate learner beliefs about six key variables: (1) the

role of the teacher, (2) the role of feedback, (3) the learner's sense of self-efficacy, (4) important strategies, (5) dimensions of strategies-related behavior, and (6) the nature of language learning. The results revealed that learners' beliefs related to items stated above are important in terms of their being ready to autonomous learning, and those beliefs should be investigated and taken into consideration before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy.

In a different study Littlewood (2000) investigated whether there are differences between Asian and European students in terms of their views related to learner autonomy. He asked 2307 Asian and 349 European students whether they agree that the following statements reflect their own attitudes. (1) In the classroom I see the teacher as somebody whose authority should not be questioned. (2) I see knowledge as something that the teacher should pass on to me rather than something that I should discover myself. (3) I expect the teacher (rather than me myself) to be responsible for evaluating how much I have learnt. Littlewood concludes the results of the study by stating that "the students' responses to the three questions indicate clearly that the stereotype of Asian students as 'obedient listeners' ... does not reflect the roles they *would like* to adopt in class. They do not see the teacher as an authority figure who should not be questioned; they do not want to sit in class passively receiving knowledge ... (p. 33)."

In Turkey, Koçak (2003) conducted a study with 186 preparatory school students at Başkent University. The aim of the study was to see whether university level Turkish students learning English are ready to be involved in autonomous learning in terms of four aspects: motivation, metacognitive strategy use, perception of teacher and learner responsibility, and practice of autonomous language learning

activities. Koçak collected her data through a questionnaire, which was an adaptation and combination of three different questionnaires. The results indicated that participants were likely to be engaged in autonomous learning regarding their level of motivation, and they were using certain metacognitive strategies in order to support their learning. However, they saw the teacher more responsible than themselves in their own language learning process especially in methodological aspects of learning.

In this chapter we focused on historical and theoretical background of learner autonomy in the field of foreign and second language learning. We also referred to empirical studies related to actual realization of the theoretical background. This review of literature on learner autonomy suggested that autonomy could be a desirable goal in language learning environments but specific conditions of each learning environment should be investigated and taken into consideration before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The study focused on investigating ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy both as learners of English, and as future teachers of English. Another focus of the study was to see whether the education they receive on how to teach English make any difference in their perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy.

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 1st and 4th year students of Anadolu University, English Language Teaching (ELT) Department. 179 students in total participated in the study. 90 of the participants were 1st year students and 89 of the participants were 4th year students.

Main aim of this study was to investigate ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy both as learners of English and as future teachers of English. Related to this aim, we wanted to investigate whether the teacher education program ELT students have make any changes in their perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy. That is the reason why we particularly focused on 1st and 4th year students in this study. We accepted 1st year students as future teachers who know nothing about how to teach English, and we accepted 4th year students as future teachers who were educated on how to teach English.

Anadolu University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching department provides learners with a four-year program on teaching English as a foreign language. The first year of the program focuses on teaching English language skills and grammar to the students. 1st year students take reading, listening, speaking and writing skills, and grammar courses. First year of the program provides no courses related to teaching English as a foreign language. Starting from the second year of the program, students take ‘methodology’ courses which specifically focus on how to teach English. When students come the last term of the program in their 4th year, they have already taken seven ‘methodology’ courses: *Approaches in ELT*, *Methodology in the Area of Specialization I*, *Methodology in the Area of Specialization II*, *Teaching Foreign Language to Children*, *Testing and Evaluation in English*, *Material Evaluation and Adaptation*, and *Evaluation of Subject Area Course Books*.

In *Approaches to ELT* students are taught basic concepts, methods and approaches in English. In *Methodology in the Area of Specialization I* students learn how to prepare a lesson plan, to present structures by clarifying meaning and form, to check understanding, to prepare and apply practice activities, and to teach vocabulary. *Methodology in the Area of Specialization II* focuses on teaching four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In *Teaching Foreign Language to Children* students receive education on language learning strategies of young learners, cognitive, psychological, emotional and language development of children, methods and techniques in teaching English to children and teaching language skills and areas to children. In *Material Evaluation and Adaptation* students are taught evaluation and adaptation of materials in ELT course books, using adapted

material in the classroom, and adaptation of supplementary language materials. In *Evaluation of Subject Area Course Books* they learn how to analyze language course books and the activities related to language skills and areas in these course books. *Testing and Evaluation in English* focuses on the importance of testing and evaluation in language teaching, providing basic concepts related to testing and evaluation.

The students of the program are also required to take applied courses such as *School Experience I and II*, and *Teaching Practicum*. In *School Experience I* students are required to make observations related to different aspects of language teaching. In the courses of *School Experience II* and *Teaching Practicum* students are required to put what their theoretical knowledge into practice by conducting micro-teaching and full-teaching sessions in public schools.

In addition to the courses mentioned above, from their 1st to 4th year in the program students take linguistics courses, general education courses and literature courses.

3.2. Instruments

Investigating learner autonomy is not an easy task since we cannot directly observe or gauge the students or teachers' level of readiness to act autonomously (Reinders, 2000; Benson, 2001). Reinders (2000:48) talks about the story of the blind man "who wants to know what soap bubbles are. Every time when he wants to touch them to feel their texture, they burst. It seems that he can only get to know what they are by listening to other people's descriptions." The same problem arises when we try to investigate learners' and teachers' perceptions and behavior of learner

autonomy. We can not directly go and ask learners or teachers ‘What is your readiness for learner autonomy?, What are your perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy?’ Instead, literature suggests us to focus on the following areas while investigating learners’ and teachers’ readiness related to learner autonomy:

- learners’ and teachers’ perceptions of responsibility in the language learning process,
- learners’ perceptions of their own abilities to act autonomously,
- teachers’ perceptions of their students’ abilities to act autonomously,
- learners’ metacognitive strategy use,
- learners’ actual autonomous language learning practices and those recommended by teachers (Chan, 2003; Spratt, Humphreys and Chan, 2002; Chan, Spratt and Humphreys, 2002, Benson, 2001, Chan, 2001; Reinders, 2000; Victori and Lockhart, 1995).

In order to examine the areas stated above, two questionnaires were used in the study. One of them is the Learner Questionnaire (see Appendix A), and the other one is the Teacher Questionnaire (see Appendix B). Different sections of these questionnaires focused on the different areas stated above. In each section of the questionnaires, respondents were required to rank their answers on a five point Likert scale. The Learner Questionnaire aimed at investigating the participants’ perceptions and behavior learner autonomy as learners of English. The Teacher Questionnaire instructed the participants to answer the questions by considering themselves as teachers of English; thus, it aimed at investigating the participants’ perceptions of learner autonomy as future teachers.

3.2.1. The Learner Questionnaire

The Learner Questionnaire (Appendix A) has 54 items in four sections. First three sections of the questionnaire have been adapted from a questionnaire which was developed by Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002) for a study to investigate language learners' readiness for learner autonomy in Hong Kong. Fourth section of the questionnaire has been taken from the fourth part of Oxford's (1990) SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning).

Section 1 of the questionnaire has 13 items which require participants to report on their perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in their language learning process. Benson (2001) defines learner autonomy as the capacity to take control over, or responsibility for, one's own learning. According to Holec (1985: 180-182) responsibility operates in five main areas that are vital to practice of learner autonomy. They are: (a) defining objectives; (b) defining contents; (c) defining materials and techniques; (d) defining the place/time and pace of learning; (e) evaluating what has been learned. Items in the first section of the questionnaire focus on those five main areas and ask learners to report their perceptions of responsibility of their own and their teachers' on those five areas. Students answer the questions on a five-point Likert scale: (1) not at all, (2) a little, (3) some, (4) mainly, (5) completely.

Section 2 of the questionnaire has 11 items. This section focuses on learners' perceptions of their own abilities to operate in the five main areas stated above. In this section learners are required to report their perceptions of how successful they would be if they were given the chance of taking more control on their own language

learning process. Participants again answer the questions on a five-point Likert scale: (1) very poor, (2) poor, (3) OK, (4) good, (5) very good.

In Section 3 of the questionnaire learners are required to report the actual activities they carry out which could be considered as manifestations of acting autonomously in the language learning process. The autonomous learning activities listed in this section are identified by Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002) as a result of “a brainstorming session by a focus group of students on all the activities they thought they could carry out that might help them learn English independently of their teacher (p: 249).” There are 14 items in this section. Students report the frequency of their engagement in these activities on a five-point Likert scale: (1) never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) frequently, (5) very often.

Section 4 of the questionnaire focuses on learners’ employment of metacognitive language learning strategies. Metacognitive strategies are defined by Oxford (1990:136) as “the actions which go beyond purely cognitive devices, and which provide a way for learners to coordinate their own learning process.” Victori and Lockhart (1995) have reported that the employment of metacognitive strategies help learners to develop more active and autonomous attitude enabling them to take the control of their own learning. This view is supported by Reinders (2000:14) as “if it is the aim of education to let learners take charge of their own learning, then they need to be able to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning. And in order to do so, they need to be metacognitively aware.” Then, we can say that we should also look at learners’ employment of metacognitive strategies if we want to have an idea about our students' readiness to act autonomously in their language learning process. That’s why the fourth section of the questionnaire focuses on metacognitive strategies.

Items related to foreign language learners' metacognitive strategy use in Oxford's (1990) strategy inventory were used in this section. Oxford's (1990) inventory was preferred because "it differs in several ways from earlier attempts to classify strategies. It is more comprehensive and detailed; it is more systematic in linking individual strategies, as well as strategy groups, with each of the four language skills; and it uses less technical terminology (p. 14)." In this section students read different sentences related to employment of metacognitive strategies, and they report the frequency of their employment of the same strategies on a five-point Likert scale: (1) never or almost never true of me, (2) generally not true of me, (3) somewhat true of me, (4) generally true of me, (5) always or almost always true of me.

3.2.2. The Teacher Questionnaire

The Teacher Questionnaire (Appendix B) aimed at making the participants put themselves into teacher shoes and report their perceptions related to learner autonomy as teachers of English. The Teacher Questionnaire was derived from and mirrored the first three sections of the learner questionnaire. The items of the first three sections are the same in both the learner and the teacher questionnaires. The only difference is in the wording of the questions. In the first section, the Learner Questionnaire asks the participants to report their perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibility in their language learning process; the Teacher Questionnaire asks them to report their perceptions of the same responsibilities by considering themselves as future teachers of English. In the second section, the Learner Questionnaire wants the participants to rate their own abilities about some areas in the language learning process; the Teacher Questionnaire wants them to rate their

students' abilities about the same areas by considering themselves as future teachers of English. In the third section, the Learner Questionnaire asks the participants how often they have engaged in some outside class language learning activities in the last term; the Teacher Questionnaire asks them how often they would encourage the same activities if they were teaching English. In all three sections of the Teacher Questionnaire participants report their perceptions by using the same five-point Likert scales that are used in the Learner Questionnaire.

3.2.3. Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaires

For validity, first drafts of the questionnaires were given to experts from Anadolu University, ELT department. Experts were requested to evaluate the questionnaires in terms of content validity, face validity and clarity of the items. Taking their evaluations and suggestions into consideration, the questionnaires were revised and necessary changes were made. After the revision procedure was completed, both the Learner Questionnaire and the Teacher Questionnaire were piloted to a similar group in Anadolu University ELT department to foresee the possible problems that may occur in the administration process.

For reliability, Cronbach-alpha values of each questionnaire were calculated to see the internal consistency of the instruments. Cronbach-alpha value for the Learner Questionnaire was found to be $\alpha = 0.88$, and Cronbach alpha value for the Teacher Questionnaire was found to be $\alpha = 0.89$.

Reliability evaluation criteria according to Cronbach-alpha value is given in Table 3.1. below (Özdamar, 2004: 633) .

Table 3.1. Reliability evaluation criteria for α value

α value	Reliability of the instrument
$0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$	No reliability
$0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$	Low reliability
$0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$	Quite reliability
$0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$	High reliability

According to Table 3.1., Cronbach-alpha values of both the Learner Questionnaire and the Teacher Questionnaire indicate that both of the questionnaires are in high level of reliability.

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The final drafts of the questionnaires were administered to the participants of the study in the Spring term of 2004-2005 academic year. Firstly, at the beginning of the term, the Learner Questionnaire was administered to all participants by the researcher. Before administering the Learner Questionnaire, the participants were instructed to consider their own language learning process while they are answering the questions. After four weeks from the administration of the Learner Questionnaire, the Teacher Questionnaire was administered to the same participants. This time, the participants were instructed to consider themselves as teachers of English as a foreign language while they are answering the questions. There were four weeks between the administrations of the two questionnaires in order to eliminate the effect of the first questionnaire on the second one. The questionnaires were administered in students' classroom settings. Before administering both questionnaires, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study and they were guaranteed that the results of the questionnaire would not affect their grades.

In addition, in order to support the quantitative data with qualitative data, follow up interview sessions were conducted after the data analysis sessions for the questionnaires finished. Interviews were conducted with 30 % of all the participants ($n = 50$). Participants for the interviews were selected randomly. During the sessions, each interviewee was reminded his / her answers referring to the questionnaire s/he answered, and then s/he was asked for the reasons of giving those answers. Interview sessions were tape recorded, and then the recordings were transcribed.

In the data analysis procedure of Section 1, Section 2 and Section 3 of both questionnaires, first of all descriptive statistics (percentages and mean scores) were calculated. In addition to descriptive statistics, Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistical analysis test was applied to each question in order to see whether there is a significant relationship between the participants' year of study in the program and their answers to each questions in each section in the questionnaires. In other words, by applying Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, we investigated whether the participants' being 1st or 4th year students affected the answers they give to each question. The relationship was regarded as statistically significant when the p value was ≤ 0.01 .

In order to analyze the data related to Section 4 of the Learner Questionnaire, first of all, points (1 to 5) given by each student to each question were totaled and then divided into 16, the number of items in Section 4. The averages were rounded of the nearest hundred; for example, the average 2.8567 was rounded as 2.85. The average point of each student gave the frequency of that student's employment of metacognitive strategies. In order to determine the general metacognitive strategy use, the averages of each student were totaled and then divided into the number of respondents: 90 for 1st years, and 89 for 4th years. The average point of each group

students gave the frequency of that group's employment of metacognitive strategies (Oxford, 1990).

The averages found at the end of the data analysis of Section 4 have been evaluated according to Oxford's (1990) key to the averages. This key, which is presented in the Table 3.2., shows what each average means in terms of the respondents' frequency of strategy use.

Table 3.2. Key to the SILL averages

High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Generally used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter we will present the results of the study, and we will discuss these results in the light of relevant literature and interviews we conducted with the participants. First we will present the results related to the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions and behavior of learner autonomy as learners of English, and we will compare their perceptions and behavior. Secondly, we will give the results related to the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions of learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view, and we will compare their perceptions.

4.1. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior Related to Learner Autonomy as Learners of English

In this part we will give the results related to first two research questions: (1) What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English? (2) What are the differences and/or similarities between 1st and 4th year students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English?

4.1.1. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

4.1.1.1. The 1st Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

In the first section of the Learner Questionnaire participants were instructed to report their perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities in language

learning process. Students ranked their own and their teachers' responsibilities on a five point Likert Scale that goes from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Completely).

Table 4.1. (p. 64) presents the percentages of answers related to each question. To aid interpretation, the 'not at all' and 'a little' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'mainly' and 'completely' categories.

Results presented in Table 4.1. can be clustered into three main categories: (1) students and teachers share the responsibility, (2) teachers have more responsibility than students, (3) students have more responsibility than teachers.

For items 1, 3,4,5,6,11 and 12 we see that majority of the participants have a notion of shared responsibility. That is, for these items, majority of the participants reported that both themselves and their teachers have mainly / completely responsibility. For example, for Item 1 (making sure you make progress during lessons), 75.6 % of the respondents said that as students they have 'mainly / completely' responsibility for making sure that they make progress during lessons. Similarly, for the same item, 70 % of the respondents said that their teachers have 'mainly / completely' responsibility for making sure that they make progress during lessons. This means that majority of the respondents think that both themselves and their teachers have responsibility for making sure that they make progress during lessons.

The result of shared responsibility is consistent with the findings of Koçak (2003) especially for the Items 1, 3, 4, 11 and 12. Koçak reported that language learners at Başkent University have the notion of shared responsibility for the items stated above. The results for Items 1 and 4 are also consistent with the results of

Table 4.1. The 1st year participants' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities - % of respondents

<u>Question Number</u>	Students' perceptions of their own responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents	Students' perceptions of their teachers' responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents
	Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely		Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely	
1. Make sure you make progress during lessons	1.1	23.3	75.6	90	5.5	24.5	70	90
2. Make sure you make progress outside class	5.6	10	84.4	90	45.6	31.1	23.3	90
3. Stimulate your interest in learning English	10.2	20.5	69.3	88	5.7	17	77.3	88
4. Identify your weaknesses in English	4.6	33.7	61.7	86	19.8	19.8	60.4	86
5. Make you work harder	7.8	17.8	74.4	90	12.4	29.2	58.4	89
6. Decide the objectives of your English course	20.7	25.3	54	87	4.6	24.1	71.3	87
7. Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	42	36.4	21.6	88	1.1	11.1	87.8	90
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	27.8	45.6	26.6	90	2.3	12.3	85.4	89
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	36	30.3	33.7	89	6.7	13.3	80	90
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	42	38.7	19.3	88	3.3	7.8	88.9	90
11. Evaluate your learning	14.8	28.4	56.8	88	7.8	9.1	83.1	89
12. Evaluate your course	24.7	30.3	45	89	6.7	15.6	77.7	90
13. Decide what you learn outside class	2.2	12.2	75.6	90	56.3	19.5	24.2	87

Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002). They reported that their students in Hong Kong Polytechnic University have the notion of shared responsibility for these two items.

When we asked the students in the interviews for their reasons of shared responsibility for these items, they generally told that teacher and students go hand in hand for these items, and that the teacher has a motivating power. Following is a sample from the interviews, which is about Item 5 (making students work harder):

Öğrencinin çok büyük bir payı olduğunu düşünüyorum. Çalışmak, kendini geliştirmek onun sorumluluğu olmalı. Ama öğretmene de aynı derecede sorumluluk vermemin nedeni, öğretmenin de öğrenciyi güdüleyici bir çok faktörün elinde olduğunu düşünüyorum.

[I think the student has a great role. To study, to improve himself / herself should be his / her responsibility. However, the reason for giving the same level of responsibility to teacher is that the teacher holds a lot of factors that can motivate the student.]

For the Items 7, 8, 9 and 10, highest percentage of the respondents reported that they give more responsibility to their teachers than they give to themselves. For example, for Item 10 (choosing materials to use in the classroom), 42 % of the participants said that, as students, they have ‘not at all / a little’ responsibility, and 38.7 % of the respondents stated that they have ‘some’ responsibility in choosing learning materials. For the same item, 88.9 % of the respondents reported that it is ‘mainly / completely’ their teacher’s responsibility to choose learning materials for

English lessons. This means that generally the participants think that the teacher has more responsibility in choosing learning materials than the students have.

The result of giving more responsibility to teacher for these items is consistent with the results reported by Koçak (2003) and Chan, Spratt and Humphreys (2002).

When we look at the items that respondents gave more responsibility to teacher, we see that all these items are related to methodological aspects of learning. By the term ‘methodological aspect of learning’ we mean defining objectives for learning, choosing and arranging the types of activities and materials to use in the classroom, and defining the pace the lesson by giving appropriate time to each activity. The students generally think that these aspects of learning and teaching process require professional knowledge, and therefore decisions related to them should be the responsibility of the teacher.

Interviews supported this view. In the interviews students generally stated that giving decisions related to these items requires professional knowledge; therefore, as students they shouldn’t be involved in these decisions. Following is an example from the interviews for Item 8 (choosing activities):

Burada kesinlikle profesyonelliği düşündüm. Öğretmen belirli yeteneklerle donatılmış olarak geliyor. Öğrenciler hangi aktivitelerin daha keyifli olacağını belki söyleyebilirler ama daha verimli olacağına karar verebileceklerini düşünmüyorum.

[*I absolutely thought of being professional here. The teachers come with some qualifications. The students may tell which activity*

is more enjoyable, but I don't think they can decide which one is more beneficial.]

Participants' answers to Items 2 (making sure students make progress outside class) and 13 (deciding what to learn outside class) indicated that they give more responsibility to themselves than they give to their teachers. For Item 13, 75.6 % of the respondents stated that, as students, it is 'mainly / completely' their own responsibility to decide what to learn outside class, and for the same item 56.3 % of the respondents gave 'not at all / a little' responsibility to their teacher. These results indicate that for these items students take more responsibility to themselves, whereas leaving less responsibility to their teachers.

The items that students give more responsibility to themselves are about outside class learning. That is, students see themselves more responsible for deciding on and making progress in outside class activities. The results are consistent with the results of similar studies (Koçak, 2003; Chan, Spratt and Humphreys, 2002).

When the students were asked in the interviews for the reasons of taking more responsibility for outside class learning, they generally stated that there is not a direct contact between teacher and student outside the classroom, that's why students have more responsibility in these items. Following is a sample:

Dışarıda sonuçta öğretmenle bir temas halinde değilsin. Eğer gerçekten o işi seviyorsan kendin de çaba gösterirsin, yani öğretmen olsa da ya da olmasa da sen bir şekilde kendini geliştirmek için çaba gösterirsin. Dolayısıyla tamamen öğrencinin sorumluluğuna bağlı sınıf dışında İngilizce çalışmak.

[Outside the classroom you have no connection with the teacher. If you really like that work, you struggle yourself. That is, with or without the teacher, you try to improve yourself in a way. Therefore, it is completely the student's responsibility to study English outside the classroom.]

4.1.1.2. The 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

In the first section of the questionnaire we asked the 4th year students, as language learners, how they perceive their own and their teachers' responsibilities in the language learning process. Table 4.2. (p. 69) presents the results for each item.

As it was in the 1st year students' answers to the first section, the 4th year students answers are clustered into three: (1) students and teachers share the responsibility, (2) teachers have more responsibility than students, (3) students have more responsibility than teachers.

For the Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 11 and 12 respondents stated that both themselves as language learners and their teachers have high responsibility. For example, for Item 3 (stimulating interest in learning English), 73 % of the participants said that it is 'mainly /completely' their own responsibility to stimulate their interest in learning, and for the same item, 83.1 % of the respondents said that it is 'mainly /completely' their teachers' responsibility to stimulate their interest in English. Then we can say that majority of the participants have the notion of shared responsibility between themselves and their teachers for stimulating interest in learning English.

Table 4.2. The 4th year participants' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities - % of respondents

Question Number	Students' perceptions of their own responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents	Students' perceptions of their teachers' responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents
	Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely		Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely	
1. Make sure you make progress during lessons	1.1	19.1	79.8	89	3.4	25.8	70.8	89
2. Make sure you make progress outside class	4.5	9	86.5	88	37.6	38.8	23.6	85
3. Stimulate your interest in learning English	2.3	24.7	73	89	4.5	12.4	83.1	89
4. Identify your weaknesses in English	3.3	22.5	74.2	89	12.3	28.2	59.5	89
5. Make you work harder	1.1	18	80.9	89	14.6	22.5	62.9	89
6. Decide the objectives of your English course	23.9	39.8	36.3	88	2.2	13.5	84.3	89
7. Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	22.7	43.2	34.1	88	4.5	7.9	87.6	89
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	21.4	42.7	35.9	89	5.6	7.9	86.5	89
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	29.6	36.3	34.1	88	2.2	11.3	86.5	89
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	28.4	38.6	33	88	3.3	4.5	92.2	89
11. Evaluate your learning	5.7	17	77.3	88	1.1	9	89.9	89
12. Evaluate your course	12.3	15.7	72	89	2.3	14.8	82.9	88
13. Decide what you learn outside class	3.3	6.7	90	89	40.9	35.2	23.9	88

Participants also reported the same notion of shared responsibility for the evaluation of their learning and the course (Items 11 and 12). For Item 12, 72 % of the participants reported that, as language learners, it is their own responsibility to evaluate the course, this means that majority of the participants take ‘mainly / completely’ responsibility to themselves in terms of the evaluation of their own learning. For the teacher responsibility part of the same item 82.9 % of the participants reported that it is their teachers’ responsibility to evaluate the course. This means that majority of the participants give ‘mainly / completely’ responsibility to their teachers in terms of the evaluation of their learning. The same conclusion can also be drawn for Item 11, which is about the evaluation of the course. Then, we can say that, the 4th year participants of this study have the notion of shared responsibility between themselves and their teachers for the evaluation of their own learning and the evaluation of the course. Interviews supported this idea. Following is an example:

Öğretmen öğrencinin ilerlediğini, geliştiğini bir şekilde ölçebilir, mutlaka olması gereken bir şey. Fakat, öğrenci de gelişiminin farkında olmalı. Bilinçli bir öğrenci olmalı.

[The teacher can test whether the student improves and develops, this must be like that. However, the student must be aware of his own development, as well. He must be a conscious student.]

Percentages for Items 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 show us that the respondents reported that they give more responsibility to their teachers than the responsibility they give themselves as learners for these items. We see that all the items that students gave

more responsibility to teacher are related to methodological aspect of teaching such as deciding the objectives, choosing activities and materials. The interviews revealed that the participants generally think that these aspects of learning require professional knowledge, and therefore teachers should be responsible for the decisions related to these aspects of learning. Here is a sample:

Buralarda öğretmen biraz daha fazla sorumlu olmalı. Mutlaka öğrenci bir şeyler öğrenecek ama bunu öğretmenin düzene sokması, işlerin sistemli yürümesi açısından daha önemli diye düşündüm. Yani öğretmen bir şeyleri planlayacak, öğrencilere o şekilde verecek. Öğrenciler de planlanmış olan bu aktivitelerde yer alacak. Aktivitelerin sırasını da öğretmen mutlaka ayarlamalı çünkü hangi aktiviteye ne kadar süre ayrılacağı o konunun önemine göre değişir, bunu öğretmen daha iyi belirleyebilir.

[The teacher must have more responsibility in these aspects. Of course the students will learn something, but I thought it is more important in terms of making the jobs more systematic when the teacher arranges the task. And the students will take part in these arranged tasks. The order of activities must also be arranged by the teacher because the time to devote each activity changes according to the importance of the subject, the teacher can define this better.]

When we look at the percentages for the items 2 and 13, we see that 4th year participants of the study reported that they, as learners, have more responsibility for

making sure that they make progress outside class, and for deciding what to learn outside class. When they were asked for their reasons during the interviews, they said that the teacher cannot always control the students outside classroom. Therefore, for outside learning, the responsibility goes to learners themselves. Following is an example:

Öğretmen öğrenciyi dışarıda göremez. Her ne kadar öğretmen “şunları yapın iyi olur” dese bile öğrenci kendi istediğini yapacaktır, kendi kontrolü altında olacaktır. O yüzden de dışarıda öğrenciye daha çok sorumluluk düşüyor.

[The teacher cannot see the student outside classroom. Although he says “do these and these, they will be beneficial for you,” the student will do what he wants, he will be under his own control. Therefore, the student has more responsibility outside classroom.]

4.1.1.3. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year Students’ Perceptions of Responsibility

When we compare the results of the 1st and 4th year participants for the items in the first section of the questionnaire, we see that the 1st year students reported shared responsibility for all the items that the 4th year students reported shared responsibility.

As it was in the shared responsibility category, for the category in which participants give more responsibility to their teachers, there is no difference between 1st and 4th year students’ answers, just for one exception. 1st year students put the

sixth item (deciding objectives) in the shared category, whereas for the same item 4th year students gave more responsibility to their teachers. For all other items (Items 7, 8, 9 and 10), both the 1st year and the 4th year students think that teacher has more responsibility.

The consistency between the 1st and 4th year students' answers continues for the items that students take more responsibility to themselves. Similar to the 1st year participants, the 4th year participants reported more responsibility for themselves for outside class learning.

Considering the results for the first section of the questionnaire, we can conclude that there is no difference between the 1st and 4th year students' views of their own and their teacher' responsibilities in the language learning process.

Results of statistical analysis also show that there is no significant relationship between the participants' year in the program (1st year and 4th year) and their answers to Section 1 of the Learner Questionnaire. Table 4.3. (p. 74) presents the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for each item in Section 1. Taking .01 as significance value, we see that for all the items in Section 1, just 'your teachers'' part of Item 6 (defining objectives) has a significant relationship with the participants' year in the program. The reason for this significance might be that the phrase 'defining objectives' could be perceived differently by the 1st and 4th year students.

For all other items in this section, statistical analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant relationship between the items and the respondents' being 1st or 4th year students. Then, we can say that, statistically, the participants' year in the program did not affect their answers to Section 1 items of the Learner Questionnaire.

Table 4.3. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 1 Items of the Learner Questionnaire

<u>Question Number</u>	Yours		Your Teachers'	
	Kolmogorov - Smirnov	<i>p value</i>	Kolmogorov - Smirnov	<i>p value</i>
1. Make sure you make progress during lessons	0,616	0,842 > 0,01	0,311	1,00 > 0,01
2. Make sure you make progress outside class	1,198	0,947 > 0,01	0,523	,0947 > 0,01
3. Stimulate your interest in learning English	0,531	0,941 > 0,01	0,391	0,998 > 0,01
4. Identify your weaknesses in English	0,829	0,498 > 0,01	0,490	0,970 > 0,01
5. Make you work harder	0,445	0,989 > 0,01	0,60	0,865 > 0,01
6. Decide the objectives of your English course	1,168	0,131 > 0,01	1,968	0,001 ≤ 0,01
7. Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	1,281	0,075 > 0,01	0,409	0,996 > 0,01
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	0,621	0,835 > 0,01	0,225	1,0 > 0,01
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	0,426	0,993 > 0,01	0,436	0,991 > 0,01
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	1,281	0,075 > 0,01	0,488	0,971 > 0,01
11. Evaluate your learning	1,432	0,033 > 0,01	0,600	0,865 > 0,01
12. Evaluate your course	1,874	0,200 > 0,01	0,446	0,989 > 0,01
13. Decide what you learn outside class	0,344	1,00 > 0,01	1,223	0,100 > 0,01

4.1.2. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities In Learning

4.1.2.1. The 1st Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities In Learning

Section 2 of the questionnaire asked students to report their perceptions of their own abilities to operate in various aspects of learning such as choosing learning activities and materials, evaluating learning, etc. In other words, in this section learners were instructed to report their perceptions of how successful they would be if they were given the chance of operating in these various aspects. Students reported their views on a five point Likert Scale that goes from 1 (Very Poor) to 5 (Very Good).

Table 4.4. (p.76) presents the percentages of answers related to each question. To aid interpretation, the 'very poor' and 'poor' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'good' and 'very good' categories.

When we look at the table, we see that for six out of eleven items highest percentage of the participants see themselves as 'good / very good' (Items 15, 17, 20, 21, 22, 24). Two of these six items are related to choosing learning objectives and activities outside class. Two of them are related to evaluating learning and the course. One of them is about identifying weaknesses, and one of them is about deciding how long to spend on each activity. For all these items generally the respondents stated that they think they would be 'good / very good' if they were given the chance of operating in these aspects of learning and teaching.

For four of other five items highest percentage of the respondents reported that they perceive themselves in the 'OK' category (Items 14, 16, 18, 19). Two of

these items are about choosing learning activities and objectives in class. Other two items are about choosing learning materials in and outside class.

Table 4.4. The 1st year participants' perceptions of their own abilities in learning - % of respondents

Section 2 items Students' perceptions of their own abilities in learning	Very poor / Poor %	OK %	Very good / good %	No. of Respondents
14. Choosing learning activities in class	22.5	50.5	27	89
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	13.5	40.5	46	89
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	18.2	51.1	30.7	88
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	21.3	38.2	40.5	89
18. Choosing learning materials in class	31.5	41.6	26.9	89
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	16.7	43.3	40	90
20. Evaluating your learning	6.7	37.8	55.5	90
21. Evaluating your course	11.1	38.9	50	90
22. Identify your weaknesses in English	13.3	27.8	58.9	90
23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	45.6	32.2	22.2	90
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	28.9	33.3	37.8	90

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

The only item that the students reported that they perceive themselves 'very poor / poor' is Item 23, which is related to deciding what to learn next in English lessons.

Considering these results we can say that the 1st year participants of this study generally do not perceive themselves poor in taking more control in their own language learning process. In other words, they do not think that they would fail if they were given the chance of taking greater control on their own learning.

4.1.2.2. The 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities In Learning

The 4th year students were also instructed to report their perceptions on how successful they would be if they were given the chance of operating in these various aspects of learning such as choosing learning activities and materials, evaluating learning, etc.

The results for this section are presented in Table 4.5. (p. 78).

Results show that for all the items, highest percentage is in 'good / very good' category. Especially for the items 15, 19, 20, 21, 22 and 24, majority of the students consider their abilities in the 'good / very good' category.

It can be indicated from these results that the 4th year participants of this study trust themselves in terms of taking more control in their own language learning process. In other words, they do not think that they would fail if they were given the chance of taking greater control on their own learning.

Table 4.5. The 4th year participants' perceptions of their own abilities in learning - % of respondents

Section 2 items Students' perceptions of their own abilities in learning	Very poor / Poor %	OK %	Very good / good %	No. of Respondents
14. Choosing learning activities in class	18	32.6	49.4	89
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	6.8	34.1	59.1	88
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	27	32.6	40.4	89
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	11.4	39.8	48.8	88
18. Choosing learning materials in class	25.8	28.1	46.1	89
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	10.1	29.2	60.7	89
20. Evaluating your learning	4.5	29.2	66.3	89
21. Evaluating your course	9	34.8	56.2	89
22. Identify your weaknesses in English	5.6	15.7	78.7	89
23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	24.7	32.6	42.7	89
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	14.6	33.7	51.7	89

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

4.1.2.3. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Their Own Abilities In Learning

When we compare the 4th year students' answers to those of the 1st years, although there is no big differences, we see that the 4th years' mean scores are slightly higher than the 1st years' mean scores. The reason for this difference can be explained by the fact that the 4th years know more than the 1st years about the language learning process, and therefore they might have considered their abilities in learning a little bit better than the 1st years did. Interviews also supported this view. For example:

Az veya çok biz bu işin (öğretmenlik) içine girmiş bulunuyoruz. Dört yıl burada bir eğitim aldık. Bu kadar eğitim aldıktan sonra da galiba böyle öğrenci olarak kendimizi iyi görmeye hakkımız olduğuna inanıyorum.

[More or less, we have been involved in this job (teaching). We received education here for four years. After taking so much education, I believe that we have the right of seeing ourselves 'good' as learners.]

Table 4.6. (p. 80) presents the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test applied to each item in this section. At the 0,01 significance level, statistical analysis of the data

revealed no significant relationship between respondents' being the 1st or 4th year students' and their answers to Section 2 of the Learner Questionnaire. However, at

Table 4.6. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 2 Items of the Learner Questionnaire

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	<i>p</i> value
14. Choosing learning activities in class	1,499	0,022 ≤ 0,05
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	0,866	0,441 > 0,01
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	0,650	0,792 > 0,01
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	0,664	0,770 > 0,01
18. Choosing learning materials in class	1,274	0,078 > 0,01
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	1,383	0,044 ≤ 0,05
20. Evaluating your learning	0,718	0,681 > 0,01
21. Evaluating your course	0,413	0,996 > 0,01
22. Identify your weaknesses in English	1,322	0,061 > 0,01
23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	1,394	0,041 ≤ 0,05
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	0,955	0,321 > 0,01

the 0,05 significance level items 14 (choosing learning activities), 19 (choosing learning materials), and 23 (deciding what to learn next) there is a significant relationship between the participants' year of study in the program and their answers.

This significant relationship again can be explained by the 4th year participants' being more aware of the language learning process. On the other hand, for most of the items (8 items out of 11), there is no statistically significant relationship between answers and the respondents' year in the program. Considering these results, statistically we can say that, generally, the 1st and 4th year students' answers to the items in second section of the questionnaire do not differ from each other.

4.1.3. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Engagement In Outside Class Learning Activities

4.1.3.1. The 1st Year Students' Engagement In Outside Class Learning Activities

In the third section of the learner questionnaire, participants were instructed to report the language learning activities they carry out outside class. These activities were considered as signs of acting autonomously in the language learning process (Spratt, Humphreys and Chan, 2002). Students were instructed to report the frequency of their engagement in these activities on a five point Likert Scale that goes from 1(Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Table 4.7. (p. 82) gives the percentages of answers and mean scores related to each activity. To aid interpretation, the 'Never' and 'Rarely' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'Frequently' and 'Very Often' categories.

For nine out of fourteen activities (Items 25, 26, 27, 29, 30,32, 33, 36, 38) highest percentage of the students reported that they 'rarely / never' engage in those activities. In these activities there are reading grammar books, sending e-mails in English and using English with a native speaker, watching English TV programs,

listening to English radio and reading English newspapers, and studying English with friends and writing a diary.

Table 4.7. The 1st year participants' engagement in outside class learning activities - % of respondents and mean scores

Section 3 items Students' engagement in outside class learning activities	% Never & Rarely	% Sometimes	% Frequently & Very Often	No of. Respondents
25. Read grammar books on your own	48.3	32.6	19.1	89
26. Read newspapers in English	63.4	26.6	10	90
27. Sent e-mails in English	64.4	16.7	18.9	90
28. Read books or magazines in English	8.9	42.2	48.9	90
29. Watched English TV programs	52.2	26.7	21.1	90
30. Listened to English radio	42.2	24.4	33.4	90
31. Listened to English songs	10	21.1	68.9	90
32. Practiced using English with friends	40	28.9	31.1	90
33. Done English self-study in a group	46.6	41.1	12.3	90
34. Done grammar exercises on your own	27.8	28.9	43.3	90
35. Watched English movies	22.5	38.2	39.3	89
36. Written a diary in English	85.6	11.1	3.3	90
37. Used the internet in English	30	28.9	41.1	90
38. Used English with a native speaker	62.2	30	7.8	90

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

For example, for Item 25 (reading grammar book on their own) 48.3 % of the respondents reported that they rarely / never engage in this activity. When the

students were asked for their reasons in the interviews they stated that they prefer more enjoyable activities. Following is an example:

İngilizce'ye yönelik bir şey çalışacaksam daha çok onu çalışırken keyif alabileceğim bir şeyler seçerim. Ya şarkı dinlerim, ya kitap okurum, ya dergi karıştırırım.

[If I am going to do something related to studying English, I choose something that I can enjoy while studying. I listen to songs, or read a book, or a magazine.]

For Item 27 (sending e-mails in English) 64.4 % of the respondents, and for Item 38 (using English with a native speaker) 62.2 % of the respondents reported that they rarely / never engage in these activities. Interviews with the students revealed that they are not engaging in these activities because they cannot find anybody to write or talk. They stated that they would like to engage in such activities, and they believed the contribution of such activities to their English but they did not have the opportunity. For these items students seem ready to engage more if they are provided more opportunities.

Lack of facilities was students' reasons for not frequently engaging in activities such as watching English TV programs, listening to English radio and reading English newspapers. When the participants were asked for their reasons in the interviews, they stated that they would like to engage more in these activities but they do not have the chance of doing so as they are staying in dormitories, or as they do not have satellite TV systems in their homes.

Considering the interview results, we can say that students are ready to engage in those activities but they do not have enough facilities to do so. If they are provided opportunities for these activities, it is likely that they will engage more in these activities.

For Item 36 (writing a diary in English) 85.6 % of the participants said that they rarely / never engage in this activity. In the interviews students stated three main reasons for this: they do not have the habit of writing a diary (even in Turkish), they do not believe the benefit of writing a diary in terms of developing their English, and they find it insincere and artificial to write a diary in English. Following is a sample:

Açıkçası İngilizce günlük yazmıyorum. Buradakilerin hepsini [diğer maddelerdeki aktiviteler] kendimde bir kusur olarak görüyorum. Bunları yapmam gerekiyor ama yapmıyorum diye düşünüyorum. Ama günlükte öyle değil. Bundan sonra da tutmam. Bence o biraz samimiyetsiz olur gibi geliyor.

[*Honestly, I do not keep a diary in English. I think all the things here (activities in the other items) are deficiencies for me. But for diary it is not the case. I will not keep a diary from now on, either. I think it would be a little bit insincere.]*

Activities that the highest percentage of the respondents reported to engage in ‘frequently / very often’ are listening to songs (68.9 %) and watching films (39.3 %) in English, using the Internet in English (41.1 %), reading books and magazines in English (48.9 %) and doing grammar exercises on their own (43.3 %).

The result for students' doing grammar exercises on their own so frequently seems inconsistent with the result for reading grammar books on their own. When the students asked for their reasons of this inconsistency, they reported that they are doing grammar exercises just for fun although they do not like reading grammar books. This means that students do not open and read a grammar book but they like doing grammar exercises in their free times.

For the activities of listening to songs and watching movies in English students reported that they believe the benefits of these activities, especially on their speaking and pronunciation. The interviews revealed that students generally pay particular attention to understand the lyrics of songs while they are listening, and they sometimes refer to the Internet for finding the lyrics of the songs that they find difficult to understand. For watching movies, the interviews revealed that students generally prefer watching films with subtitles. However, they stated that they do not follow the subtitles all the time; instead, they generally try to understand what people say in the movies, and they use the subtitles just for checking themselves, or to understand when people speak very fast. Following is an example:

Alt yazılı film izlediğimde genelde okumamaya çalışıyorum. Arada sırada kontrol için bakıyorum . Bazen çok açık oluyor, çok yavaş konuşuyorlar, o zaman hiç bakmıyorum zaten. Çok hızlı konuştukları yerlerde bakıyorum.

[*When I watch movies with subtitles, I generally try not to read subtitles. I sometimes look at them just for checking. Sometimes*

they speak very clearly, I never look at subtitles at those times. I follow subtitles when they speak very fast.]

For reading books or magazines students said that they try to read as much as possible. They reported that they generally prefer novels for books, and news magazines such as Time and Newsweek for magazines.

Using the Internet in English is another popular activity. Interviewed students stated that they generally use the Internet for two main reasons: for their assignments and just for fun. They reported that they feel language improvement, and they generally learn expressions and structures related to colloquial language while they are using the Internet.

To conclude, the 1st year participants' results for the third section of the learner questionnaire indicated that although there are some activities that students like and do engage in, for most of the activities they need more guidance and encouragement, and they need more facilities for some others.

4.1.3.2. 4th Year Students' Engagement In Outside Class Learning Activities

Table 4.8. (p. 87) gives the percentages of answers and mean scores related to the 4th year students' engagement in outside class activities.

For five out of fourteen activities, majority of the participants stated that they 'never / rarely' do these activities. These five activities are reading newspapers in English (70.8 %), sending e-mails in English (51.7 %), doing English self-study in a group (51.7 %), writing a diary in English (75.2 %) and using English with a native speaker (73.1 %).

Table 4.8. The 4th year participants' engagement in outside class learning activities - % of respondents

Section 3 items Students' engagement in outside class learning activities	Never & Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently & Very Often	No. of Respondents
25. Read grammar books on your own	26.1	39.8	34.1	88
26. Read newspapers in English	70.8	21.3	7.9	89
27. Sent e-mails in English	51.7	25.8	22.5	89
28. Read books or magazines in English	16.8	48.3	34.9	89
29. Watched English TV programs	32.6	42.7	24.7	89
30. Listened to English radio	39.3	33.7	27	89
31. Listened to English songs	4.5	20.2	75.3	89
32. Practiced using English with friends	38.2	40.4	21.4	89
33. Done English self-study in a group	51.7	31	17.3	87
34. Done grammar exercises on your own	29.2	37.1	33.7	89
35. Watched English movies	9	37.1	53.9	89
36. Written a diary in English	75.2	12.4	12.4	89
37. Used the internet in English	2.2	13.6	84.2	88
38. Used English with a native speaker	73.1	14.6	12.3	89

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

When the participants were asked in the interviews for their reasons of not engaging in these activities frequently, for reading newspapers in English, using English with a native speaker and sending e-mails in English they said that they do

not have the opportunity of doing so. For writing diary they said that they do not write a diary in their first language and they do not do so in English. And for doing English self-study in a group they stated that they do believe the benefit of studying with friends but they do not organize such study groups.

For Item 25 (Reading grammar books on your own) 39.8 % of the 4th year participants reported that they sometimes engage in this activity. During the interviews when the participants were asked for their reasons for reading grammar books, they answered that their teaching practicum has a great effect on this activity. They said that they recognize some gaps in their grammar knowledge before or while they are teaching English, and that's the reason why they are reading grammar books. Here is an example:

Staja dört dörtlük olarak gitmemiz gerekiyor. Öğrenciler öyle yerlerde öyle açıklarımızı yakalayabiliyorlar ki, o anda kalıyoruz. Bu duruma düşmek istemiyorum açıkçası. O yüzden her şeyi ayrıntısıyla bileyim ki bir açık bulmasınlar. O yüzden her açıdan yeterli olmamız lazım.

[We have to go our teaching practicum schools as best teachers. Students find so unexpected gaps in our knowledge in so unexpected times that we do not what to do. I don't want to be in this situation. Therefore, I should know everything with every detail, so they cannot find my gaps. Therefore, I must be proficient in every respect.]

For Item 28 (reading books or magazines in English) the highest percentage (48.3 %) of the 4th years are under ‘sometimes’ category. When they were asked for their reasons of not reading books or magazines more frequently, they said that they do not have enough time for this activity.

When we look at the popular activities, we see that for Item 31 (listening to English songs), Item 35 (watching English movies) and Item 37 (using the Internet in English) majority of the 4th year students stated that they are engaging in these activities ‘frequently / very often.’ For the activities of listening to songs and watching movies in English respondents reported that they think these activities improve their vocabulary, speaking and pronunciation. For watching movies, the interviews revealed that students generally prefer watching films with subtitles, but they use the subtitles to check their understanding.

For Item 37 (using the Internet) they said that they are using the Internet both for fun and for finding materials for their lesson plans. They stated that the Internet improves their reading abilities and provide exposure to colloquial language.

4.1.3.3. Comparison of 1st and 4th Year Students’ Engagement In

Outside Class Learning Activities

Although there are some slight differences between the 1st and 4th year participants’ answers to the items in this section, generally we can say that there are no big differences between the 1st year participants’ engagement in outside class activities and those of the 4th year participants.

Statistical analysis of the data has also revealed the same result. Table 4.9. below presents the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests applied to each item in Section 3 of the Learner Questionnaire.

Table 4.9. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 3 Items of the Learner Questionnaire

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	<i>p</i> value
25. Read grammar books on your own	1,475	0,026 ≤ 0,05
26. Read newspapers in English	0,499	0,965 > 0,01
27. Sent e-mails in English	1,244	0,90 > 0,01
28. Read books or magazines in English	0,533	0,939 > 0,01
29. Watched English TV programs	1,314	0,063 > 0,01
30. Listened to English radio	0,426	0,993 > 0,01
31. Listened to English songs	0,477	0,977 > 0,01
32. Practiced using English with friends	0,653	0,787 > 0,01
33. Done English self-study in a group	0,798	0,548 > 0,01
34. Done grammar exercises on your own	0,644	0,801 > 0,01
35. Watched English movies	0,974	0,298 > 0,01
36. Written a diary in English	0,699	0,713 > 0,01
37. Used the internet in English	2,867	0,000 ≤ 0,01
38. Used English with a native speaker	1,970	0,001 ≤ 0,01

According to the table, for eleven out of fourteen items, we cannot talk about a statistically significant relationship between participants' being 1st or 4th year

students and their answers to the items. This means that, statistically, for most of the outside class activities in the questionnaire, being a 1st year student or a 4th year student does not make any difference in terms of the frequency of engaging in those activities.

4.1.4. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use

4.1.4.1. The 1st Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use

Last section of the questionnaire focused on learners' employment of metacognitive language learning strategies which are considered to help learners to develop more active and autonomous attitudes enabling them to take the control of their own learning (Victori and Lockhart, 1995).

The averages found at the end of the data analysis of Section 4 have been evaluated according to Oxford's (1990) key to the averages (Table 3.2.). Average score for the 1st year students' metacognitive strategy use was 3.5, which is at the bottom of high level of frequency and which means respondents generally employ metacognitive strategies in their language learning process. Reinders (2000) states that if teachers want learners to take more control on their own learning, they should consider their employment of metacognitive strategies, which is one of the signs of their abilities to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning. Considering the results of this study, we can say that our 1st year students' frequency of employing metacognitive strategies is above medium level, and in this respect they seem ready to take more control on their own learning especially for the areas of learning which require employment of metacognitive strategies. However, as more frequent use of metacognitive strategy brings more success in the control over learning (Wenden,

1998; Benson, 2001, Reinders, 2000, Oxford, 1990), ways of increasing our students' frequency of metacognitive strategies should be looked for.

4.1.4.2. The 4th Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use

3.6 is the average score for the 4th year students' metacognitive strategy use. According to Oxford's (1990) 'Key to the Averages' (Table 3.2.) this score means that they are at the high level of frequency in terms of their metacognitive strategy use and they generally employ metacognitive strategies in their language learning process.

4.1.4.3. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year Students' Metacognitive Strategy Use

Results indicate that the 1st and 4th year students' are at the same frequency level of employing metacognitive strategies. The 1st year students' average score was 3.5, and it was also in the high level of frequency. In this respect we can say that there is no difference between the 1st and 4th year participants of the study in terms of the frequency of employing metacognitive language learning strategies.

4.2. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions Related to Learner Autonomy from the Teacher's Point of View

In this part we will give the results related to last two research questions: (3) What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view? (4) What are the differences and/or similarities between the 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view?

4.2.1. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Responsibility from the Teacher's Point of View

4.2.1.1. The 1st Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

In the first section of the Teacher Questionnaire we instructed the 1st year students to put themselves into teacher shoes, and to report their perceptions of their own and their students responsibilities in the language learning process. Students ranked their perceptions of responsibility on a five point Likert Scale which goes from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Completely).

Table 4.10. (p. 94) presents the percentages of answers related to each question. To aid interpretation, the 'not at all' and 'a little' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'mainly' and 'completely' categories.

Table 4.10. shows that for eleven out of thirteen items great majority of the students reported they have 'mainly / completely' responsibility as teachers (Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12). The percentage for the 'mainly / completely' category of these eleven items are all above 50 %, which means that majority of the students think the teacher has great responsibility for these items. The two items that

Table 4.10. The 1st year participants' perceptions of their students' and their own responsibilities - % of respondents

<u>Question Number</u>	Participants' perceptions of their own responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents	Participants' perceptions of their students' responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents
	Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely		Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely	
1. Make sure students make progress during lessons		6.7	93.3	89	8	31	61	87
2. Make sure they make progress outside class	14.8	50	35.2	88	2.3	7.9	89.8	88
3. Stimulate their interest in learning English		2.2	97.8	89	14.8	33	52.2	88
4. Identify their weaknesses in English		5.6	94.4	89	15.9	40.9	43.2	88
5. Make them work harder	2.2	19.1	78.7	89	4.5	28.4	67.1	88
6. Decide the objectives of their English course	3.4	9	87.6	89	29.5	37.5	33	88
7. Decide what they should learn next in your English lessons	1.1	3.4	95.5	89	42	30.7	27.3	88
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in their English lessons	1.1	6.8	92.1	88	34.1	38.6	27.3	88
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity		6.7	93.3	89	40.5	39.3	20.2	89
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in their English lessons	1.1	4.5	94.4	88	39.8	36.3	23.9	88
11. Evaluate their learning	1.1	4.5	94.4	88	25	29.5	45.5	88
12. Evaluate their course	1.1	7.9	91	88	28.4	33	38.6	88
13. Decide what they learn outside class	36	37.1	26.9	89	9.1	14.8	76.1	88

participants didn't take 'mainly / completely' responsibility are Item 2 (making sure students make progress outside class) and Item 13 (deciding what to learn outside class). This result means that, putting themselves into teacher shoes, participants take great responsibility for all the in class activities and procedures, but they do not think that they have great responsibility for outside class activities.

On the other hand, since in six out of eleven items that participants gave themselves 'mainly / completely' responsibility we can still talk about shared responsibility. For

the Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 11 and 12, the highest percentage for student responsibility is under the category of 'mainly / completely' as well. For example, for making students work harder (Item 5) 78.7 % of the respondents reported 'mainly / completely' responsibility for themselves as teachers; similarly, for the same item, 67.1 % of the respondents reported 'mainly / completely' responsibility for their students. This means that the participants have the notion of shared responsibility for this item, and the same thing can be stated for other five items (1, 3, 4, 11, 12).

Interviews also supported the view that for these six items respondents generally think of shared responsibility. For example, for Item 11 (evaluating learning), one participant stated the following:

Öğretmenin sorumluluğunda (evaluation) çünkü bir şeyler öğrendiler mi öğrenmediler mi (öğrenciler), anlattıkları boşa gitti mi gitmedi mi görmeli. Fakat, öğrenci de kendi kendine içi muhasebe yapmalı. "Ben bugün okula gittim, ne öğrendim?" diye gece yatmadan önce düşünebilir. Ya da "Ne kadar ekili oldu, işime

yarayacak mı yaramayacak mı?” Bunu kendi iç muhasebeleriyle yapmalılar bence.

[It (evaluation) is the teacher’s responsibility because he must see whether the students learned something or not, whether he talked in vain, or not. However, the student must make his own evaluation as well. Before sleeping he can think “Today I went to school, what did I learn?” or “Did it work? Will I use I, or not?” I think they (students) should do this by using their own evaluation.]

On the other hand, for the Items 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 respondents gave more responsibility to themselves as teachers. For example, for Item 7 (deciding what to learn next), 95.5 % of the respondents stated that it is ‘mainly / completely’ teacher’s responsibility to decide what to learn next in the English lesson, and for the same item, 42 % (the highest percentage) of the respondents stated that students have ‘not at all / a little’ responsibility for deciding what to learn next. According to interviews, the reason for respondents’ taking more responsibility for these items as teachers is that they think these are all methodological and technical aspects of learning, and students cannot operate well in these methodological aspects. In the following example the participant was asked why he gives more responsibility to himself as a teacher in Item 7 (deciding what to learn next), here is the answer:

Çünkü teacher olarak onlardan daha bilgiliyiz. Bize bu eğitim verildi. O yaşlarda neyi daha iyi öğrenebileceklerine kendimiz karar

verebiliriz. Zaten bir şey öğrenmek istemiyorlar, neyin iyi neyin daha kötü olduğuna hiç karar vermezler.

[Because, as teachers, we have more knowledge than they have. We were educated for this. We can decide what they learn better at that age. As they don't want to learn anything, it is harder for them to decide what is good or what is bad.]

Items 2 and 13 are both related to outside class learning, and majority of the participants think that students have 'mainly / completely' responsibility for these items. When they were asked for their reasons in the interviews, they generally answered that it is not possible for teachers to control what is going on outside the classroom.

To conclude, results presented in Table 4.10. can be clustered into three main categories: (1) students and teachers share the responsibility (Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 11, 12), (2) teachers have more responsibility than students (Items 6, 7, 8, 9, 10), and (3) students have more responsibility than teachers (Items 2, 13).

4.2.1.2. The 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

In the first section of the Teacher Questionnaire we instructed the 4th year ELT students to consider themselves as teachers, and we ask them how they perceive their own and their students' responsibilities in the language learning process. Table 4.11. (p. 98) presents the results of this section.

As it was in the 1st year students' answers to the first section, 4th year students' answers are also clustered into three: (1) students and teachers share the

Table 4.11. The 4th year participants' perceptions of their students' and their own responsibilities - % of respondents

<u>Question Number</u>	Participants' perceptions of their own responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents	Participants' perceptions of their students' responsibilities - %			No. of Respondents
	Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely		Not at all / A little	Some	Mainly / Completely	
1. Make sure students make progress during lessons		13.1	86.9	84	4.8	27.3	67.9	84
2. Make sure they make progress outside class	15.5	45.2	39.3	84	1.2	10.7	88.1	84
3. Stimulate their interest in learning English	1.1	6	92.9	84	8.3	41.7	50	84
4. Identify their weaknesses in English	2.4	8.3	89.3	84	8.3	32.2	59.5	84
5. Make them work harder	4.8	26.2	69	84	7.2	19	73.8	84
6. Decide the objectives of their English course		10.7	89.3	84	27.3	45.4	27.3	84
7. Decide what they should learn next in their English lessons		3.6	96.4	84	29.7	41.7	28.6	84
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in their English lessons		10.7	89.3	84	26.2	40.5	33.3	84
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	2.4	11.9	85.7	84	33.3	35.8	30.9	84
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in their English lessons	1.2	9.5	89.3	84	31	44	25	84
11. Evaluate their learning		3.6	96.4	84	16.6	27.4	56	84
12. Evaluate their course		13.1	86.9	84	6	27.3	66.7	84
13. Decide what they learn outside class	19.1	52.4	29.5	84	3.6	11.9	84.5	84

responsibility, (2) teachers have more responsibility than students, (3) students have more responsibility than teachers.

For the Items 1, 3, 4, 5, 11 and 12 majority of the respondents stated that both themselves as teachers, and their learners have high responsibility. For example, for Item 12 (evaluating the course), 86.9 % of the participants said that it is ‘mainly /completely’ their own responsibility to evaluate the course they are teaching, and for the same item, 66.7 % of the respondents said that it is ‘mainly /completely’ their students’ responsibility to evaluate the course. To exemplify further, we can also talk about evaluation of learning. Majority of the participants reported shared responsibility for Item 11 (evaluating learning). Then we can say that they have the notion of shared responsibility for evaluating the learning and course. In the interviews participants stated that teacher and students complement each other in evaluation and that’s the reason why they have the notion of shared responsibility for these items. Here is an example:

Tamamlayıcı unsurdur öğretmenle öğrenci. Öğrenci de bu konuda (değerlendirme) bilinçli olmak zorunda. Kendi eksikliklerini bilmeli ve kendini değerlendirebilmelidir.

[*Teacher and student are complementary elements. The student should be conscious about this (evaluation). He should know his own deficiencies, he should be able to evaluate himself.*]

For Items 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 respondents reported that they give more responsibility to themselves as teachers than they give to their students. For example, for Item 6 (deciding the objectives of the English lesson), 89.3 % of the respondents stated that it is ‘mainly / completely’ teacher’s responsibility to decide the objectives of the English lesson, and for the same item, 45.4 % (the highest percentage) of the respondents stated that students have ‘some’ responsibility for deciding the objectives.

We see that all these items that participants took more responsibility to themselves as teachers are again related to methodological aspect of learning such as deciding the objectives, choosing activities and materials. The interviews revealed that the participants generally think that these aspects of learning require professional knowledge, and that’s the reason why they should be more responsible for these aspects of learning. Following is an answer given the question “Why did you take more responsibility to yourself in Items 6 (deciding the objectives), Item (8) choosing activities, and Item 10 (choosing materials)?”

Daha teknik bir konu olduđu için. Mesela ben üniversiteye geldiğimde diyordum ki öğretmen acaba derse girdiği zaman neyi nasıl öğretiyor. Ama her şeyin bir tekniği olduğunu gördüm. Nasıl giriş yaparız, öğrenciyi konuya nasıl hazırlarız, nasıl aktiviteler düzenleriz? Bunlar hep öğretmenin bileceği şeyler. Bunda büyük sorumluluğun öğretmende olduğunu düşünüyorum. Çünkü öğrenci sadece kendi açısından baktığı için objektif belirlemeyi, aktivite seçmeyi bilemez, çünkü bireysel açıdan görür.

[*Because it is a more technical subject. For example, when I first came to university I was wondering how the teachers teaches something. But I saw that everything has its own technique. How do we introduce? How do we prepare students to the topic? How do we arrange activities? These are all the things that a teacher knows. I think here teacher has greater responsibility. The student cannot define objectives, or choose activities because he always thinks individually.]*

When we look at the items that the participants gave greater responsibility to students, we see that the 4th years think that students have more responsibility for making sure that they make progress outside class, and for deciding what to learn outside class. When they were asked for their reasons during the interviews, they said that as teachers they cannot give enough time and equal interest to all students outside the classroom. They cannot control what they are doing; therefore, students have greater responsibility in outside class activities. Following is an example:

(ders dışında) Kendi öğrenmelerinden sorunlu olmalılar çünkü biz hepsinin yanında olamayız. Sınıf dışında ne yaptıklarını takip etmemiz çok zor. Bir değil birden çok öğrencimiz var. Bunun bilincinde olmaları, kendilerini geliştirmek için çalışmalar yapmaları gerekiyor.

[(outside the classroom) *They should be responsible for their own learning because we cannot be with all of them. It is too difficult for us to control what they are doing outside the classroom. We have more than one student. They should be aware of this, and they should study to improve themselves.*]

4.2.1.3. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Responsibility

Comparison of the results shows that the 4th year students reported shared responsibility for all the items that the 1st year students reported shared responsibility. In this respect we can say that the 1st and 4th year students reported shared responsibility for the same items (1, 3, 4, 5, 11, 12). Also, there is consistency between the 1st and 4th year students' answers in terms of taking more responsibility as teachers. Items 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were reported by both the 1st year and 4th year students as the items that they have more responsibility as teachers. The consistency between the 1st and 4th year participants' answers does not change for the items that students take more responsibility to themselves.

To conclude, when participants put themselves into teacher shoes, the results for this section of the Teacher Questionnaire indicate that there is no difference between the 1st and 4th year participants' views on their own and their students' responsibilities in the language learning process.

The consistency between the 1st and 4th year respondents' answers to this section is also proved statistically. Table 4.12. (p. 103) presents the results of Kolmogorov-

Table 4.12. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 1 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire

<u>Question Number</u>	Yours		Your Teachers'	
	Kolmogorov - Smirnov	<i>p value</i>	Kolmogorov - Smirnov	<i>p value</i>
1. Make sure you make progress during lessons	0,711	0,692 > 0,01	0,454	0,986 > 0,01
2. Make sure you make progress outside class	0,266	1,00 > 0,01	0,110	1,00 > 0,01
3. Stimulate your interest in learning English	0,397	0,997 > 0,01	0,500	0,964 > 0,01
4. Identify your weaknesses in English	0,359	1,00 > 0,01	1,071	0,201 > 0,01
5. Make you work harder	0,631	0,820 > 0,01	0,443	0,989 > 0,01
6. Decide the objectives of your English course	0,737	0,649 > 0,01	0,365	0,999 > 0,01
7. Decide what you should learn next in your English lessons	0,936	0,344 > 0,01	0,805	0,536 > 0,01
8. Choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons	0,287	1,00 > 0,01	0,518	0,951 > 0,01
9. Decide how long to spend on each activity	0,496	0,966 > 0,01	0,705	0,703 > 0,01
10. Choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons	0,883	0,416 > 0,01	0,720	0,678 > 0,01
11. Evaluate your learning	0,642	0,804 > 0,01	0,688	0,731 > 0,01
12. Evaluate your course	0,263	1,00 > 0,01	0,838	0,200 > 0,01
13. Decide what you learn outside class	0,521	0,949 > 0,01	0,550	0,923 > 0,01

Smirnov test for each item in Section 1. Statistical analysis shows that there is no significant relationship between the participants' year in the program and their answers to Section 1 of the Teacher Questionnaire. For all the items in this section, data analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant relationship between the items and the respondents' being 1st or 4th year students in the program. Then, we can say that, statistically, the participants' year in the program did not affect their answers to Section 1 items of the Teacher Questionnaire.

4.2.2. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities In Learning English from the Teacher's Point of View

4.2.2.1. The 1st Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities In Learning

Second section of the Teacher Questionnaire asked the participants to put themselves into teachers' shoes and report their perceptions of their students' abilities to operate in various aspects of learning such as choosing learning activities and materials, evaluating learning, etc. In other words, in this section participants were instructed to report their perceptions of how successful they think their students would be if they were given the chance of operating in these various aspects. Respondents reported their views on a five point Likert scale that goes from 1 (Very Poor) to 5 (Very Good).

Table 4.13. (p. 105) presents the percentages of answers related to each question. To aid interpretation, the 'very poor' and 'poor' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'good' and 'very good' categories.

Table 4.13. The 1st year participants' perceptions of students' abilities in learning - % of respondents

Section 2 items 1st Year participants' perceptions of their students' abilities in learning	Very poor / Poor %	OK %	Very good / good %	No. of Respondents
14. Choosing learning activities in class	21.6	39.8	38.6	88
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	29.2	40.5	30.3	89
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	20.5	42	37.5	88
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	30.3	42.7	27	89
18. Choosing learning materials in class	21.4	34.8	43.8	89
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	25	42	33	88
20. Evaluating their learning	14.6	32.6	52.8	89
21. Evaluating their course	14.6	32.6	52.8	89
22. Identify their weaknesses in English	19.3	33	47.7	88
23. Deciding what they should learn next in your English lessons	40.5	29.1	30.4	89
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	37.1	37.1	25.8	89

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

Results in the table indicate that generally respondents' perceptions of language learners' abilities to operate in various aspects of learning are not very negative. For nine out of eleven items (14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22) highest percentage of the respondents think that the students are 'OK' or 'Good / Very

Good'. This means that generally respondents think that their students would be 'OK' or 'Good / Very Good' if they were given the chance of taking more control over their learning. Interviews indicated that participants generally answered the questions in this section considering the general language learner profile in their minds. They reported that this profile was mainly shaped by their past experiences as language learners, and their observations throughout their own language learning process.

To conclude, results for this section generally indicate that the 1st year students are not so pessimistic about language learners' abilities to take more control over their learning. They generally think that language learners would be OK if they were given the chance of taking charge of their own learning.

4.2.2.2. The 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities In Learning

In the second section of the teacher questionnaire the 4th year participants were also asked to report their perceptions of their students' abilities to operate in various aspects of learning such as choosing learning activities and materials, evaluating learning, etc.

Table 4.14. (p. 107) shows the percentages related participants' perceptions of their students' abilities.

Results of this section indicate that the 4th year students seem pessimistic about language learners' abilities in learning. In eight out of eleven items majority of the participants think that students are 'poor / very poor' in abilities related to taking more control in their own learning. These items are choosing learning activities in class (58.3 %) and outside class (63.1 %), choosing learning objectives in class (65.5 %) and outside class (76.2 %), choosing learning materials in class (51.8 %) and

Table 4.14. The 4th year participants' perceptions of students' abilities in learning - % of respondents

Section 2 items 4 th Year participants' perceptions of their students' abilities in learning	Very poor / Poor %	OK %	Very good / good %	No. of Respondents
14. Choosing learning activities in class	58.3	28.6	13.1	84
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	63.1	22.6	14.3	84
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	66.3	22.9	10.8	83
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	77.1	14.5	8.4	83
18. Choosing learning materials in class	51.2	34.5	14.3	84
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	51.2	35.7	13.1	84
20. Evaluating their learning	44	34.5	21.5	84
21. Evaluating their course	42.9	32.1	25	84
22. Identify their weaknesses in English	40.5	42.9	16.6	84
23. Deciding what they should learn next in your English lessons	72.6	17.8	9.6	84
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	57.1	28.6	14.3	84

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

outside class (51.8 %), deciding what to learn next in English lessons (72.6 %) and deciding how long to spend in each activity (57.1 %).

The 4th year participants are not so optimistic and positive about other three items as well. For students' abilities of evaluating their own learning, 44.1 % percent

of the participants, and for students' abilities of evaluating the course, 42.9 % of the participants stated that they perceive students as 'poor / very poor.' Item 22 (identifying weaknesses in English) was the only item whose highest percentage was under 'OK' category.

When participants were asked for their reasons of considering students' abilities so low, they stated that the student profile they see in their teaching practicum schools affect their perceptions a lot.

Following are two examples, two different participants were asked the reason why they considered the students abilities so low, here are the answers:

Staja gidiyoruz ve bunu hep görüyoruz. Öğrenciler bu konularda genellikle pek yeterli değiller. O yüzden bu şekilde düşünüyorum.

[*We go our teaching practicum schools, and we always see this. Students are not so proficient about these issues. That's why I think so.]*

Staja gittiğim zaman gördüğüm tüm öğrencileri hesaba katarak yanıtladım bu soruları. Orada gördüklerim böyleydi gerçekten.

[*I answered these questions considering all the students I observe in my teaching practicum school. The students I saw there were really like that.]*

4.2.2.3. The Comparison of 1st and 4th Year Students' Perceptions of Students' Abilities In Learning

When we compare the 4th year participants' answers to the 1st year participants' answers, we see that the 4th year students are more negative and pessimistic about students' abilities in taking more control over learning. The 1st year students' answers for Section 2 show that for nine out of eleven items (Items 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22) highest percentage of the participants think that the students are 'OK' or 'Good / Very Good.' On the other hand, the 4th year students' answers for Section 2 show that for ten out of eleven items (Items 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24) highest percentage of the participants think that the students are 'Poor / Very Poor.' As we showed with interview samples above, the reason for 4th year students' negative views of students' abilities can be explained with their teaching experience.

The difference between the 1st and 4th year students' perceptions of language learners' abilities in taking more control over their learning can also be seen in the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Results (presented in Table 4.15., p. 110) revealed that, for ten out of eleven items (Items 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23) there is statistically significant relationship between respondents' being 1st or 4th year students' and their answers to the items. In other words, statistically, the 1st and 4th year students' answers to these items differ from each other.

Table 4.15. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 2 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	<i>p</i> value
14. Choosing learning activities in class	2,409	0,00 ≤ 0,01
15. Choosing learning activities outside class	2,227	0,00 ≤ 0,01
16. Choosing learning objectives in class	2,994	0,00 ≤ 0,01
17. Choosing learning objectives outside class	3,065	0,00 ≤ 0,01
18. Choosing learning materials in class	1,942	0,001 ≤ 0,01
19. Choosing learning materials outside class	1,561	0,015 ≤ 0,01
20. Evaluating your learning	2,063	0,00 ≤ 0,01
21. Evaluating your course	1,857	0,02 ≤ 0,01
22. Identify your weaknesses in English	2,036	0,001 ≤ 0,01
23. Deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	2,115	0,00 ≤ 0,01
24. Deciding how long to spend on each activity	1,319	0,062 > 0,01

4.2.3. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities

4.2.3.1. 1st Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities

In the third section of the Teacher Questionnaire participants once more pretended that they were language teachers, and they were instructed to report how frequently they would encourage their students to engage in outside class learning activities. They were instructed to report the frequency of their encouragement of these activities on a five point Likert Scale that goes from 1(Never) to 5 (Very Often).

Table 4.16. (p. 112) gives the percentages of answers related to each activity. To aid interpretation, the 'Never' and 'Rarely' categories have been combined in the table, and similarly the 'Frequently' and 'Very Often' categories.

The table shows that for all the items in this section majority of the students said that they would 'frequently / very often' encourage their students to do these activities. This means that if these students were teachers, they would encourage their students very frequently to engage in outside class activities which are considered as signs of acting autonomously in the language learning.

In the interviews when the participants were asked for the reasons of encouraging students so frequently, they stated that they are aware of the benefits of these kinds of activities, and they would encourage these activities in order to help their students improve their English because classroom time is not enough to improve it. In addition, most of the participants reported that they were not encouraged to participate in such activities during their high school years, and now, at the university, they understand their value better. Following is an example:

Table 4.16. The 1st year participants' encouragement of outside class learning activities - % of respondents

Section 3 items 1st Year Participants' encouragement of outside class learning activities	% Never & Rarely	% Sometimes	% Frequently & Very Often	No. of Respondents
25. Read grammar books on their own	18	29.2	52.8	89
26. Read newspapers in English	2.2	16.9	80.9	89
27. Send e-mails in English	11.2	33.7	55.1	89
28. Read books or magazines in English	1.1	13.5	85.4	89
29. Watch English TV programs	1.1	13.7	85.2	88
30. Listen to English radio	4.5	6.7	88.8	89
31. Listen to English songs		6.7	93.3	89
32. Practice using English with friends	5.6	12.4	82	89
33. Do English self-study in a group	4.5	30.7	64.8	88
34. Do grammar exercises on their own	10.2	34.1	55.7	88
35. Watch English movies	1.1	12.5	86.4	88
36. Write a diary in English	19.1	25.9	55	89
37. Use the internet in English	4.5	12.5	83	88
38. Use English with a native speaker	4.5	22.5	73	89

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

Bir şeyi iyi öğrenmek için ders yeterli değil. Ben dışarıda şu kitabı okuyun, bu gazeteyi okuyun, müzik dinleyin diye öğrencilerime tavsiye ederim. Bize lisede listeninginizi geliştirin diye söylenmedi.

Şimdi çok zorlanıyoruz. Eğer tavsiye edilseydi, yapsaydım daha iyi olurdu.

[*Classroom time is not enough for learning something. I suggest my students to read a book or a magazine, to listen to music. We weren't told in our high school years to improve our listening. Now, we are having difficulty. If we had been suggested to do so, I would be better now.]*

4.2.3.2. The 4th Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities

In the last section of the Teacher Questionnaire the 4th year participants were also instructed to report how frequently they would encourage their students to engage in outside class learning activities. Table 4.17. (p. 114) gives the percentages of answers related to each activity.

The table shows that for all the items in this section majority of the students said that they would 'frequently / very often' encourage their students to do these activities. This means that if these students were teachers, they would encourage their students very frequently to engage in outside class activities which are considered as signs of acting autonomously in the language learning process.

When the participants were asked for their reasons of encouraging these activities so frequently, they generally stated that they believe the positive effects of these activities on a students' language learning process. Following is an example:

Table 4.17. The 4th year students' encouragement of outside class learning activities - % of respondents

Section 3 items 4th Year Participants' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities	% Never & Rarely	% Sometimes	% Frequently & Very Often	No. of Respondents
25. Read grammar books on their own	19.5	29.3	51.2	82
26. Read newspapers in English	13.1	25	61.9	84
27. Send e-mails in English	13.1	23.8	63.1	84
28. Read books or magazines in English	6	14.3	79.7	84
29. Watch English TV programs	3.6	15.5	82.9	84
30. Listen to English radio	8.3	14.3	77.4	84
31. Listen to English songs	1.2	11.9	86.9	84
32. Practice using English with friends	3.6	20.2	76.2	84
33. Do English self-study in a group	6	31	63	84
34. Do grammar exercises on their own	8.4	32.5	59.1	83
35. Watch English movies	2.4	13.1	84.5	84
36. Write a diary in English	10.7	19	70.3	84
37. Use the internet in English	8.3	14.3	77.4	84
38. Use English with a native speaker	19	16.7	64.3	84

Key: Bold figures = categories with highest score

Bu aktivitelerin önemli olduğunu düşünüyorum çünkü genel İngilizce başarısı bunlardan geçiyor, sadece derslerde görülen gramer konularından falan değil, onlar bir yere kadar öğrenciye bir şey katıyor.

[I think these activities are important because success in general English depends on them, not only on the grammar subjects learned in the classroom, they contribute to students to a certain extent.]

4.2.3.3. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year Students' Encouragement of Outside Class Learning Activities

For this section of the questionnaire both the 1st year students and the 4th year students reported high frequency of encouragement of outside class learning activities. Both groups' answers cluster under 'frequently / very often' category. In this respect we can say that 1st and 4th year students think the same in terms of encouraging students to engage in outside class learning activities.

Statistical analysis of the data has also revealed the same result. Table 4.18. (p. 116) presents the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests applied to each item in Section 3 of the Teacher Questionnaire. According to the table, for all the items, we cannot talk about a statistically significant relationship between participants' being 1st or 4th year students and their answers to the items. This means that, statistically, for all the activities in this section of the questionnaire, being a 1st year participant or a 4th year participant does not make any difference in terms of the frequency of encouraging those activities.

Table 4.18. Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Section 3 Items of the Teacher Questionnaire

Items	Kolmogorov-Smirnov	<i>p</i> value
25. Read grammar books on your own	0,662	0,774 > 0,01
26. Read newspapers in English	1,249	0,88 > 0,01
27. Sent e-mails in English	0,528	0,943 > 0,01
28. Read books or magazines in English	0,428	0,993 > 0,01
29. Watched English TV programs	0,280	1,00 > 0,01
30. Listened to English radio	0,748	0,630 > 0,01
31. Listened to English songs	0,906	0,385 > 0,01
32. Practiced using English with friends	0,383	0,999 > 0,01
33. Done English self-study in a group	0,227	1,00 > 0,01
34. Done grammar exercises on your own	0,219	1,00 > 0,01
35. Watched English movies	0,156	1,00 > 0,01
36. Written a diary in English	0,998	0,272 > 0,01
37. Used the internet in English	0,365	0,999 > 0,01
38. Used English with a native speaker	0,957	0,319 > 0,01

4.3. Summary of The Results

Table 4.19. below presents a brief summary of the results regarding each research question.

Table 4.19. Summary of The Results

SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS (based on the highest percentages)	
1. What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English?	
The 1 st years' perceptions of responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - notion of shared responsibility in making progress during lessons, stimulating interest and identifying weaknesses in English, making students work harder, deciding course objectives, and evaluating learning and course - giving teacher more responsibility in deciding what to learn next, choosing activities and materials, deciding how long to spend on each activity - taking more responsibility to themselves for outside class learning
The 1 st years' perceptions of their own abilities related to taking more control on their own learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'poor / very poor' at deciding what to learn next in English lesson - 'OK' at choosing learning activities and learning objectives in class, choosing learning materials in and outside the classroom - 'good / very good' at evaluating their learning and the course, identifying their weaknesses, choosing learning activities and objectives outside the class, identifying their weaknesses in English and deciding what to learn next in the course
The 1 st years' engagement in outside class learning activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'rarely / never' engagement in reading grammar books, and newspapers, sending e-mails and talking to a native speaker, watching TV and listening to radio in English, studying English with friends, and writing a diary - 'frequently / very often' engagement in doing grammar exercises on their own, reading books or magazines, listening to songs, watching films and using the Internet in English
The 1 st years' metacognitive strategy use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - average 3.5, which is in the high level of frequency and which means they generally employ metacognitive strategies
The 4 th years perceptions of responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - notion of shared responsibility in making progress during lessons, stimulating interest and identifying weaknesses in English, making students work harder, and evaluating learning and course - giving teacher more responsibility in deciding the objectives of the course, deciding what to learn next, choosing activities and materials, deciding how long to spend on each activity - taking more responsibility to themselves for outside class learning

The 4 th years' perceptions of their own abilities related to taking more control in their own learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'good / very good' at all the abilities
The 4 th years' engagement in outside class learning activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'rarely / never' engagement in reading newspapers in English, sending e-mails and talking to a native speaker, listening to radio in English, doing English self-study in a group, and writing a diary - 'sometimes' engagement in reading grammar books and doing grammar exercises, reading books or magazines, watching TV in English, practicing English with friends, and do - 'frequently / very often' engagement in listening to songs, watching films and using the Internet in English
The 4 th years' metacognitive strategy use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - average 3.6, which is in the high level of frequency and which means they generally employ metacognitive strategies
<p>2. What are the differences and/or similarities between the 1st and 4th year students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English?</p>	
Similarities and Differences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - almost the same perceptions in terms of teacher and student responsibilities - the 4th years see themselves better than 1st years see themselves in terms of their abilities to take more control over their own learning - almost the same engagement in outside class learning activities; reading grammar books, watching TV and practicing English with friends are 'sometimes' done by the 4th years, whereas they are 'never / rarely' done by the 1st years - almost the same frequency of employing metacognitive strategies
<p>3. What are the 1st and 4th year ELT students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view?</p>	
The 1 st years' perceptions of responsibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - notion of shared responsibility in making progress during lessons, stimulating interest and identifying weaknesses in English, making students work harder, and evaluating learning and course - taking more responsibility as teacher in deciding the course objectives, deciding what to learn next, choosing activities and materials, deciding how long to spend on each activity - giving more responsibility to students for outside class learning

<p>The 1st years' perceptions of language learners' abilities related to taking more control on their own learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - considering learners 'poor / very poor' at deciding what to learn next, and deciding how long to spend on each activity - considering learners 'OK' at choosing learning activities in and outside class, choosing learning objectives in and outside class, choosing learning materials outside class, and deciding how long to spend on each activity - considering learners 'good / very good' at choosing learning materials in class, evaluating learning and the course, identifying their own weaknesses
<p>The 1st years' encouragement of outside class learning activities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'frequently / very often' encouragement for all the activities
<p>The 4th years' perceptions of responsibility</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - notion of shared responsibility in making progress during lessons, stimulating interest and identifying weaknesses in English, making students work harder, and evaluating learning and course - taking more responsibility as teacher in deciding the course objectives, deciding what to learn next, choosing activities and materials, deciding how long to spend on each activity - giving more responsibility to students for outside class learning
<p>The 4th years' perceptions of language learners' abilities related to taking more control on their own learning</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - considering learners 'poor / very poor' at all the abilities except identifying weaknesses
<p>The 4th years' encouragement of outside class learning activities</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 'frequently / very often' encouragement for all the activities
<p>4. What are the differences and/or similarities between the 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to learner autonomy from the teacher's point of view?</p>	
<p>Similarities and Differences</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the same perceptions in terms of teacher and student responsibilities - the 4th years are more negative and pessimistic in terms of language learners' abilities to take more control over their own learning - high frequency of encouragement reported by both the 1st years and the 4th years

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Summary of the Study

The main aim of this study was to investigate Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy. As ELT students in Turkey are both learners of English as a foreign language and future teachers of English as a foreign language, the study focused on these two aspects. That is, the study aimed at investigating ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy both as learners of English, and as future teachers of English. Another aim was that while investigating ELT students' views related to learner autonomy, we also wanted to see whether the education they receive on how to teach English make any difference in their perceptions. In order to reach those aims, first of all a questionnaire study was conducted with 179 students studying Teaching English As A Foreign Language at Anadolu University, English Language Teaching Department. 90 of the participants were 1st year students in the program, and 89 of the participants were 4th year students. We specifically focused on the 1st and 4th year students because we accepted the 1st year students as future teachers of English who did not receive education on how to teach English, and we accepted the 4th year students as the ones who were educated on how to teach English. Two different instruments were used in the questionnaire study. One of the instruments aimed at investigating participants' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy as learners of English. The other one aimed at investigating participants'

perceptions related to learner autonomy as teachers of English. In order to support the quantitative data with qualitative data, we also conducted follow up interview sessions with some of the participants. In the interview sessions, referring to their answers in the questionnaire, we asked the interviewees their reasons for their answers. The results of quantitative and qualitative data analysis were presented in detail in Chapter 4.

5.2. Conclusions and Implications of the Study

Conclusions and implications of this study will be discussed in the following pages in the light of research questions.

5.2.1. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior of Learner Autonomy as Learners of English

According to data analysis related to participants' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in their language learning process, we can say that both the 1st year and the 4th year students seem to be ready to take more responsibility in the areas of evaluation, being interested in learning English, making sure of progress, working harder and identifying weaknesses because for all these cases they stated that they share the responsibility with their teachers. As they accept that the teacher is not the only person who is responsible for these cases, we can promote autonomy by gradually giving more responsibility in these areas of learning. Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest that increasing the level of responsibility gradually in these areas would help in the promotion of learner autonomy. Therefore, especially in the aforementioned areas teacher trainers might design their activities in

a way to give more responsibility to their students. The results of the study indicate that both the 1st and the 4th year ELT students can be given more opportunities to evaluate what they learn and how they learn it, these students can also be encouraged to raise their own interest to learning English by enabling them to see the enjoyable aspects of learning English, and they can also be given the chance of identifying their own weaknesses with the help of some self-evaluation activities. In this way, future teachers can be guided through employing more autonomous behavior in their own learning process; behaving more autonomously in the learning process would probably result encouraging more autonomy in the future.

What is rewarding related to the 1st year participants is that they also have the notion of shared responsibility for deciding the objectives of the course. Little (1991), Lee (1998) and Cotterall (2000) mention the importance of defining objectives on taking more responsibility for the language learning process. In this case, we can say that as the 1st year students reported that they share responsibility with the teacher on defining objectives, we can give them more chance to be involved in taking decisions related to defining objectives. As the first step to this goal we can start training them on how to define short and long term objectives for their own learning. Rubin and Thompson (1994) state that clarifying their own objectives would bring more motivation to learners, and more motivation would bring more success in language learning. Affected by their experiences in their teaching practicum process, the 4th year participants of the study generally reported that deciding objectives of the learning process is the teacher's responsibility. One way of changing these students' negative attitudes on this issue can be involving them more in defining objectives of their own learning. If they have a first-hand

experience of defining objectives, they might see the benefits and applicability of it, and they might use it in their own classroom in the future.

The results of the study also indicated that both the 1st years and the 4th years take greater responsibility to themselves in cases related to outside class learning. This means that if they are encouraged and guided enough, they might take the responsibility and devote time for outside class learning. English teacher trainers might increase their students' autonomous behavior just by guiding and encouraging their students more to engage in outside class learning activities.

On the other hand, for the cases related to methodological aspects of learning, the 1st and 4th year students both gave more responsibility to their teachers. Specifically those methodological issues are deciding on material and activities, deciding what to learn, and deciding how long to spend for specific activities. These aspects of learning are considered important for the development of learner autonomy by many researchers (Little, 1991; Cotterall, 2000; Benson, 2001; Chan, 2001). Therefore, if we want our students to become more autonomous, we should involve them in the decisions related to those methodological aspects of learning, and in these aspects ELT students seem to need more guidance and encouragement. ELT teacher trainers should give more responsibility to their students in the methodological aspects of learning especially in their first years in the program because if the students see that it is not impossible to be responsible for the actions related to methodological aspects, it might be more likely for them to behave similarly to their students in the future as language teachers.

When we look at the participants' perceptions of their own abilities related to taking more control over their own learning, we see that the 1st year students'

answers cluster around OK category. The 4th years' perceptions of their own abilities related to taking more control over their own learning are slightly higher than those of the 1st years. This means that generally these students do not think that they would be poor if they were given the chance of having more control on their own learning. In this respect, we can conclude that generally, they will not fail if the teacher trainers give more responsibility to them in their own language learning process.

Another conclusion that can be drawn related to ELT students is that although they take greater responsibility to themselves in outside class learning, they generally do not engage in outside class learning activities frequently. Therefore, we can conclude that they need more guidance and encouragement on outside class activities related to learning English.

For metacognitive strategy use both the 1st year and the 4th year students reported that they are generally employing those strategies. This is rewarding in terms of the promotion of learner autonomy because many researchers emphasized the importance of metacognitive strategies on the development of learner autonomy (Victori and Lockhart, 1995; Dickinson, 1996; Ridley, 1997; Reinders, 2000). However, as more employment of those strategies means more ability to control learning, it would be beneficial to provide strategy training to ELT students in order to increase the frequency of their metacognitive strategy use. Teacher trainers may add some metacognitive strategy training sessions to their syllabuses, and they might design some of the in and outside class activities in a way to guide and encourage students experience the use of metacognitive strategies.

As a result, if we would like to follow one or some of the ways of promoting learner autonomy (these ways are mentioned in Chapter 2) with the students at

Anadolu University, English Language Teaching Department, we should take the following points into consideration: (1) they need specific guidance and encouragement on taking responsibility in decisions related to methodological aspects of learning, (2) they seem ready to take responsibility in outside class language learning activities, but they are not doing these activities frequently; therefore, they need more encouragement, facilities and guidance, (3) they seem ready to take more responsibility on the cases of evaluating themselves and the course, identifying their weaknesses, making progress during lessons, and stimulating interest, (4) they seem that they generally trust themselves in terms of taking more responsibility in their own language learning process, (5) they generally employ metacognitive language learning strategies.

If we take these conclusions into consideration before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy with these learners, the likeliness of reaching success will be higher.

5.2.2. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions and Behavior of Learner Autonomy as Learners of English

As one of the aims of this study was to investigate whether the education that ELT students receive on how to teach English make any difference in their perceptions of learner autonomy as learners of English, we compared 1st and 4th year students answers to the Learner questionnaire.

Comparison of the results for participants' perceptions of responsibility indicates that there are no big differences in the 1st year and the 4th year ELT students' perceptions. The cases that students take more responsibility to themselves,

the cases that students give more responsibility to their teachers, and the cases that students have the notion of shared responsibility are almost the same for 1st and 4th year participants of the study. Statistical analysis of the data supports this as well. Then, according to the results of this study, we can conclude that learning how to teach English does not change ELT students' perceptions of responsibility in the language learning process as learners of English.

As mentioned earlier, the cases that both the 1st year and the 4th participants give greater responsibility to teachers are all about the methodological aspect of learning such as deciding on material and activities, deciding what to learn, and deciding how long to spend for specific activities. If the results had indicated that the 4th year students have the notion of shared responsibility for these methodological aspects, then we would have been able to say that the teacher education program they received had changed their views. However, we cannot talk about such a difference; and therefore, we conclude that learning how to teach English did not change those students' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities as learners of English. The most important reason for this might be the fact that they did not experience autonomy themselves in their first years in the program, and therefore now they are not aware of the benefits of taking more responsibility in some aspects of learning. Then, we can say that this result of the study once more shows us the importance and necessity of making ELT students experience autonomy themselves in their own language learning process especially in the first years of the teacher training program.

On the other hand, when we compare the 1st and 4th year students' perceptions related to their own abilities to take more control in their own language

learning, we see that the 4th year students perceive themselves slightly more able than the 1st year students. Comparison of percentages and mean scores, and the participants' views taken during the interview sessions could let us talk about such a slight difference. As many of the 4th year participants stated during the interviews, the reason for this difference might be that the 4th years know more than the 1st years about the language learning process, and this knowledge facilitates their abilities of taking more responsibility as language learners. This is also supported by Rubin and Thompson (1994) and Ridley (1997) who state that the learners who know more about language learning process are more able to take the initiative in this process. Then, we can conclude that if we want to develop learner autonomy, we should give great importance to make our students be aware of their own language learning process.

As a result, we can conclude that except for the perception of their own abilities to act autonomously, learning how to teach English did not change 4th year ELT students' perceptions and behavior related learner autonomy as learners of English.

5.2.3. The 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy as Future Teachers of English

Results for the first section of the Teacher Questionnaire indicated that, when they put themselves into teacher's shoes, both the 1st and the 4th year students perceive teacher and student responsibilities in three ways: (1) teachers have greater responsibility in methodological aspects such as objective defining or material selection, (2) teachers and students share responsibility in evaluation, raising interest

to learning English, making sure of progress, making students work harder and identifying weaknesses, (3) students have more responsibility for outside class learning.

In terms of encouraging students to engage in outside class learning activities, again both the 1st and the 4th year participants say that these activities are important, and they would encourage these activities very frequently if they were teaching English.

The 1st year participants generally perceive language learners' abilities to act autonomously as OK, whereas 4th year participants generally perceive the same abilities of language learners as poor.

5.2.4. Comparison of the 1st and 4th Year ELT Students' Perceptions of Learner Autonomy as Future Teachers of English

One of the aims of this study was to investigate whether the education that ELT students receive on how to teach English make any difference in their perceptions of learner autonomy as future teachers of English. In order to reach that aim, we compared 1st and 4th year students answers to the Teacher Questionnaire.

Comparison of the results for participants' perceptions of responsibility as future teachers of English indicates there are no big differences in 1st year and 4th year ELT students' perceptions. The cases that participants take more responsibility to themselves, the cases that they give more responsibility to their students, and the cases that they have the notion of shared responsibility are almost the same for 1st and 4th year participants of the study. Statistical analysis of the data supports this as well. Then, according to the results of this study, we can conclude that the education

they receive about how to teach English does not make any change in these ELT students' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities in language learning.

Especially the similarity in the cases that both the 1st year and the 4th year participants give greater responsibility to teachers is important. All these cases are about the methodological aspect of learning such as defining objectives, deciding on material and activities, deciding what to learn, and deciding how long to spend for specific activities. If the results had indicated that the 4th year students have the notion of shared responsibility for these methodological aspects, then we would have been able to say that the teacher education program they received had changed their views. However, as there is not such a difference between the 1st and 4th year participants' perceptions on this issue, we can conclude that learning how to teach English did not change the 4th year participants' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities as future teachers of English. As it is discussed in the conclusions related to the Learner Questionnaire, we can again say that the main reason of this might be that fact that ELT students do not experience autonomy themselves in their teacher education program. As Kumaravadivelu (2001:548) indicates, "Autonomous learners deserve autonomous teachers." That is, if we want the future teachers to promote learner autonomy in their own classrooms in the future, we should help them experience autonomy and become more autonomous in their own education process.

Another conclusion can also be drawn by looking at the results of the 1st and 4th year participants' perceptions of language learners' abilities to act autonomously. When compared to the 1st years, the 4th year participants seem very pessimistic about language learners' abilities to act autonomously. Interviews showed that the main

reason of this situation is the learners that the 4th years observe in their teaching practicum process. Then, we can conclude that the teaching practicum process has a negative effect on ELT students' perceptions of language learners' abilities to act autonomously.

To conclude, considering the results of this study, we can say that the education that the 4th year participants received on how to teach English did not make positive and rewarding changes in their perceptions related to learner autonomy as teachers of English.

We want to quote Little (1995: 179-181) both as an implication for language teacher training programs and as the last words of this study:

“If learner autonomy and teacher autonomy are interdependent then the promotion of learner autonomy depends on the promotion of teacher autonomy. In other words, learner autonomy becomes a matter for teacher education in two separate but related senses. We must provide trainee teachers with the skills to develop autonomy in the learners who will be given into their charge, but we must also give them a first-hand experience of learner autonomy in their training. ... prospective teachers can be provided with a sound basis on which to construct arguments demonstrating the importance of learner autonomy. But a capacity to argue the importance of learner autonomy is not the same thing as a capacity to promote learner autonomy in the classroom. Language learners are more likely to operate as independent flexible users of their target language if their classroom experience has already pushed them in this direction, by the same token, language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous. ... teacher education should be subject to the same processes of negotiation as are required for the promotion of learner autonomy in the language classroom. Aims and learning targets, course content, the ways in which course content is mediated, learning tasks, and the assessment of learner achievement must all be negotiated; and the basis of this negotiation must be a recognition that in the pedagogical process teachers as well as students can learn, and students as well as teachers can teach.

If we are to achieve large-scale progress in the promotion of learner autonomy we must now bring our focus of concern back to the teacher, and especially to the way in which we organize and mediate teacher education.”

5.2.5. Suggestions for Further Studies

In this study the data was collected only from ELT students. A further study can be designed in which the data is collected both from the ELT students and their trainers. By comparing the results taken from the trainees and the trainers, we can better understand the gaps between what teacher trainers want to teach related to learner autonomy and what the trainees take. And the implications of such a study might provide different beneficial aspects to teacher training programs.

In addition, a further study can be carried out to investigate the differences between the current English teachers in the Turkish education system and the teacher candidates in the teacher education programs. In this way, researchers can see what experience in the job of English language teaching changes in the teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy. Furthermore, if the results indicate, in-service training can be provided to the teachers in the system.

Also, considering the results of this study, teacher trainers might design some courses in which they specifically focus on the promotion of learner autonomy, and the effectiveness of these attempts to promote autonomy can be investigated through case studies.

REFERENCES

- Assinder, W. (1991). Peer-teaching, peer-learning: one model. ELT Journal, 45 (3), 218-229.
- Aston, G. (1993). The learner's contribution to the self-access centre. ELT Journal, 47 (3), 219-227.
- Barnett, L. & Jordan, G. (1991). Self-access facilities: what are they for?. ELT Journal, 45 (4), 305-312.
- Bax, S. (2003). CALL - past, present and future. System, 31 (1), 13- 28.
- Benson, P. & Voller, P. (Eds.) (1997). Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman.
- Benson, P. (1995). A critical view of learner training. Learning Learning: JALT Learner Development N-SIG Forum, 2 (2), 2-6.
- Benson, P. (2001). Teaching and Researching Autonomy in Language Learning. London: Longman.
- Berge, Z. L. (2000). Components of the online classroom. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 23-28.
- Bertoldi, E., Kollar, J. & Ricard, E. (1988). Learning how to learn English: from awareness to action. ELT Journal, 42 (3), 157-166.
- Branden, J. V. & Lambert, J. (1999). Cultural issues related to transnational Open and Distance learning in universities: a European problem?. British Journal of Educational Technology, 30 (3), 251-260.

- Breen, M.P. & Mann, S. (1997). Shooting arrows at the sun: perspectives on a pedagogy for autonomy. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 132-149).
- Candy, P. C. (1991). Self-direction for Lifelong Learning. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Carstens, R. W. & Worsfold, V. L. (2000). Epilogue: a cautionary note about online classrooms. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 83-87.
- Carver, D.J. (1984). Plans, learner strategies and self-direction in language learning. System, 12 (2), 123-131.
- Chan, V. (2001). Readiness for learner autonomy: what do our learners tell us?. Teaching In Higher Education, 6 (4), 505-518.
- Chan, V. (2003). Autonomous Language Learning: the teachers' perspectives. Teaching In Higher Education, 8 (1), 33-54.
- Chan, V., Spratt, M. & Humphreys, G. (2002). Autonomous language learning: Hong Kong tertiary students' attitudes and behaviors. Evaluation and Research in Education, 16 (1), 1-18.
- Chen, A., Mashhadi, A., Ang, D. & Harkrider, N. (1999). Cultural issues in the design of technology-enhanced learning systems. British Journal of Educational Technology, 30 (3), 217-230.
- Clarke, D.F. (1991). The negotiated syllabus: what it is and how is it likely to work?. Applied Linguistics, 12 (1), 13-28.
- Cotterall, S. (1995). Readiness for autonomy: investigating learner beliefs. System, 23 (2), 195-206.

- Cotterall, S. (1999). Key variables in language learning: what do learners believe about them?. System, 27 (4), 493-513.
- Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: Principles for designing language courses. ELT Journal, 54 (2), 109-117.
- Cotterall, S. & Reinders, H. (2000). Learners' perceptions and practice in self access language learning. TESOLANZ Journal, 8, 23-38.
- Crabbe, D. (1993). Fostering autonomy from within the classroom: the teacher's responsibility. System, 21 (4), 443-452.
- Cross, D. (1981). The Individualized Learning Programme Assessed. System, 9 (2), 107-111.
- Dam, L. (1995). Learner Autonomy 3: From Theory to Classroom Practice. Dublin: Authentik.
- Dickinson, L. (1979). Self-instruction in commonly taught languages. System, 7, 181-186.
- Dickinson, L. (1993). Talking shop: aspects of autonomous learning: An interview with Leslie Dickinson. ELT Journal, 47 (4), 330-336.
- Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and motivation: a literature review. System, 23 (2), 165-174.
- Dickinson, L. (1996). Learner Autonomy 2: Learner Training for Language Learning. Dublin: Authentik.
- Ellis, G. & Sinclair, B. (1989). Learning to learn English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Esch, E. (1997). Learner training for autonomous language learning. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 164-176).
- Gabel, S. (2001). Over-indulgence and under-representation in interlanguage: reflections on the utilization of concordances in self-directed foreign language learning. Computer Assisted Language Learning, 14 (3-4), 269-288.
- Gardner, D. (1995). A methodology for converting teaching materials to self-access learning materials. Modern English Teacher, 4 (3), 53-57.
- Gremmo, M. J. & Riley, P. (1995). Autonomy, self-direction and self-access in language teaching and learning: the history of an idea. System, 23 (2), 151-164.
- Hacker, D. J. & Niederhauser, D. S. (2000). Promoting deep and durable learning in the online classroom. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 53-63.
- Harmer, J. (2001). The Practice of English Language Teaching. China: Longman
- Harris, M. (1997). Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings. ELT Journal, 51 (1), 12-20.
- Healey, D. (2002). Learner Autonomy with Technology: What do language learners need to be successful. <http://oregonstate.edu/~healeyd/tesol2002/autonomy>.
- Hedgd, T. (2000). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. New York: Oxford
- Hill, B. (1994). Self-managed learning: state of the art article. Language Teaching, 27, 213-223.
- Ho, J. & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese cultural traditions: Learner autonomy in English language teaching. System, 23 (2), 235-243.

- Holec, H. (1981). Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon
- Holec, H. (1985). On Autonomy: some elementary concepts. In Riley, P. (Ed.) Discourse and Learning. London: New York. (pp. 173-190).
- Huang, H. (2002). Student Perceptions in An Online Mediated Environment. International Journal of Instructional Media, 29 (4), 405-422.
- Hurd, S., Beaven, T., & Ortega, A. (2001). Developing autonomy in a distance learning context: issues and dilemmas for course writers. System, 29 (3), 341-355.
- Jones, F.R. (1993). Beyond the fringe: a framework for assessing teach-yourself materials for *ab initio* English-speaking materials. System, 21 (4), 453-469.
- Jones, F.R. (1994). The lone language learner: a diary study. System, 22 (4), 441-454.
- Jones, F.R. (1998). Self-instruction and success: a learner profile study. Applied Linguistics, 19 (3), 378-406.
- Joo, J. (1999). Cultural issues of the internet in the classroom. British Journal of Educational Technology, 30 (3), 245-250.
- Jung, I. (2001). Building a theoretical framework of web-based instruction in the context of distance education. British Journal of Educational Technology, 32 (5), 525-534.
- Kamii, C. & Clark, F. B. (1993). Autonomy: the importance of a scientific theory in education reform. Learning and Individual Differences, 5 (4), 327-340.
- Kenny, B. (1993). For More Autonomy. System, 21 (4), 431-442.

- Knowlton, D. S. (2000). A theoretical framework for the online classroom: a defense and delineation of a student-centered pedagogy. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 5-14.
- Koçak, A. (2003). A Study on Learners' Readiness for Autonomous Learning of English as a Foreign Language. M.A. Thesis submitted to Middle East Technical University in September, 2003.
- Kohonen, V. (1992). Experiential Language Learning: second language learning as cooperative learner education. In Nunan, D. (Ed.) Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (pp. 14-39).
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward A Postmethod Pedagogy. TESOL Quarterly, 35 (4), 537-557.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Lee, I. (1998). Supporting greater autonomy in language learning. ELT Journal, 52 (4), 282-289.
- Legenhausen, L. & Wolff, D. (1990). CALL in Use- Use of CALL: Evaluating CALL Software. System, 18 (1), 1-13.
- Liaw, M. (1998). Using Electronic Mail for English as a Foreign Language Instruction. System, 26 (3), 335-351.
- Lin, L.Y. & Brown, R. (1994). Guidelines for the production of in-house self-access materials. ELT Journal, 48 (2), 150-156.
- Lin, B. & Hsieh, C. (2001). Web-based teaching and learner control: a research review. Computers and Education, 37, 377-386.

- Little, D. (1991). Learner Autonomy. 1: Definitions, Issues and Problems. Dublin: Authentik.
- Little, D. (1995). Learning as dialogue: the dependence of learner autonomy on teacher autonomy. System, 23 (2), 175-181.
- Littlejohn, A. (1983). Increasing learner involvement in course management. TESOL Quarterly, 17 (4), 595-608.
- Littlewood, W. (1996). Autonomy: an anatomy and a framework. System, 24 (4), 427-435.
- Littlewood, W. (1997). Self-access: why do want it and what can it do?. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 79-92).
- Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. Applied Linguistics, 20 (1), 71-94.
- McLoughlin, C. (1999). Culturally responsive technology use: developing an on-line community of learners. British Journal of Educational Technology, 30 (3), 231-243.
- Merç, A. (2004). Reflections of Pre-service EFL Teachers Throughout Their Teaching Practicum: What Has Been Good? What Has Gone Wrong? What Has Changed?. M.A. Thesis Submitted to Anadolu University in January 2004.
- Miller, L. & Rogerson-Revell, P. (1993). Self-access systems. ELT Journal, 47 (3), 228-233.
- Moneta, S. & Moneta, G. B. (2002). E-learning in Hong Kong: comparing learning outcomes in online multimedia and lecture versions of an introductory

- computing course. British Journal of Educational Technology, 33 (4), 423-433.
- Moore, N. & Reinders, H. (2003). Teaching for self-study in the self-access centre. Modern English Teacher, 12 (2), 48-51.
- Morrison, G. R. & Guenther, P. F. (2000). Designing instruction for learning in electronic classrooms. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 15-22.
- Niemiec, R. P. & Walberg, H. J. (1992). The effects of computers on learning. International Journal of Educational Research, 17 (1), 99-108.
- Nunan, D. (1995). Closing the gap between learning and instruction. TESOL Quarterly, 29 (1), 133-158.
- O'Dell, F. (1992). Helping teachers to use a self-access centre to its full potential. ELT Journal, 46 (2), 153-159.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Should Know. New York: Newbury House / Harper & Row.
- Özdamar, K. (2004). Paket Programlar ile İstatistiksel Analiz. Eskişehir: Kaan Kitabevi
- Passerini, K. & Granger, M. J. (2000). A developmental model for distance learning using the Internet. Computers and Education. 34, 1-15.
- Reinders, H. W. (2000). Do It Yourself. A Learners' Perspective on Learner Autonomy and Self-Access Language Learning in an English proficiency Program. M.A. Thesis Submitted to Groningen University. Available at www.hayo.nl.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (1990). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Ridley, J. (1997). Learner Autonomy 6: Developing Learners' Thinking Skills.
Dublin: Authentik.
- Riley, P. (Ed.) (1985). Discourse and Learning. London: Longman
- Rubin, J. & Thompson, I. (1994). How to Be a More Successful Language Learner.
Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Scharle, A. & Szabo, A. (2000). Learner autonomy: a guide to developing learner responsibility. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sheerin, S. (1997). An exploration of the relationship between self-access and independent learning. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 54-65).
- Spratt, M., Humphreys, G. & Chan, V. (2002). Autonomy and motivation: which comes first?. Language Teaching Research, 6 (3), 245-266.
- Sturtridge, G. (1997). Teaching and Language Learning in Self-access Centers: Changing Roles. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 66-78).
- Sullivan, N. & Pratt, E. (1996). A Comparative Study of Two ESL Writing Environments: A Computer-Assisted Classroom and A traditional Oral Classroom. System, 29 (4), 491-501.
- Tamburini, F. (1999). A multimedia framework for second language teaching in self-access environments. Computers and Education, 32, 137-149.
- Thomson, J. & Chesters, G. (1992). CALL for all. Computers and Education, 19 (1/2), 163-172.
- Victori, M. & Lockart, W. (1995). Enhancing metacognition in self-directed learning. System, 23 (2), 223-234.

- Voller, P. (1997). Does the Teacher Have a Role in Autonomous Language Learning?. In Benson P. & Voller P. (Eds.) Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman. (pp. 98-113).
- Waite, S. (1994). Low-resourced self-access with EAP in the developing world: the great enabler?. ELT Journal, 48 (3), 233-242.
- Weiss, R. E. (2000). Humanizing the online classroom. New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 84, 47-51.
- Wenden, A. (1988). A curricular framework for promoting learner autonomy. The Canadian Modern Language Review, 44 (4), 639-652.
- Wenden, A. (1998). Metacognitive knowledge and language learning. Applied Linguistics, 19 (4), 515-537.
- White, C. (1995). Autonomy and strategy use in distance foreign language learning: research findings. System, 23 (2), 207-221.
- White, C. (1999). Expectations and emergent beliefs of self-instructed language learners. System, 27 (4), 443-457.
- Winer, L. R. & Cooperstock, J. (2002). The “intelligent classroom”: changing teaching and learning with an evolving technological environment. Computers and Education, 38, 253-266.
- Yang, N. D. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: promoting learner autonomy. System, 26 (1), 127-135.
- Yumuk, A. (2002). Letting go of control to the learners: the role of the Internet in promoting a more autonomous view of learning in an academic translation course. Educational Research, 44 (2), 141-156.

APPENDIX A**The Learner Questionnaire*****The Roles of Learners and Teachers***

Dear participant,

The aim of this questionnaire is to collect information about your views of the roles of learners and teachers in language learning process. Please give us your opinion as indicated in the following pages. We hope the information collected by this questionnaire will enable us to design more effective learning programs. The success of this study depends on your sincere participation. The information collected through the questionnaire will have **NO** effect on your course grades.

Background Information

Name:

Age:

Gender: a) Female b) Male

Year: a) 1st b) 4th

This is to certify that I agree to the use of the information I have provided in this questionnaire for academic research purposes.

.....

(signature)

Section I**RESPONSIBILITIES (Please put a cross (X) in both “Yours” and “Your teachers’ ” boxes)**

In English classes, whose RESPONSIBILITY should it be to:		Not at all	A little	Some	Mainly	Completely
1. make sure you make progress during lessons?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
2. make sure you make progress outside class?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
3. stimulate your interest in learning English?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
4. identify your weaknesses in English?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
5. make you work harder?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
6. decide the objectives of your English classes?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
7. decide what you should learn next in your English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
8. choose what activities to use to learn English in your English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
9. decide how long to spend on each activity?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
10. choose what materials to use to learn English in your English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
11. evaluate your learning?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
12. evaluate your courses?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
13. decide what you learn outside class?	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)	Yours:					
	Your teachers':					

Section II**ABILITIES (Please put a cross (X) in the appropriate box)**

How GOOD do you think YOU are at:	Very Poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very Good
14. choosing learning activities in class?					
15. choosing learning activities outside class?					
16. choosing learning objectives in class?					
17. choosing learning objectives outside class?					
18. choosing learning materials in class?					
19. choosing learning materials outside class?					
20. evaluating your learning?					
21. evaluating your course?					
22. identifying your weaknesses in English?					
23. deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons?					
24. deciding how long to spend on each activity?					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)					

Section III**ACTIVITIES (Please put a cross (X) in the appropriate box)**

In the last academic term, how often have you:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Often
26. read newspapers in English?					
27. sent e-mails in English?					
28. read books or magazines in English?					
29. watched English TV programs?					
30. listened to English radio?					
31. listened to English songs?					
32. practiced using English with friends?					
33. done English self-study in a group?					
34. done grammar exercises on your own?					
35. watched English movies?					
36. written a diary in English?					
37. used the Internet in English?					
38. used English with a native speaker?					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)					

Section IV**STRATEGIES**

Below you will find statements related to learning a new language. Please read each statement and mark the response (1, 2, 3, 4, 5) that tells how true the statement is in terms of what you actually do when you are learning the new language.

1. Never or almost never true of me
2. Generally not true of me
3. Somewhat true of me
4. Generally true of me
5. Always or almost always true of me

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	Never or Almost Never	Generally Not	Somewhat	Generally	Always or Almost Always
	TRUE OF ME				
39. I preview the language lesson to get a general idea of what it is about, how it is organized, and how it relates to what I already know.					
40. When someone is speaking the new language, I try to concentrate on what the person is saying and I don't think anything else.					
41. I decide in advance to pay special attention to specific language aspects; for example, while watching a film I focus the way native speakers pronounce certain sounds.					
42. I try to find out all I can about how to be a better language learner by reading books or articles, or by talking with others about how to learn.					
43. I arrange my schedule to study and practice the new language consistently, not just when there is the pressure of a test.					
44. I arrange my physical environment to promote learning; for instance, I find a quiet, comfortable place to review.					
45. I organize my language notebook to record important language information.					
46. I plan my goals for language learning.					
47. I plan what I am going to accomplish in language learning each day or each week.					
48. I prepare for an upcoming language task (such as making an oral presentation in the new language) by considering the nature of the task, what I have to know, and my current language skills.					
49. I clearly identify the purpose of the language activity; for instance, if the purpose of a class activity requires specific listening, I recognize it.					
50. I take responsibility for finding opportunities to practice the new language.					
51. I actively look for people with whom I can speak the new language.					
52. I try to notice my language errors and find out the reasons for them.					
53. I learn from my mistakes in using the new language.					
54. I evaluate the general progress I have made in learning the language.					

APPENDIX B**The Teacher Questionnaire*****The Roles of Learners and Teachers***

Dear participant,

The aim of this questionnaire is to collect information about your views of the roles of learners and teachers in language learning process. Please give us your opinion as indicated in the following pages. We hope the information collected by this questionnaire will enable us to design more effective learning programs. The success of this study depends on your sincere participation. The information collected through the questionnaire will have **NO** effect on your course grades.

Background Information

Name:

Age:

Gender: a) Female b) Male

Class: a) 1st b) 4th

This is to certify that I agree to the use of the information I have provided in this questionnaire for academic research purposes.

.....

(signature)

Section I**RESPONSIBILITIES (Please put a cross (X) in both “Yours” and “Your students’ ” boxes)**

When you teach English, whose RESPONSIBILITY should it be to:		Not at all	A little	Some	Mainly	Completely
1. make sure students make progress during lessons?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
2. make sure they make progress outside class?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
3. stimulate their interest in learning English?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
4. identify their weaknesses in English?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
5. make them work harder.	Yours:					
	Your students':					
6. decide the objectives of their English classes?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
7. decide what they should learn next in their English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
8. choose what activities to use to learn English in their English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
9. decide how long to spend on each activity?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
10. choose what materials to use to learn English in their English lessons?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
11. evaluate their learning?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
12. evaluate the course?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
13. decide what they learn outside class?	Yours:					
	Your students':					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)	Yours:					
	Your students':					

Section II**ABILITIES (Please put a cross (X) in the appropriate box)**

How would you rate students' ability to:	Very Poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very Good
14. choose learning activities in class?					
15. choose learning activities outside class?					
16. choose learning objectives in class?					
17. choose learning objectives outside class?					
18. choose learning materials in class?					
19. choose learning materials outside class?					
20. evaluate their learning?					
21. evaluate the course?					
22. identify their weaknesses in English?					
23. decide what they should learn next in their English lessons?					
24. decide how long to spend on each activity?					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)					

Section III**ACTIVITIES (Please put a cross (X) in the appropriate box)**

When you teach English, how often would you encourage your students to:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently	Very Often
26. read newspapers in English?					
27. send e-mails in English?					
28. read books or magazines in English?					
29. watch English TV programs?					
30. listen to English radio?					
31. listen to English songs?					
32. practice using English with friends?					
33. do English self-study in a group?					
34. do grammar exercises on their own?					
35. watch English movies?					
36. write a diary in English?					
37. use the Internet in English?					
38. used English with a native speaker?					
Other (please write if you have anything to add)					