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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION PROGRAMME

LANGUAGE LEARNERS' READINESS FOR AUTONOMY IN A MONOLINGUAL UNIVERSITY CONTEXT AND A COURSE PROPOSAL

MASTER'S THESIS

GAMZE CİLBİR MUSAYEV

SUPERVISOR

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KABUL VE ONAY

Gamze CİLBİR MUSAYEV tarafından hazırlanan *LANGUAGE LEARNERS' READINESS FOR AUTONOMY IN A MONOLINGUAL UNIVERSITY CONTEXT AND A COURSE PROPOSAL* başlıklı bu çalışma, 01 Haziran 2020 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Gamze CİLBİR MUSAYEV

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ÖZET

CİLBİR MUSAYEV, Gamze. *Tek Dil Bağlamında Dil Öğrenmekte Olan Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Öğrenme Özerkliğine Hazır Bulunuşlukları ve Bir Ders Önerisi,* Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2020.

En genel tanımıyla öğrenme özerkliği, bireyin kendi öğrenme sürecini kendi ellerine almasıdır (Holec, aktaran Smith ve diğerleri, 2008). Farklı disiplinlerden de (örneğin Felsefe, Psikoloji, vb.) beslenen bu tanıma yıllar içerisinde farklı eklemeler yapılmıştır. Dil öğrenmenin, kullanım sıklığı ve amacıyla doğrudan bir ilgisi vardır; bu nedenle öğrenenlerin içinde bulundukları bağlam, dil öğrenmelerinde ve özerk davranışlarında büyük önem taşımaktadır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, öğrenim dili olarak Türkçe belirlenmiş olan bir üniversitede İngilizce Hazırlık sınıfında bulunan öğrencilerin, dil özerkliğine hazır bulunuşluklarını incelemek ve buna uygun olarak, özerkliği geliştirecek bir ders planı sunmaktır. Çalışmanın amaçları doğrultusunda ilk aşamada, öğrenim dili %30 İngilizce olan Ufuk Üniversitesi Hukuk Fakültesi ve Psikoloji Bölümlerinin İngilizce Hazırlık sınıflarında okuyan öğrencilerine, lisedeki geçmiş öğrenim kültürlerini sorgulayan ve daha sonrasında da öğrenme özerkliklerine dair sorular içeren, Karabıyık'ın geliştirdiği (2008) bir anket uygulanmıştır. Anketin hazır bulunuşluk kısmında, özerkliğin beş alt başlığı sayılabilecek sorumluluk alma, karar verme becerisi, motivasyon, özerk aktiviteler ve üstbiliş stratejilerine ilişkin sorular yönlendirilmiştir. Çıkan sonuçlar, farklı istatistiki veri analizi testleriyle SPSS programı kullanılarak incelenmiştir.

Çalışmanın ikinci kısmında, yine aynı gruptan seçilen 37 öğrenciye ders geliştirme amaçları doğrultusunda ihtiyaç analizi anketi ve mevcut durum analizi amaçları doğrultusunda da bir takım ölçme araçları uygulanmıştır. Daha sonra, bu sonuçlar doğrultusunda öğrencilerin İngilizce dinleme ve yazma becerilerini geliştirirken aynı zamanda özerklik becerilerini de desteklemeyi hedefleyen sekiz haftalık bir ders tasarlanmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcükler:

Dil Öğrenme Özerkliği, Tek Dilli Bağlam, Ders Geliştirme, Üniversite Öğrencileri, Dil Öğrenme Özerkliğine Hazır Bulunuşluk

ABSTRACT

CİLBİR MUSAYEV, Gamze. *Language Learners' Readiness For Autonomy In A Monolingual University Context and A Course Proposal*, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2020.

In its broadest sense, learner autonomy is taking in charge of one's own learning (Holec, as cited in Smith et al. 2008). It is nourished by many other disciplines (i.e., Philosophy, Psychology, etc.); and many revisions have been made to the term over the years. Language learning has a strong connection to the frequency and purpose of use; hence, the context that the learners are in has an important role in language learning and autonomous behaviours.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the readiness of preparatory school language learners for autonomy in a monolingual tertiary context and design a course proposal to enhance it. As the first part of the study, a questionnaire, designed by Karabıyık (2008), was administered to the participants in order to find out about their learning cultures in high school and their readiness for autonomy in preparatory school. All of the participants were Psychology and Law School students who are at their preparatory school year at Ufuk University, where the medium of instruction is 30% in English. In the readiness part of the questionnaire, questions related to five components of autonomy, namely responsibility, decision-making, motivation, autonomous activities

and metacognitive strategies, were addressed. The results of the questionnaire were discussed after running different statistical data analysis tests on SPSS.

In the second part of the study, for course design purposes, thirty-seven students were administered a needs analysis questionnaire and a set of testing tools regarding the present situation analysis. This was then followed by an eight-weeks-course which aim to improve learners' listening and writing skills while fostering their autonomy skills.

Key Words:

Language Learning Autonomy, Monolingual Context, Course Design, University Students, Readiness for Language Learning Autonomy

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LIST OF ABBREVATIONS

CALL: Computer Assisted Language Learning

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

L1:   First language, mother tongue

L2:   Target language

NA: Needs Analysis

PSA: Present Situation Analysis

SAC: Self-Access Centre

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLIL: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

TSA: Target Situation Analysis

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Learners of English in Turkey are, in some way, forced to learn and use English not only in the classroom as a requisite of the national education system; but also outside to catch up with the latest trends and information flood in the world. Since many of them are digital natives, the inevitable existence of English steers them towards a more practical and self-manageable approach and sources that support learners in their studies outside school. However, autonomy is a context-dependent term, and is affected by various factors including motivation, learners' self-beliefs, responsibilities; and many others. Especially in monolingual contexts where the use and exposure to the target language are minimal and limited to the lessons, these factors may play even a greater role in determining learners' readiness for autonomy. This study, hence, aims to find out the extent the learners at a monolingual Turkish university are ready for autonomy in English language learning and propose a course to foster it.

1.2. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Many studies have been conducted since Holec (1979/1981, as cited in Smith, 2008) first defined the term "autonomy" as being in charge of one's own learning for language learning. However, the term is still prone to revisions as new technologies and related approaches have been developing in the field day by day. Since Holec's definition (ibid), many researchers have contributed to it by adding new sub-concepts to the term while investigating it from different perspectives.

The first of these concepts is that autonomy comes in degrees and is comprised of certain stages. Self-directed learning, which is very close to autonomy in principle, shares some of these stages with autonomy. Just like it is in autonomy,

in self-directed learning, learners can set a learning goal for themselves. Following their goal, they specify which sources they will use and what methodology/task they will follow to achieve their goal. Once they complete the task/their studies, they need to reflect on their practice and revise their performance so that they can make more conscious choices in their next step of learning.

It is also a well-acknowledged fact that there is a direct relationship between motivation and autonomy; most of the time, it is hard to tell which one leads to the other. Yet it is accepted that motivation is one of the characteristics of autonomous learners. This motivation to learn the language also brings in another term, responsibility. Responsibility to choose activities, resources and materials in class or outside the class may pose certain constraints from the learners' party unless they are accustomed to similar practices. However, how much they are accustomed to these kinds of applications of autonomy and how ready they are for autonomy is a controversial topic since it highly depends on the society and the culture of learning the students are coming from.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One of the most significant factors affecting learner autonomy is the context where autonomous behaviour is expected to develop and foster. It is generally stated by many researchers that autonomy is generally associated with technology-rich resources (Smith et al., 2018, p. 8); however, it is only one facet of it. Surely, to access resources, which can be computer-based or technology-based, learners need a well-established computerized environment so that they can use online tools or self-access centres that equip learners with access to various sources/tools on the web.

Apart from technology, social context and culture of learning also plays an essential role in developing autonomy. In Western cultures, where effects of

individualism can be observed, there is a focus on learner autonomy. In contrast, in many African or Asian contexts, which can be regarded as more community-oriented (ibid, p. 14) or teacher-centred (Sakai, Takagi & Chu, 2010, p.12), it may not be as easy as the Western cultures to implement the concept of autonomy into the learners' and the teachers' understanding. This may be due to the fact that autonomy requires both individual and collaborative attentiveness. However, in most traditional contexts, learners may not be provided with such an understanding. Thus, it may be more convenient for more individualistic societies to welcome the concept of autonomy into their lives.

One final constraint is related to the nature of language classes and to the end which the learners will use the language. To begin with, forming a sense of language classroom may be difficult at certain institutions. Since language is very related to identity, some learners may resist to the idea of speaking another language in their contexts where English is being taught as a foreign language. In other words, how much L1 will be used, how it will reinforce the attitude to learn English can be problematic especially in monolingual classes where the learners share another language, namely L1, apart from English to communicate. Another problem may be about the extent English will be or is expected to be used in daily life. At many high schools in Turkey, English is generally taught for 4-12 hours a week; however, how much learning takes place may depend on the institutions' view of the language. To illustrate, at private high schools, hours devoted to English may take up to 24 hours a week excluding extracurricular activities in the target language. On the other hand, at some state high schools, this number is only restricted to four or six hours a week with crowded classes where teacher-student interaction can be very limited. The situation may not be very different at tertiary education as well. Some universities in Turkey use English as the medium of

instruction. This would mean that learners study English at Preparatory school for a year or so before they take a proficiency test and start their studies in their departments where all the lessons will be in English. However, this is not the case for every university in the country. Some universities offer only 30% English departments, meaning the learners at these departments need to pass a proficiency test or study at Preparatory school before they start their departments so that they will be able to follow their lectures and achieve the learning outcomes in the lessons which are conducted in English. To clarify, 30% English departments mean that 30% of the department's courses will be in English and this number excludes the must-courses of ENG101 and ENG102, which are obligatorily offered by the Higher Education Council in Turkey. Also, there are universities which only offer these aforementioned courses of ENG101 and ENG102 and conduct all the other departmental courses in the L1. As it is clear from the examples above, the concept of a language class that has a somewhat direct relationship with motivation and autonomy is a very changeable concept in Turkey and one needs to take many factors into consideration while investigating the readiness for autonomy in a language class.

1.4. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to find out the extent to which the learners are ready for autonomy in a monolingual tertiary context and design a course with some suggested materials and evaluation programs. For these purposes, the research questions are as follows:

1. What kind of learning cultures do the students in a monolingual context have?

2. Do the learning cultures of the students differ according to the type of high school from which they graduated?

3. How ready are the learners in a monolingual university context for learner autonomy?

a. What perceptions do the learners have about themselves and their teachers in terms of responsibility?

b. How do learners perceive themselves in decision-making?

c. How motivated do the learners see themselves?

d. What kind of autonomous learning activities are the learners involved with both inside and outside the classroom?

e. What is the frequency of using metacognitive strategies in learning English by these learners?

4. Do the learners' perceptions regarding the teacher and student responsibilities, decision making abilities, autonomous engagements, levels of motivation and metacognitive strategy use differ in accordance with (a) the type of high school from which they graduated and (b) their English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between learning cultures of the students and their readiness for learner autonomy in a monolingual context?

1.5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although the readiness of language learners for autonomy has been researched by many researchers in Turkey and around the world, not much has been done in terms of course design for these purposes. Other studies done in the very same area have looked for the relationship between the autonomy and the culture of learning (see Karabıyık, 2008), or learners' attitude towards self-access centres (see Nasöz, 2015), or the extent they are ready for autonomy (see Koçak, 2003) or learners' perceptions of autonomy (see Yiğit & Yıldırım, 2018), or promoting autonomy through activities (see Balçıkanlı, 2006), or evaluation of preparatory school programs in terms of learner autonomy (see Fırat, 2016). This study is

significant in the sense that it not only looks for traces of readiness in autonomy, but also designs a course and suggests materials and assessment tools to foster autonomy so that the learners will find a chance to develop autonomous learning skills outside the classroom. To measure the learners' readiness for autonomy, the questionnaire developed and used by Karabıyık (2008) was used. To design a tailor-cut course for the learners of English at Ufuk University Preparatory School, a needs analysis tool and some other diagnostic tools were applied to learners.

1.6. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, a general overview of the concept of the learner autonomy is provided along with the statement of the problem and the significance of the study. The next chapter will focus on the relevant literature. The third chapter will present the methodology of the study, and the findings of the study will be discussed in the fourth chapter. Finally, in the last chapter, conclusions from the data will be presented.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this section, some key concepts related to learner autonomy, monolingual context and course design will be given. In the first section, learner autonomy will be discussed in terms of some of the key definitions which have helped to build the concept. This section will be followed by the philosophies, approaches and theories related to learner autonomy, from a range of disciplines including Psychology, Pedagogy, Philosophy and Political Sciences. Then, characteristics of autonomous learners and factors which are involved in learner autonomy will be briefly given before portraying some of the critical literature on learners' readiness for autonomy. The second section discusses some important elements of monolingual context, namely, use of L1, cultural aspects and motivation. The final section includes the basic concepts related to course design, including needs analysis, course/syllabus design, materials and assessment and evaluation.

2.2. LEARNER AUTONOMY

2.2.1. Definitions of Learner Autonomy

Since the term 'learner autonomy' was first conceptualized, there have been many discussions over its meaning among specialists. Its original definition, as Holec puts it, is people's *ability* to take charge of their own learning (1979/1981, as cited in Smith, 2008). However, it soon became apparent that referring to autonomy as an ability only would not be enough since many learners would not show full *capacity* while making decisions in determining the objectives, contents, syllabus, methods and techniques, pacing and evaluation regarding their autonomous learning processes (ibid). Thus, a new definition was made by Bailey

(2012), referring to autonomy as the capacity to act independently to promote one's own language development and to achieve their own goal.

In terms of learning skills, Ur (1991, p. 20) describes autonomy as a phase following *verbalization* (where the teacher-instructed learning takes place) and *automatization* (where learners practice the skill while the teacher monitors). However, it is also pointed out that this phase can be confused with the production phase, stating it [autonomy] is a more advanced form of practice where learners have little need of a teacher (ibid). Dickinson regards autonomy as a situation where the learner is responsible for all of their learning, including decision making and implementing these decisions. In the case of full autonomy, the learner neither needs a teacher nor specially prepared material (1987). Similarly, other studies by Dickinson conclude that learners often act *independently* in the classroom in a behavioural and cognitive way (as cited in Benson, 2006). This notion of independent learning leads to another term called *Self-Directed Learning*, in which, according to Nunan & Lamb (1996), a self-directed learner is able to make informed choices about what and how to learn (p. 156). This definition of self-directed learning is moderately intervened by Lamb (as cited in Lamb (2008)), suggesting autonomy does not necessarily mean there is no need for a teacher; instead, it needs teachers to refocus their teaching by supporting the autonomy in regards with the learners' needs, encouraging learners to reflect on the implementation of metacognitive knowledge and by developing more strategies.

In addition to the definitions mentioned above, Little (n. d.) states that autonomy is a practice which requires insight, a positive attitude, a capacity for reflection, and a readiness to be proactive in self-management and in interaction with others. Little also introduces another concept related to the learner autonomy, and states that it is the product of *interdependence* rather than independence (as

cited in Teng, 2019, p.3). This idea of interdependence is also suggested by Chik et al. (2018, p. 3) and Gao (2018, p. 45), latter pointing out questions regarding public scrutiny and social censure especially in contexts where English is seen as an important tool for academic and social advancement.

The notion of interdependence is also connected with the idea that each learner is unique and learns in different ways (Çakıcı, 2017). This brings the question: does learner autonomy means students working alone since they all have different ways of learning? Jacobs and Han (2015) shed light on the issue by getting assistance from *collaborative learning*. Collaborative learning, according to Kelly, involves learners working actively together in an intersubjective fashion to discover (2002, p. 94). In their study, Jacobs and Han, suggest setting group goals and forming group identities would help to maximise autonomy in the way to independence (2015). Similarly, Bharathi (as cited in Çakıcı, 2017) states by encouraging responsibility through giving the learners the chance to choose and developing intrinsic motivation, getting them to accept and provide for learner differences, and popularizing reflection, autonomy can be sustained in a better level.

Likewise, Little (2007a) draws a close relationship between the concepts autonomy and *responsibility,* stating:

> We take our first step towards developing the ability to take charge of our own learning when we accept full responsibility for the learning process, acknowledging that success in learning depends crucially on ourselves rather than on other people. … But accepting responsibility for our own learning is not only a matter of gradually developing metacognitive mastery of the learning process. It has an equally important affective dimension: in their commitment to self-management and their generally proactive approach, autonomous learners are motivated learners.

One final definition is about the nature of autonomy. Complete autonomy is an idealistic goal; and may not be the same in every learner and in every culture. To begin with, it comes in different degrees (Sinclair, as cited in Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012, p. 5). This suggests learners have different degrees of important factors to sustain autonomy, including managing their learning, knowing how to learn (materials, resources and strategies), reflecting on the process, managing motivation and stress, etc (Humanizing Language Teaching, 2019). Reinders also suggests eight stages of autonomous learning: identifying learning needs, setting goals, planning learning, selecting materials, selecting learning strategies, practice, monitoring progress and assessment and revision (2011, p. 177). Furthermore, Littlewood defines two different kinds of autonomy: *reactive* and *proactive* (as cited in Yang, 2005, p. 72). While the former refers to the autonomous situation where learners organize their resources autonomously to reach a goal that has been set, the latter means an autonomous learning process where the learners themselves set their goals (ibid). Another difference may be in the way it is understood in different cultures. According to Ho and Crookall, learner autonomy cannot be exercised without the context of specific cultures are taken into account; hence, when designing resources, tasks, courses, etc., culturally constructed nature of classrooms should be considered (as cited in Yang, 2005, p. 72). Palfreyman mentions the importance of context since most of the autonomous learning takes place outside the classroom; and summarizes three types of learning culture: ethnocentric culture referring to ethnic/national cultures (as in Asian culture, Western culture, etc.), learning cultures referring to the place and the interaction between the components of the place (i.e., Self-access centres, schools, etc.); and the sociocultural context (2003, p. 1-2).

To conclude, many researchers have enriched the meaning of the term 'autonomy' by investigating it from various views. Since autonomy is both an individualistic and a collaborative process which requires some degree of interaction between the learner, their peers, the teacher, the materials and sometimes even the institution, different aspects of it have been prioritised by different researchers. In the next section, various theories, approaches and philosophies which have made contributions to the definition of autonomy will be explained.

2.2.2. Philosophies, Approaches and Theories Related to Learner Autonomy

The term autonomy is originated from the disciplines of moral, political and social philosophy; however, many other disciplines have adapted and been using the terms. In this section, how the concept of learner autonomy has developed will be discussed briefly by mentioning its roots and the subsidiary theories and approaches which have made contributions to it.

The very first instance of autonomy was developed in the field of moral philosophy, playing a very central role in the tradition of Kantian philosophy (Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, 2015). In its original use in this discipline, individual autonomy refers to live one's own life in accordance with the decisions taken by the individual's own reasons and motives without any manipulation of external forces (ibid). Without any interference from the outside forces, the individual is able to make their own decisions, take action accordingly and face its consequences. Similarly, yet from another field, from the perspective of the political sciences, this idea has been used as the model of person whose perspectives are reflected and used to justify political principles (ibid).

Learner autonomy has increased its sources as the improvements in technology became available for people. Thanks to advancements in computer

technology and industries, now learners all around the world are integrating different devices such as computers, tablets or smartphones to their learning. This maturity of the technologies also roots for instructors to alter their teaching strategies and activities to utilize available sources (Golonka et al., 2014, p. 70), enabling them to adapt these developments for learners' use outside class. The first term related to this is *CALL* (Computer Assisted Language Learning). Among many, some benefits of CALL are it promotes learner autonomy and individualization by enhancing learners' long-term motivation and it provides opportunities for oral practice beyond classroom walls (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019, p. 87). Another important approach is *Flipped Learning,* which is, by definition, having the typical classroom activities and lectures followed by doing homework at home in reversed order with the help of instructional videos (Hung, 2015, p.81). A great benefit of Flipped Classrooms is, according to Berrett, it leaves room for higher-order thinking skills in the class since most of the lower-level thinking skills required by the lectures are done at home while the learners are watching the instructional videos (as cited by Hung, 2015, p. 82).

Although the concept of autonomy sounds as a term that is only about the individual, it would be misleading to regard it independent from the social context. From the perspective of educational philosophy, *Participatory Education* and *Critical Pedagogy* have some implications regarding the learner autonomy for social ends. To begin with, referring to the idea that people learn best when they bring the practice into their everyday experiences (Castelloe & Watson, 1999, p. 73), participatory education usually occurs outside of formal education institutions and rather being taught of facts, participants are encouraged to use their reflections on their everyday experiences (ibid). The other approach, critical pedagogy, which was founded on a view of society (Allwright et al., 2009, p. 54) and, according to

Freire, refers to an approach where students can critically think about the beliefs, values, and understandings while simultaneously becoming students and experts as transformative intellectuals (as cited in Motlhaka, 2016, p. 66). In both approaches, it is aimed that society is directly affected by the outcome. Similarly, Auerbach stresses the importance of the social context in L2 acquisition in participatory education; and this is in line with Dam and Legenhausen (as cited in Nicolaides & Fernandes, 2008). Defining autonomy as a way to learning to liberate in the post-method era, Kumaravadivelu (2003, p. 141) distinguishes 'academic autonomy' from 'liberatory autonomy', stating that while academic autonomy enables learners to be strategic practitioners to find out their learning potentials, in liberatory autonomy, learners are regarded as critical thinkers who are yet to realize their human potentials.

As mentioned very briefly in the previous section, a very similar term to learner autonomy, *self-directed learning*, is defined by Knowles as the ability of an individual to assess their own needs, sets goals, decide on the materials and evaluate the learning outcomes (as cited by Manning, 2007). Holec and Trebbi et al. (2006) also make a distinction between learner autonomy and self-directed learning as the former being the ability to self-direct; and the latter being a way of learning which enables the learner to prepare and implement their programme, including making decisions about the materials and goals, assessment, etc. They further discuss that being autonomous involves knowledge about *language competence* (what a language is and how it is used), *language learning competence* (what it means to learn a language and how a language is learned) and *methodological competence* (how to put language and language learning competencies into use) (ibid).

From the discipline of Psychology, there are a number of theories which the concept of autonomy has been empowered from. First of these theories is the

affordance theory, which was originated by the American psychologist J. J. Gibson (1904-1979). The theory is originally used for describing visual, ecological perception of the interaction between the animals and the environment, stating animals perceive the world not only in terms of object shapes and their spatial relationships, but also object possibilities for action, namely, affordances (Affordance Theory, n. d.). To exemplify, when the handle of a mug is positioned on the right side, it indicates an affordance of reaching it by the right hand; which in turn leads to the activation of the motoric system for such movement (Junghans et al., 2016). In terms of autonomy, the affordances would help to explain life-long learning which not only covers the formal education, but also unintentional, incidental learning (Kordt, 2016). Kordt further states:

> The emergence and use of affordances for language learning require the right conditions on the side of the individual (metalinguistic awareness, language learning strategies and curiosity) and on the side of the environment (access to a wide variety of linguistic products and encouragement to interact with them) (2016, p. 9).

Cotterall adapts this psychology-originated term to language learning and regards affordances as opportunities for interaction which are perceived by the learner within the learning environment and either being acted on or not (2017, p. 103). Affordances are helpful for learners to decide whether to take action to do something or not, and if they do, how to do it. Cotterall proposes 5 affordances; namely, *engagement* (how well are the learners engaged with the activities, topics, etc?)*, exploration* (how authentic are the issues that the learners are exploring so that they can find real answers?)*, personalization* (what kind of personal relevance can the learners build with the issues?)*, reflection* (to sustain metacognition, how do learners reflect on their learning?) and *support* (how can the learners be supported so that they can achieve more?) (ibid).

Another theory from Psychology is the *nudge theory*, which was introduced by Richard Thaler and Cass Sunstein. In principle, the nudge theory allows people to make efficacious choices without disturbing their freedom of choice (Saghai, 2013, p. 487). In other words, the relevant interventions change people's behaviour in a predictable way without forbidding any options or significantly changing their economic incentives (Damgaard & Nielsen, 2017, p. 8). In autonomous learning, it would be very helpful to equip learners with nudges to sustain learning and in order to keep them on their focus. In their report, Damgaard and Nielsen list a number of these nudges mentioning both the positive and negative sides of each (2017). Some of these nudges are *commitment devices*, namely, deadlines, or social nudges such as peer group interactions, or *information nudges* to create a group identity, etc. Although the nudging theory is criticized by some scholars as it may paradoxically result in diminishing the autonomy of the individual (ibid), some researchers suggest the otherwise and state that teachers have a moral responsibility to guide students to make optimal learning decisions and help them make 'choice architectures and to foster a willingness to apply metacognitive effort in autonomous learning (Ushioda, 2019).

All in all, learner autonomy is a broad concept which has been nourished by many disciplines among many including Psychology, Pedagogy and Philosophy; and all these areas help the term evolve in different forms and definitions. Yet, what makes a learner autonomous? Next section will be focusing on this question and try to compile literature regarding the characteristics of autonomous learners from various sources.

2.2.3. Traits of Autonomous Learners

As the definitions altered in one way or another, many characteristics have been attributed to autonomous learners. To have a better understanding of what autonomy and its components are, it may be useful to have a look at what makes a learner autonomous.

One of the earliest definitions of autonomous learners was made by Dickinson (1993) as having five characteristics. The first of these traits is being able to identify what is being thought. In other words, the autonomous learner understands what is going on in the classroom. Secondly, the learner can formulate their own learning objectives. Yet, this does not suggest a competition with the teacher; on the contrary, it would happen in collaboration with the teacher as setting a subsidiary goal to what is being taught in the class. The third characteristics is to be able to select and implement learning strategies. Next, autonomous learners are able to monitor their use of these strategies. Last but not least, these learners can self-assess and monitor their own learning (p. 330).

A similar yet more general definition was made by Lewis (2019) as autonomous learners play an active role in their learning, are able to make decisions about their learning, and finally reflect on and evaluate their learning so that it helps what the coming steps will be. About the importance of being able to reflect, Bruner also states that once the learner succeeds in developing a sense of reflective intervention, they will be able to control the knowledge; not vice versa (as cited in Little, 2007b, p. 20). Agreeing with this idea of reflective intervention, Little further names the essential characteristics of a language learner as not only being able to set the learning goals and resources, but also being able to do the metacognition and metalinguistic reflection, or in other words, the reflective intervention, in the target language (ibid, p. 23).

In their study, Borg and Al Busaidi (2012) did a questionnaire on 61 EFL teachers and tried to identify their beliefs on learner autonomy. The results indicated that most of the teachers who took the questionnaire thought that learner autonomy has a positive effect on learners' success and they reported that the teachers regarded the autonomous students as learners who are not only more motivated, committed, focused, and happier; but also benefit more from the learning opportunities outside the class and are not afraid of taking risks (p. 15).

Focusing on independence, Joshi defines an autonomous person as having the capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern their actions independently. It is also mentioned that the capacity involves two main factors: ability and willingness. There is not a dual relationship between these two factors: one person may have the ability to make independent choices but not the willingness to take action due to various reasons. Or conversely, they may be willing to give independent choices but not have the ability to do so 2011, p. 14).

Oxford (2015) distinguishes psychological perspectives from sociocultural perspectives when identifying the characteristics of autonomous learners (p. 58). The psychological facets include self-regulation, emotional intelligence, resilience, psychological engagement, self-determination, being existentially free and effective (ibid, p. 60). In terms of sociocultural perspectives, on the other hand, an autonomous learner is mediated, cognitively apprenticed, socio-culturally strategic, invested, socio-politically free and self-efficacious (ibid, p. 64).

To conclude, an autonomous learner is not a simple, clear-cut learner who attempts to take charge of their own learning in an unsystematic fashion, but a person who is well-aware of which strategies to use for their learning purposes and constantly takes reflective action to think about these strategies to revise and adapt them for the next step. However, making these kinds of definitions of the

characteristics of autonomous learners may not be enough to develop a better understanding of autonomy. Hence, in the next section, factors involved in learner autonomy will be discussed briefly.

2.2.4. Factors Involved in Learner Autonomy

Since the term was first defined, various interferences have been made to define the concept learner autonomy. As a number of disciplines including Psychology, Pedagogy, Philosophy and so on nourish the concept, different facets have been put forward by different researchers, which in return unlocked some factors that have been prominent in learner autonomy.

2.2.4.1. Beliefs and Constructs

One of the most researched topics of learner autonomy, beliefs and constructs reveal valuable insights about the topic. According to Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), a *belief* is a propositional attitude, meaning the mental state of having some attitude, stance or opinion about the potential state of affairs in which the proposition is true. Very similarly, a construct is the way people anticipate events (Smith & Erdoğan, 2008, p. 90). However, there is a difference in meaning: while a belief is a static notion, a construct is provisional and can be altered; in other words, they are open to change (ibid, p. 91). In this study, two terms will be used interchangeably.

Many pieces of researches have been conducted to find out learner beliefs and constructs. Pointing out the importance of awareness regarding the beliefs, Martinez sees increased awareness of one's own beliefs about language learning and their own understanding of learner autonomy is a prerequisite to foster learner autonomy (2008, p. 118). From another perspective, Barcelos (2001, as cited in Lamb, 2008, p. 273) points out that beliefs can only be understood in relation to a

given context and the amount the context is powerful in shaping the learners' perceptions.

A study conducted with Chinese learners of English by Liu (2011) concluded that although Chinese education culture puts the teacher as the focus of learning, there is a changing trend in terms of learners that more learners (than what is generally assumed) have a certain knowledge of autonomy, and this would indicate that these learners are not passive, and are aware that they play a crucial role and have responsibility in their own learning (p. 729). Furthermore, it is also discussed that while non-English majors are more classroom-bound, English majors perform more autonomy (p. 730).

In their study with student-teachers, Smith and Erdoğan (2008) found out that some of the participants valued the development of their *self-awareness*, some others valued producing something themselves while working collaboratively with others, and some participants stressed the importance of *making their own decisions* independently (p. 98).

Mercer (2008) summarizes the distinction of beliefs between self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-concept (p.182). Stating *self-esteem* being the broadest and most evaluative one among three, according to Harter, it refers to the overall evaluation of one's worth or value as a person (1999, as cited in Mercer, 2008). *Self-efficacy* is related to the expectancy beliefs about one's perceived capability to perform a certain task in a specific domain such as a particular type of reading activity (Bandura as cited in Mercer, 2008). It is suggested in Henri et al. that there is a positive relationship between student self-efficacy and autonomous learning, stating students with greater self-efficacy are more likely to view their own learning as being changeable (2018, p. 508). Finally, self-concept has more cognitive and

affective notions and is less context-dependent than self-efficacy (Mercer, 2008, p. 183).

2.2.4.2. Motivation and Autonomy

Autonomy and motivation are directly linked and are believed to support one another. Yet, as Ellis notes, it is not clear whether motivation produces successful learning or successful learning enhances motivation (1985, as cited in Dickinson, 1995, p. 172); studies do not seem to have reached to a consensus on which one is a primary factor for the other. Nevertheless, many researchers have been investigating the link between these two concepts; and in this section, some key points about this relation will be discussed briefly.

The theory of self-directed learning has contributed a lot in terms of the motivation in autonomous learners. According to this theory, there are three needs of human beings for self-motivation and personality integration: the need for competence, relatedness and autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 68). It is also argued that different factors affect *intrinsic motivation*, which was defined as the inherent tendency to search for novelty and challenges, to extend one's own capacities to learn and explore. Haggar et al. also defined autonomous motivation as being engaged in a behaviour because it is perceived to be consistent with intrinsic goals and sourced from the self (2014, p. 566). To find out these factors, *Cognitive Evaluation Theory* was presented as a sub-theory within self-determination theory, and studies showed that the feelings of competence will not enhance intrinsic motivation unless accompanied by a sense of autonomy (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 70).

Noels also supports this argument by stating if the learners' needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness are satisfied, they would show more intrinsic and self-determined extrinsic reasons for language learning (2009, p. 306).

She further comments on the importance of the social environment on autonomy and motivation: social context has an effect on motivational dynamics and students' internalisation of language learning is affected by different people (ibid, p. 304). From the perspective of integrative motivation, Ushioda (2006, p. 156) also mentions the social aspect of motivation and autonomy in terms of identity, by stating the political view of Benson's *political ambiguity*. Benson regards political ambiguity as the counter-position of individual capacities, responsibilities and strategies for self-direction against social constraints on language learning and use; and adapts the concept to language learning motivation in terms of individual differences (as cited in ibid). Ushioda concludes that:

> … motivation is perceived to vary in strength and type from person to person, leading to different degrees of L2 learning success. ... The deep-rooted desire to learn and use another language, find a voice, forge a plurilingual or global identity for oneself, access and participate in new and social professional communities of practice, will always be subject to local negotiations and conditions (p. 156-157).

In conclusion, motivation and autonomy are two intertwined concepts, nourishing and feeding on one another. It is pointed out in studies that especially intrinsic and integrative motivation is highly linked to autonomy to fulfil the needs of competence, relatedness and autonomy; and one cannot think it apart from its social context.

2.2.4.3. Metacognitive Strategies

In the 21st century, students do not only need to learn English which is supplied by teachers from a range of coursebooks, but also be aware of the changed circumstances in the worldwide use of English (Illés, 2012, p. 510). She illustrates this by mentioning the international contexts of use, noting the standard variety of

English may not be sufficient and suggests that teachers need to create conditions that force their learners to go beyond their comfort zone participate in interpretative procedures (ibid). Yet, as Nunan states, not every student takes a course with the aptitude of becoming autonomous (2003, as cited in Wagner, 2014, p. 131). To get the most of these interpretative procedures that happen beyond classroom walls, learners should be equipped with metacognitive strategies that they can use in their autonomous studies. Teng (2019) refers to *metacognitive knowledge* as the beliefs of a learner about themselves, and *metacognitive actions* are strategies that are used especially for achieving specified goals (p. 11). By integrating asset of learning process goals and their language goals, learners can apply metacognitive strategies to their autonomous studies (Nunan, 2003, as cited in Wagner, 2014, p. 131).

To foster autonomy in a systematic way, many approaches have been offered so that learners can develop the necessary skills and awareness for learner autonomy. Reinders (2010) groups these approaches under two headings: specialist and general approaches. Specialist approaches, as the name suggests, are deliberate programs which primarily aim to foster autonomy out of the boundaries of a classroom (p. 43). Learner Training, Strategy Instruction, Self-Access, Language Advising or Language Counselling, and Specific Tools are examples for these specialist approaches (ibid, p. 44). General approaches, on the other hand, attempt to encourage autonomy by teachers in the classroom (ibid, p. 45). Reinders lists the stages in the general approach as identifying needs, setting goals, planning learning, selecting resources, selecting learning strategies, practice, monitoring progress, and assessment and revision (ibid, p. 46).

As stated before, it is widely acknowledged that goals and autonomy are highly related. As mentioned by Klimas (2017), a number of tools may be utilized by teachers to promote learner autonomy, including self-reports and diaries,

project-based work, or goal setting logbooks. Similarly, to develop listening skills, Goh (2014) proposes different activities such as *self-directed listening guide* where learners are asked to set their goals, consciously select the strategies they will use, do pre-listening activities and evaluate their listening, *listening diaries* where learners note down what, why, who and how they listened, *process-based discussions* where learners are given a set of questions about the listening activity and then, in groups, discuss how they approached the task and their goals or if they faced any problems, and *self-report checklists* where learners are given a checklist of questions at the end of every listening lesson (p. 81-89). Likewise, Gibbs (2012) suggests a number of activities such as a WebQuest, ways to study and record of study to be used for many different skills and systems, including pronunciation and speaking (p. 33). Learners are asked to complete the sheets she provided to activate their metacognitive awareness about their studies.

To conclude, there are many similar ways of applying metacognitive strategies to the teaching of different skills in the literature, yet as long as the learners set a goal, make preparations and think about their performance through evaluation and reflection, that would serve to the purposes of metacognitive strategy use in the autonomous learning.

2.2.5. Readiness for Autonomy

As it has already been discussed previously, social context has a huge role in the motivation. Yet, many studies have shown its importance on autonomy as well, mostly due to the fact that there is a direct relationship between autonomy and motivation. As stated by Yıldırım (2008), identifying learners' readiness for autonomous learning is crucial since its practice may change according to specific cultural and educational contexts (p. 65). A study which was conducted with Lin & Reinders (2019) aimed to find out the causes of a mismatch between the curriculum

that was offered to college students by the Chinese Ministry of Education in 2004 to foster language autonomy and its application by the teachers and students. The study, which was conducted by 668 learners and 182 teachers, found out that both the teachers and the students are ready for autonomy psychologically, but not technically or behaviourally (p. 69). In another study done by Cirocki, Anam and Retnaningdyah (2019) and aimed to investigate the way Indonesian students conceptualize autonomy, the extent they were motivated to learn English, and how ready they were for autonomy, it was found out that many learners were not familiar with the concept of learner autonomy, and had low motivation for learning (p. 1).

There have been many studies that aim to find more about the readiness for autonomy from Turkey as well. In her study, Koçak (2003) looked for the learners' level of motivation, their use of metacognitive strategies, their perception of responsibility and their practice of English outside the classroom. The results from her study indicated that most of the students had high motivation and some metacognitive strategies were used by learners as they tended to spend quite little time outside the class to practice English. Most of the learners considered the teacher to be more responsible for most of the tasks yet there was not a significant difference in terms of the perception of responsibility. Another study, which was conducted by Yıldırım (2008) with one hundred and three Turkish university students, aimed to identify learners' perceptions of teacher and learner responsibilities, their opinions about their abilities to act autonomously, and the frequency of autonomous language learning activities they employ. It was found out that the participants seemed to be ready to take more responsibility in terms of many areas of the language learning process (ibid).

Nasöz (2015) also looked for the readiness of Turkish EFL learners for autonomy at the tertiary level. In her study, she also researched the attitudes of the

learners towards autonomy. She concluded that the data suggested there was a statistically significant difference between the attitudes of infrequent users and regular users of self-access centres, suggesting an interconnection between the two.

Karabıyık (2008) looked into the relationship between the learners' readiness for autonomy and their culture of learning in terms of their predetermined learning behaviours and educational backgrounds and experiences. As a result of her study, she found out that national and ethnic definitions of culture may not be enough to explain the differences in learners' autonomous behaviours and learners' culture of learning and their previous experiences should be taken into account to have a better understanding of promoting learner autonomy.

To conclude, these studies reveal how the term, readiness for autonomy, is context-sensitive. In order to have a better understanding of the context of this study, certain aspects of monolingual classes will be presented in the following section.

2.3. MONOLINGUAL CLASSES

2.3.1. Use of Mother Tongue

Many English classes in the world are comprised of either speakers who come from different parts of the world and have different mother tongues or speakers who share a common language to communicate (in) and beyond the classroom. While the former classes are known as *multilingual classes,* the latter is referred to as *monolingual classes.* In multilingual classes, since students speak different mother tongues, they need to use English for all communication purposes (i.e., issuing instructions, clarifying the meaning of unknown lexical items, setting of communicative tasks, etc.) (Senior, 2008). However, in monolingual classes, unlike their multilingual equivalents, learners can rely on one shared language for all kinds of communication purposes, including socializing, explaining the

instructions or even doing the course-related tasks. In other words, they do not need English only to interact or solve any conflict. Although this situation has its own advantages depending on the context, it also creates some constraints as English classrooms are special due to their nature: they use the language to teach the language (Cook, 1996, p.121). That is, English is both the medium and the target of English classes.

This situation has caused a kind of paradox and led to two different approaches to L1 use in English classrooms: i) to use it as the language of instruction, or ii) to banish it completely. People who argue the former think that by the use of L1, learners are able to express their thoughts or themselves with more ease. The function of L1 use is also divided into two as "core functions" which are mainly about the language-related functions such as explaining grammar and vocabulary; and "social functions" which focus mainly on classroom management (giving instructions, for instance) and other socializing functions (i.e. building good rapport) (Hall & Cook, 2013). Some researchers even claim that restricting L1 would lead to a decrease in learner motivation and confidence (Eldridge, 1996). However, the advocates of the latter think that by removing the use of L1, the learners will have to rely on English more to conduct any activity in the lesson, which will eventually fend off the tendency to translate by being exposed to the language in the maximum amount possible.

Different from the perspectives mentioned above, some other researchers suggest a moderate use of L1 provided that English is used as much as possible (Atkinson, 1993, p. 47). Some researchers propose ways to use L1 as a resource (Deller, 2003) for a number of reasons, among many which include comparing and contrasting the differences to raise awareness, to enhance learner involvement, to give feedback or to encourage spontaneity.

2.3.2. Cultural Aspects

Since the learners generally share the same culture, monolingual classes have some advantages in terms of the teacher and the learning environment. No matter if it is in an English-speaking country or not, once the class is monolingual, the teacher (unless they share the same background with the learners) could do a research about the culture and understand the learners' background. For instance, in Ramanathan and Atkinson's study, it is pointed out that learners are expected to share their voices in their writings in western cultures; however, this may pose problems for L2 writers who come from more collectivist or interdependently oriented cultures (as cited in Hyland, 2003, p. 39). On the other hand, it is also stated by some researchers that insisting on getting private opinions in Japanese public classes would similarly be problematic as the learners tend to be put on the spot. Hence, when the teacher asks questions like "What do you think of..?", he/she may encounter a long silence and may fail to regard this as an inability to speak in L2 (Swan and Smith, 2001, p. 309). Another advantage of teaching to monolingual classes would be in terms of the material adaptation. Since the learners share the same background, the teacher would have a clearer idea about the learners' favourite and less favourite topics, or the learning strategies (as students may have similar learning strategies in shared cultures (Atkinson, 1993)). Once the teacher identifies these, they may find it easier to adapt the material and their teaching for maximum efficiency.

About the inseparability of language and culture, Brown states that language and culture are interwoven in such a way that one cannot separate one from another without losing the significance of either language or culture (as cited in Jiang, 2000). That is why teaching to monolingual classes can also be tricky as there are also some restraints especially related to the prohibition of L1 use. There is a chance

that learners may regard this as a disapproving act against their cultural identity and be offended. A study conducted by Brooks-Lewis (2009) shows that once L1 is included in the learning process, the students would have more positive attitudes towards learning English. Similarly, Pinner (2010) concludes that once the learners are allowed to use L1 when necessary, they may feel less resistant towards the target language. Therefore, it is very important to value the learners' cultures and language (Dumitraskovic, 2014); and one of the most controllable variables in this is the use of L1 in the classroom.

2.3.3. Motivation in Monolingual Contexts

According to Dörnyei (1998), motivation in SLA is a process that includes some sub-phases for learners, such as deciding to learn a language, taking action about it, and reflecting and reacting according to their performance.

A learner's motivation to learn a language could be influenced by his/her own ethnic identity, the way they identify themselves with the L2 community and the perceived ethnolinguistic vitality of the L2 speaker group (Lamb, 2011). Similarly, a student's motivation can be related to the 'usefulness' of the target language or to a desire to be involved with the culture of the target language. These kinds of motivation are known as instrumental and integrative motivation, respectively (McDonough, 2007). Another dichotomy in terms of motivation lies between the 'intrinsic' and 'extrinsic' motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for the sake of the joy, pleasure and satisfaction to be gained from it (Levesque et al., 2010). On the other hand, extrinsically motivated individuals engage in target activities since reaching the goal contributes to attaining certain incentives (Hoffman, 2015).

Regardless of the source or drive of motivation, most students in monolingual contexts (especially where English is taught as a foreign language)

have very little chance to use their language outside the classroom. Hence, it is very important for the teachers to create an 'English language environment'. For that reason, it is the teachers' job to ensure learners are encouraged to use English as much as they can, without demotivating them. However, while trying to motivate the learners to participate in an English language class, the teacher should be aware of certain problems. When both the teacher and the learners share the same L1, unintentionally, the teacher may include L1 or may leave room for code-switching beyond the teaching aims. Though L1 use has already been discussed above, the problem stated here may lead to a decrease in the time spent speaking English in the class, and there may be even incidents where the learners overuse L1 even for the simple tasks which they can easily do in English.

2.4. COURSE DESIGN

Any course design requires detailed planning and putting each component of course design carefully together. According to Graves (2000), designing a course is a process which has many elements such as analysing the needs, formulating goals and objectives, developing materials, designing an assessment plan, organizing the course and conceptualizing content and revising your needs accordingly. In this section, some ideas and approaches related to the course design will be briefly revised.

2.4.1. Needs Analysis

A needs analysis is the very first step in designing a course since it is basically finding out what the students already know and can do and what they need to do, and putting these together to bridge the gap (Graves, 1996).

Subjective and objective needs provide insight into students' attitudes and backgrounds (Graves, 1996), and this is very helpful for identifying the learner profile. Especially when designing courses for specific purposes, Nunan (1988)

emphasizes the importance of needs analysis since the information gained from the learners would decide the content and the activities. Another distinction about the topic was made by Nation & Macalister (2010) as three focuses of needs analysis, namely, necessities, lacks and wants. *Necessities* refer to the language-related necessities that should be covered in the course. It is also referred as the required knowledge. If the target task is to write an argumentative essay, the vocabulary, collocations and chunks related to that genre of essay could be considered under necessities, for instance. Relatedly, the term *lacks* mean what the students lack for the course to be fully covered. By looking at some of the learners' previous tasks on the target task, the teachers would gain valuable insight in terms of grammar, vocabulary use and discourse. Lastly, *wants* are the learners' subjective wishes on what to learn. Learners have their own beliefs about what is useful for them (ibid) and finding out their wants is important since it gives a chance for the course developer to see if their wants and the developer's wants correspond to one another. Yet, it should be kept in mind that the learners' wants may not be clear and may always be changing. Hence, they should be looked upon from a variety of perspectives (ibid).

Another related term about needs analysis is identifying the present situation and the target situation (Hyland, 2003). *Present Situation Analysis (PSA)* refers to the current language abilities and background information of the learners. It also covers learners' self-perceived needs; hence PSA could include both objective and subjective data. On the other hand, *Target Situation Analysis (TSA)* is about the learners' future roles and linguistic skills while performing the target tasks competently. It is mainly related to objective and product-oriented data. While the former is about the learners' lacks and wishes, the latter is about the necessities.

Needs analysis is a very crucial step for course design. While explaining the role of needs assessment, Graves (2000) states:

> It [Needs analysis] is based on the belief that learning is not simply a matter of learners absorbing pre-selected knowledge the teacher gives them, but is a process in which learners – and others – can and should participate. It assumes that needs are multi-faceted and changeable. When needs assessment is used as an ongoing part of teaching, it helps the learners to reflect on their learning, to identify their needs and to gain a sense of ownership and control of their learning. (p. 98)

Since learning itself is an ever-developing phenomenon, needs analysis is also considered as an ongoing process that should be done continually (Graves, 1996; Woodward, 2001).

All in all, needs analysis can be said to be the very first point of developing a course for a group of learners. Hence, it is very important to get related and valuable information from the students through well-designed and/adapted needs analysis tools.

2.4.2. Syllabus Design

A course may include various topics and language content among many; yet it would be frivolously convoluted to attempt to teach everything in an unplanned order. Hence, in order to give the content to be taught in a principled and efficient way, syllabi are used. By definition, a syllabus is a plan showing the subjects or books to be studied in a particular course, especially a course that leads to an exam (Cambridge Dictionary, n. d.). Similarly, Yalden considers the syllabus as a tool that makes what will be taught explicitly (1987). According to Nunan, syllabi are records of what really happens in the classroom level as teachers and learners apply a given curriculum to their own situation (1988). Taking all these into account, a syllabus is important for *pragmatic efficiency* (economy in terms of time and

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money) and *pedagogical efficiency* (economy in learning management) (Yalden, 1984).

Unlike other classes, a language class where the means and the target is the language is like a cauldron; and both the teacher's and the learners' experiences interact with the syllabus (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). However, language learning is not a classroom-only experience; thus, the language content and the learning experiences in a syllabus should match the needs of learners beyond the classroom (Nunan, 1999). In order to achieve this, *goals* and *objectives* deriving from the priorities which the needs analysis brings into the light should be identified. Goals are the long-term purposes of the courses and they lead to measurable and achievable objectives (Graves, 1996). She exemplifies this by likening the goals to a destination and objectives to various points to be passed by in order to arrive at the destination.

It is important to set goals and objectives as they provide guidance and a coherent framework for the teacher to plan their course (ibid). Stern distinguishes the goals in four types: *proficiency* goals (related to general competency, four skills, and specific language behaviours), *cognitive* goals (related to mastery of linguistic and cultural knowledge), *affective* goals (related to positive attitudes and feelings towards language) and *transfer* goals (related to the way transferring the language learning skills to future learning challenges) (as cited in Graves, 1996, p. 17).

Yalden (1984) points out that the principles of a syllabus should answer how language is learned and used. Thus, apart from goals and objectives, other components of a syllabus include the *content, staging, materials,* and *timing*. Since it is impossible to cover everything in a given context, course designers should bear in mind to be selective in terms of the content. Staging is the order in which the content is presented. When the syllabus is grammatical, the content (thus the

staging) is designed and presented in terms of the grammar points, accompanied by the materials selected and/or adapted in a similar fashion. The designer then chooses whether to use authentic materials (materials which are not designed for teaching purposes) or simplified texts. Depending on the level of the learners, authentic materials can be used with simpler tasks (Motteram, 2011); or simplified texts can be used with more complex tasks. Finally, timing is decided by taking the pedagogical and pragmatic efficiency into account.

In terms of the types of syllabi, Dick (2005) mentions about two broad categories: product-oriented syllabi, and process-oriented syllabi. While the former focuses on the end-product, namely, what the learners will know at the end of the instruction; and includes a selection of items to be learnt by the student; the latter is, as the name suggests, mainly about the pedagogic process of how the outcomes are achieved (ibid). Process-oriented syllabi are also learner-centred as they pose a strong emphasis on the training of the learners, different learning styles of the students. They also spare space for aims which intend to make learners independent. In addition to the syllabi types, various frameworks which have different foci have been offered and used around the world. A brief summary of them as mentioned by Richards (2001) is given in Table-1 below:

Table 1.
Syllabuses Types

Framework/Syllabus	Focuses on/is organized around
Grammatical / Structural	Grammar
Lexical	Vocabulary
Functional	Communicative functions
Situational	Situational settings
Topical/ Content-based	Themes/ topics/ contents
Competency-based	Competencies in relation to specific situations
Skills	Language skills
Task-based	Real-life/ pedagogical tasks
Text-based	Texts and extended discourse
Integrated	Primary and secondary foci

2.4.3. Materials

Tomlinson states that rich, meaningful and comprehensible input should be given to students (n. d.). However, many course books which are designed for international uses are edited for multilingual classes and hence look for ways to get students to learn English through many common themes and topics. Although it may be a solid solution for multilingual classes, it may pose certain problems in monolingual classes. In other words, not all students in monolingual classes would know the themes/topics as well as it is expected by the coursebook authors and editors. At times, students cannot give in-depth or varied answers for some questions, and this would lead to mundaneness in most classes.

It is often a case that coursebooks that are used in classes do not reflect the actual language use. Cunningsworth (1995, p. 126) points out that although the course books may not use the kind of natural conversation, they should equip learners to understand a wider range of ways (such as voice fillers, pauses, alternative structures, etc.), to express a language function. Similarly, Tomlinson (n. d.) also states that materials in language teaching should include principled applications of theories related to language acquisition and development, teaching

principles, how the target language is used and the results of systemic observation and materials evaluation.

Tomlinson claims that learners at all levels should get the chance to get exposed to authentic use of English through written and spoken texts to engage the learners cognitively and affectively (2008). He further points out that as the learners notice the features of the authentic use of language that they are exposed to, it would facilitate and accelerate language acquisition (ibid). To give real-life examples and uses, the teachers would choose to bring in authentic materials, which are, by definition, materials that not designed for classroom use but can be used in the classroom for teaching purposes, to classrooms (Ianiro, 2007).

In terms of the topics/themes that are issued in the coursebooks, there are opposing views concerning the users of them. MacKey finds out that some teachers believe in the importance of the international topics; however, in another study by Wolf, it was found out that Japanese EFL students preferred local topics instead of international ones (as cited in Siegel, 2014). In a case study described by Bell & Gower (2011), a set of principles were identified while designing a coursebook. One of the principles was 'engaging content', which basically means bringing interesting texts of neutral or British context to get learners to make cultural and personal comparisons. They also stated that they included many texts from different genres and topics to get learners' interest. Humanizing the coursebooks could be another option to adapt textbooks to the learners' own contexts. To achieve this, Tomlinson (2013) mentions some points to consider, including using a multidimensional approach, talking to learners, including awareness activities, localizing coursebooks, etc.

2.4.4. Assessment and Evaluation

Murphy (2010) states that evaluation, which should be context-specific, is used for determining the extent in which a course is worth-wile, and for helping the decision-making processes by taking the systematically gathered and analysed data into account and reporting to the stakeholders. In this section, some key principles regarding evaluation, assessment and testing will be mentioned briefly.

Depending on its purposes, an assessment/evaluation can be *formative*, *summative* or *illuminative.* According to Nunan (1999), formative assessment refers to the things that are done to find out what is (or isn't) working well during the course. On the other hand, summative assessment's function is more related to the assessment which is done at the end of the course to analyse the data received from the formative assessment. Lastly, illuminative assessment is used to find out how different aspects of a program work (Richards, 2001). Correspondingly, two other terms, *formal assessment* and *informal assessment* can be done to collect data. As the name suggests, formal assessment uses formal, structured tools to score learners' performance; meanwhile, informal assessment includes observing learners' performance during the learning process and make decisions using the data gathered (Formal Assessment, n.d.).

Graves points out that assessment has three roles: assessing needs, assessing learners' learning and evaluating the course (2000). Assessing the needs is not a one-time-only process and is better to be done continually. Assessing learners' needs is related to what students have learnt with respect to what they have been learning in the course (ibid). To measure this, various testing procedures can be applied. According to Hughes, purposes of testing includes measuring proficiency, diagnosing strengths and weaknesses, placing a group of students, and assessing students' achievement (as cited in Graves, 1996). To achieve any of the purposes

mentioned above, various types of testing are used. *Direct testing*, for instance, requires the candidate to perform the skill that is intended to measure; and *indirect testing* addresses the abilities/subskills that underlie the skills (Hughes, 1989). To exemplify, writing a complaint letter can be regarded as direct testing since it assesses the skill of writing through a task. However, among a set of underlined words in a given sentence, getting learners to find out the incorrect one is an example of indirect testing. Related to the types of testing, two other concepts, *discrete-point* and *integrative testing* are to be mentioned. While the former means testing one element at a time and is related to indirect testing, the latter uses various language elements to complete a task and is more related to direct testing (ibid).

No matter what assessment tool is being used, *reliability* and *validity* of a test should be taken into account. In its basic sense, a test is reliable if the learners get a similar score when they take the same exam in two different sessions (Hughes, 1989). The reason behind this is when the learners are given the same test in two different points in time, most probably, they will not get exactly the same scores. The variations could be systematic (students' progress); and some other could be errors. Reliability of a test measures these systematic changes in a student's performance (Alderson et al., 1995). If the proportion of the systematic variation is higher, the test is said to be more reliable (ibid). Next in order, a test is considered valid if it measures what it intends to measure. Alderson et al. mention eight different types of validity yet most relevant ones are mentioned briefly. *Content validity* basically asks the question of whether the test contains a representative sample of the language skill. *Construct validity* forms a (meaningful) relationship with the test scores. It attempts to find an answer to the question of what the scores tell. *Response validity* is more related to the processes the learners are going through while answering the test (Alderson et al. op cit). A test cannot be valid if it is not

reliable; and this situation may pose a conundrum for language teachers as validity may be reduced in expanse for the reliability of the tests. In other words, tests that have multiple choice questions may be reliable; however, they may not be considered valid since they don't measure real-life performance.

2.5. CONCLUSION

This chapter gives a summary of the relevant literature on learner autonomy and course design. Since "autonomy" is a very broad concept and has roots in different disciplines, including Philosophy, Education and Psychology, lots of revisions have been made into its definition and traits of autonomous learners. Also, factors which affect autonomy are also briefly presented before conceptualizing the context of monolingual classes, where motivation, use of L1 and cultural aspects play an essential role. Finally, in the last section of the chapter, elements of course design are briefly mentioned by focusing on needs analysis, syllabus design, assessment and evaluation and materials. In the next chapter, methodology used in the study is presented.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In this study, it is aimed to find out the extent the learners in a monolingual tertiary context are ready for the autonomous learning, and design and propose a course plan to foster it. For these purposes, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What kind of learning cultures do the students in a monolingual context have?

2. Do the learning cultures of the students differ according to the type of high school from which they graduated?

3. How ready are the learners in a monolingual university context for learner autonomy?

a. What perceptions do the learners have about themselves and their teachers in terms of responsibility?

b. How do learners perceive themselves in decision making?

c. How motivated do the learners see themselves?

d. What kind of autonomous learning activities are the learners involved with both inside and outside the classroom?

e. What is the frequency of using metacognitive strategies in learning English by these learners?

4. Do the learners' perceptions regarding the teacher and student responsibilities, decision-making abilities, autonomous engagements, levels of motivation and metacognitive strategy use differ in accordance with (a) the type of high school from which they graduated and (b) their English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between learning cultures of the students' and their readiness for learner autonomy in a monolingual context?

This chapter will present the methodology followed in four sections before making final remarks. In the first section, information about the participants will be presented; in the second section instruments which were used for readiness and course design will be described; in the third section, the procedure will be explained briefly; and finally, in the fourth section, data analysis procedure will be presented.

3.2. PARTICIPANTS and RESEARCH SETTING

For the readiness questionnaire, 146 students from Ufuk University Preparatory School voluntarily participated in the study. All the students who are to study Psychology and Law at this university sat an English Proficiency Exam in September, and those who failed took a placement exam before they were placed to a class. According to the results of the placement test, the proficiency level of each student differed as A2 or B1. Table 2 below shows the characteristics of the sample:

Table 2.
Characteristics of the Participants

	Groups	N	%
Gender	Female	107	73.3
	Male	39	26.7
Proficiency Level	A2	81	55.5
	B1	65	44.5
High School Type	Basic high school	8	5.5
	Vocational high school	5	3.4
	Anatolian high school	54	37
	Private high school	66	45.2
	Other	13	8.9
Department at	Law	86	58.9
University	Psychology	60	41.1

In the questionnaire, the high schools the students attended were comprised of both state schools and private schools. State schools are listed as basic high schools, technical/vocational high schools or Anatolian high schools. Depending on the departments (Maths-Science, Turkish-Maths, Turkish-Social Sciences, etc.) students choose, the number of hours they have English lessons differ between 2 hours a week to 10 hours a week at Anatolian high schools. This number is even less for basic high schools and technical/vocational schools (0-4 hours a week). Similarly, private schools offer 4-6 hours of English a week, depending on the students' departments.

For the course design, a number of tools for Needs Analysis and Present Situation Analysis were conducted with a total of 37 students whose ages varied between 18 to 22 at Ufuk University Preparatory School. These students were chosen from the classes which serve as the median of all classes. In other words, the tools were conducted in the class sections 4 and 5 among nine classes. The proficiency level of these students was A2, but they were about to be B1. If they are successful at the proficiency exam in June, 31 of them will study Law; and seven of them will study Psychology in the coming academic year. In addition to this, their history with English varied between 1 year to 10 years, clustered around 7 years.

As mentioned above, the participants who took part in this study are all students at Ufuk University Preparatory School. The program consists of nine classes five of which offer English lessons for 25 hours a week. Though the students are placed in the classes in accordance with their scores on the Placement test, the classes are not distinguished from each other in terms of their level. In other words, the students do not transfer from one level (and/or class) to another at the end of a span. The remaining four classes meet for 23 hours a week. The students are placed

in these classes after a placement test held in September 2019, and the former group is referred as Group A, and they started the academic year with a few weeks of preparation booklet before they start studying the Empower Elementary coursebook by Cambridge University Press. On the other hand, the other 4 classes, Group B, directly started the term with aforementioned book. Apart from this book serving as the main material for the main courses, the classes also have separate Reading and Writing courses, and Listening and Speaking courses where they focus on certain reading genres and well-organized paragraphs and some paragraph types; and practice micro-skills for listening and develop presentation skills in the Listening and Speaking lessons. There are generally 20 students at maximum in each class, and at most of these classes, the homogeneity of the level of students are provided with the placement test. Yet, it is difficult to assume homogeneity in every class since some students missed the test and placed in the lower sections although their actual competence and performance was higher. The Preparatory School does not offer a Proficiency at the end of the first semester; hence these students only have two chances to take the exam (one in June, and another in September, the following year) or else they repeat the whole year.

3.3. RESEARCH DESIGN and INSTRUMENTS

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of research were used in this study. *Quantitative research methods* refer to measuring variables using a numerical system, analysing these measurements using any of a variety of statistical models and reporting relationships and associations and associations among the studied variables (Lucas-Alfieri, 2015, p.20). As for the sample size in the questionnaire, the number of participants who took part in this study is considered to sustain the normality. According to Central Limit Theorem, normality would be assumed with any participant number above 30 (Field, 2009, p. 42). In other words,

more than 30 participants in a study is considered to sustain a normal distribution, representing the population in a normal way. Different from the quantitative research, qualitative research, on the other hand, is non-numerical and generally provides direct information about people's beliefs, attitudes, experiences, behaviour and interactions (Pathak, Jena & Kalra, 2013).

As for the instruments used in this study, to evaluate readiness, a questionnaire designed and/or adopted by Karabıyık (2008) was used in this study. All the items in the questionnaire were in Turkish in case the learners would find it difficult to understand them. The questionnaire consisted of three sections (please see Appendix A for the questionnaire in Turkish; for the English questionnaire, please see Karabıyık, 2008). In this section, the aim of the sections of the questionnaire will be briefly mentioned.

The first part of the questionnaire is the Multiple-Choice Questions, where it is aimed to find out about the demographic information about the participants, such as age, gender, proficiency level, hometown, parent education and high school type. Any other information such as the names of the participants were excluded on purpose to assure confidentiality.

The second part of the questionnaire was about the culture of learning, and in order to find out about what kind of learning contexts the participants are coming from, the questionnaire developed by Karabıyık (2008) was used. The questionnaire consisted of 13 questions. In the first question, the students were asked to rate the general role of their teachers from their high school on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' representing *sole authority*, and '5' representing *facilitator*. The second question asked to rate their own role as a student at high school on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *teacher dependent*, and '5' representing *autonomous*. In order to prevent any misunderstanding, definitions of

facilitator and *autonomous* were given in the questionnaire. Questions from 3 to 13 aimed to investigate the frequency the participants were encouraged to take responsibilities on a four-point Likert scale from *never* to *often*.

In the third part of the questionnaire, which was adapted by Karabıyık (2008), the students were addressed several questions under five sections which aim to identify the perceptions of learners about themselves and their teachers' regarding their responsibilities, decision-making abilities, motivation level and their engagement in autonomous activities both inside and outside the class. The learners were expected to answer questions about their perceptions of metacognitive strategy use in the fifth part of the questionnaire. In the first section of the third part, responsibilities, the participants were addressed 13 questions on a 5-point Likert scale '1' representing *teacher's responsibility completely*, and '5' representing *completely mine (the student's responsibility)*. In the second part of the third section, abilities, the learners were asked 10 questions to explore their decision-making abilities regarding the responsibilities mentioned in the first part of the section on a 5-point Likert scale, '1' representing *very bad*, and '5' representing *very good*. The third section of the third part aimed to shed light on learners' perceptions about their motivation level on a 5-point Likert scale '1' representing *not motivated at all*, and '5' representing *highly motivated*. The fourth section of the third part, activities, consisted of 20 questions exploring various autonomous learning activities inside and outside the class on a 4-point Likert scale that ranges from '1' meaning *never*, and '5' meaning *often.* The final part of the questionnaire addressed 8 questions which aimed to delve into the frequency of metacognitive strategies that are used by learners on a 5-point Likert scale '1' representing *never or almost never true of me*, and '5' representing *always or almost always true of me.*

For the course design, a set of tools was used to investigate the needs, lacks and wants of the learners. To begin with, a needs analysis tool designed by the researcher was administered in Turkish to find out about the present situation analysis. In the tool, a total of 10 questions were addressed to learners to explore their purposes of learning English, their perceptions of the systems/skills in English they need to improve, their perceptions of importance regarding the purposes of reading, writing, speaking, or listening, their perceptions regarding the methodology that is effective in learning English, the topics of interest, and their feedback preferences for writing and speaking. In addition to this tool, a sentence completion task was administered, asking learners to express how and what they felt about learning English (see Appendix B for the tool in Turkish and English).

To identify their needs, a diagnostic test, a reading task and a dictogloss activity were administered. The diagnostic test included 50 questions on grammar and vocabulary. Additionally, a reading text was selected, and some questions were written to identify learners' comprehension of genre, audience and purpose of the text (see Appendix C). The final step of present situation analysis included a dictogloss task (see Appendix D) which was administered to the learners so that their language shortcomings would be exposed and can be used to diagnose their present language understanding (Wajnryb, 1995).

3.4. PROCEDURE

Once the procedural permissions were granted, the readiness questionnaire was administered to 146 students at 9 classes at Ufuk University Preparatory School in January 2020. For the needs analysis tools of the course design, a total of six sessions at two different classes (3 sessions for each class) were spared for the administration of the study. In the first session in each class, the needs analysis tool and sentence completion tasks were administered. The second sessions were

devoted to the diagnostic test, and lastly, in the final sessions, the reading texts and the dictogloss tasks were conducted.

3.5. DATA ANALYSIS

The data obtained from the readiness questionnaire was analysed quantitatively using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to calculate descriptive and inferential statistics. Research questions 1 and 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d, and 3e were analysed through descriptive statistics, calculating frequencies and percentages, means and standard deviations for the items. In addition to the descriptive analysis, metacognitive strategy use was also investigated through Oxford's Key to SILL (Oxford, 1990). Also, a one-way ANOVA was used to calculate the differences in participants' culture of learning scores based on the type of high school they attended to (the 2nd research question) with post-hoc comparisons to investigate the direction of any differences. Similarly, as the first part of the 4th research question, to investigate whether high school type has an effect on learners' readiness, for responsibilities, decision making, activities and metacognitive strategy use, a one-way ANOVA was used and the direction of differences were analysed through post-hoc comparisons. However, to find out whether there is an effect of proficiency level on learners' readiness, as asked by the same research question, an independent t-test was done for the same sections of the questionnaire (responsibilities, decision making, autonomous activities inside and outside class and metacognitive strategy use). Different from the other sections of the readiness questionnaire, for the motivation part, chi-square tests were done to investigate whether the type of high school and proficiency level has an effect on learners' motivation. Finally, correlations were done separately between the components of learner autonomy readiness and participants' culture of learning scores; and between the overall learner autonomy readiness and participants'

culture of learning scores to investigate the relationship between the readiness for learner autonomy and culture of learning. For the purpose of this last analysis; namely, correlations, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used.

To analyse the needs and the present situation, a descriptive analysis was done on the needs analysis tool, diagnostic exam and the reading text. For the sentence completion task of the NA tool, the qualitative data analysis process proposed by Creswell (2012, p.237) was used. According to this procedure, once the data is collected and transcribed, the researcher reads it to get a general overview of the content. Then they start coding and separate the coded material as the 'themes' and 'descriptions' to be used in the report (ibid). As for the dictogloss task, it was analysed using the institution's rubric by two teachers (one of whom is the researcher) so that it would shed light on the writing performance of learners while giving diagnostic insight on their language use and sustaining inter-rater reliability.

3.6. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, methodology regarding this study was described by giving information on the participants who took part in the readiness questionnaire and the needs analysis tools for the course design, instruments used in the readiness questionnaire and the needs analysis tools, the procedure and the data analysis. A total of 146 students from Ufuk University Preparatory School participated in the readiness questionnaire, and 37 of them were also invited to take part in the needs analysis procedures for the course design. Data obtained from the questionnaires and needs analysis tools were analysed quantitatively. In the next chapter, the results will be explained in detail.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This study aims to find out the language learners' readiness for autonomy at a monolingual preparatory school and design a course to foster it. The research questions addressed in this study are listed below:

1. What kind of learning cultures do the students in a monolingual context have?

2. Do the learning cultures of the students differ according to the type of high school from which they graduated?

3. How ready are the learners in a monolingual university context for learner autonomy?

a. What perceptions do the learners have about themselves and their teachers in terms of responsibility?

b. How do learners perceive themselves in decision making?

c. How motivated do the learners see themselves?

d. What kind of autonomous learning activities are the learners involved with both inside and outside the classroom?

e. What is the frequency of using metacognitive strategies in learning English by these learners?

4. Do the learners' perceptions regarding the teacher and student responsibilities, decision-making abilities, autonomous engagements, levels of motivation and metacognitive strategy use differ in accordance with (a) the type of high school from which they graduated and (b) their English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between learning cultures of the students' and their readiness for learner autonomy in a monolingual context?

One hundred and forty-six preparatory school students studying at Ufuk University (Ankara) participated in the questionnaire, and 40 among them also took part in the needs and present situation analysis tools. The data gathered in the first part of the study, the readiness questionnaire (see Appendix A), were analysed quantitatively. For the components of readiness autonomy and culture of learning, frequencies, percentages, mean scores and standard deviations were calculated separately. In addition to this, to investigate the effect of high school type and proficiency level on learners' readiness, one-way ANOVA (with post hoc tests to compare the factors) tests and independent t-tests, respectively, were computed separately for the components of the learner autonomy questionnaire (namely, responsibilities, decision-making, activities and strategies). Additionally, to find out the same effects on learners' motivation, chi-square tests were done. Finally, the correlations between the culture of learning and the learner autonomy scores were done both separately and as a total to see if there are any significant relationship between them.

In the second part of the study, a set of needs and present situation analysis tools were conducted to identify the needs, wants and lacks of the learners so that a course that is tailor-cut for the students in this context could be designed.

In this chapter, the analysis of both the questionnaire and the needs analysis tools will be presented. In the first five sections, the analysis of the questions in the questionnaire is introduced. This first part focuses on the participants' culture of learning, and the second part aims to analyse the effect of high school on the culture of learning. The third part concentrates on the components of learners' readiness, and the fourth part looks for the effect of high school type and proficiency level on learners' readiness. Lastly, the fifth part shows the correlations between learners' readiness and culture of learning.

4.2. CULTURE OF LEARNING AND READINESS FOR AUTONOMY

4.2.1. The Culture of Learning of the Participants

In this study, the first part of the tool aimed to find out the demographic background of the participants. In the second part, the participants were asked 13 questions to find out about their culture of learning. The first question aimed to identify the participants' perceptions related to their teachers' roles in high school. The respondents were asked to rate their teachers' roles on a five-point Likert scale where '1' represents *only authority* and '5' represents *facilitator*. In the second question, participants were asked to rate their roles as an autonomous learner at high school on a five-point Likert scale, '1' representing *teacher dependent* and '5' representing *autonomous*. Items 3-13 aimed to investigate the responsibilities the participants were given in high school by inquiring how frequent the learners were engaged with certain activities on a four-point Likert scale where '1' refers to *never* and '4' refers to *often*.

For data analysis, the total culture of learning score of participants was calculated by combining their self-ranking of their own, their teachers' role and their self-reporting of the activities they were engaged with as a learner at high school. The overall score of this section of the questionnaire was 2.68, with a standard deviation of .996.

For questions 1 and 2, the mean scores and standard deviation values were calculated. The mean score for the first question was 3.29 with a standard deviation of 1.01, and for the second question they were calculated as 3.56 and 1.003, respectively, indicating the participants abstained from choosing the extremes both for their roles as learners and their teachers'. The results show both scores fall closer to *facilitator* and *autonomous* for their teacher's role and their own role, respectively.

This was followed by an estimation of frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation values for each item for the rest of the culture of learning questionnaires. For the items 3-13, participants' combined mean score was also computed. The results showed that the mean score was 2.80 with a standard deviation of 1.90. This indicates that most of the participants were *sometimes* given responsibility for their learning at high school.

When the items in this section were analysed item by item, the percentages and frequencies (along with mean scores and standard deviations) are shown in Table 3. As given in the table, the only significant data was received for item 10. Most answers for this question slightly fall in the *often* category, meaning almost 44% of the participants were often asked to set a learning goal when they were high school students. The items which attained the highest mean scores were participating in group-work activities (item 3), and choosing peers (item 6), meaning these activities were *sometimes* carried out by participants with mean scores of 2.92 and 2.90, respectively.

The items which attained the lowest mean scores were evaluating their peers' studies (item 5), teachers asking them to choose materials (item 9) and deciding on what to learn in the next lesson (item 12) with mean scores of 2.25, 2.24 and 2.23, respectively. The answers of the respondents for these questions fall for the *rarely* category. The item which attained the lowest score was item 13 (with a mean of 1.84), meaning slightly more than half of the participants were *never* asked to keep a portfolio in their high school studies.

Items	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often		Mean	Std. Dev.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
3. How frequently did you participate in group-work activities?	15	10.3	32	21.9	56	38.4	43	29.5	**2.92**	.962
4. How often were you asked to evalaute your studies?	24	16.4	30	20.5	60	41.1	32	21.9	2.68	.995
5. How often did evaluate your peers' studies?	38	26.0	49	33.6	45	30.8	14	9.6	**2.25**	.965
6. How often were you allowed to choose your peers?	19	13.0	21	14.4	65	44.5	41	28.1	**2.90**	.971
7. How often did you participate in projects?	16	11.0	40	27.4	54	37.0	36	24.7	2.78	.958
8. How often did your teachers ask you to choose the activities?	29	19.9	51	34.9	44	30.1	22	15.1	2.41	.987
9. How often did your teachers ask you to choose the materials?	37	25.3	56	38.4	35	24.0	18	12.3	**2.24**	.985
10. How often were you asked to set a learning goal?	18	12.3	24	16.4	40	27.4	64	43.8	**3.05**	1.049
11. How often were you asked to evaluate your courses?	23	15.8	35	24.0	43	29.5	45	30.8	2.78	1.067
12. How often were you allowed to decide on what to learn in the next lesson?	44	30.1	46	31.5	35	24	21	14.4	**2.23**	1.036
13. How often were you asked to keep a portfolio?	76	52.1	34	23.3	20	13.7	16	11.0	**1.84**	1.037

4.2.2. Culture of Learning and the Type of High School

To investigate the relationship between the culture of learning and the type of high school, a one-way ANOVA test was done to see if the high school type had an effect on the culture of learning. The type of high school, which was the independent variable, had five dimensions: basic high school, vocational high school, Anatolian high school, private high school and other. The mean scores of the participants who graduated from each type of high school are given in Table 4:

Table. 4
Descriptive Statistics for Culture of Learning and High School Types

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error
Basic High School	8	2.25	.687	.243
Vocational High School	5	2.46	.590	.264
Anatolian High School	54	2.56	.505	.068
Private High School	66	2.86	.572	.070
Other	13	2.65	.675	.187
Total	146	2.68	.585	.048

Once it was ensured that the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution (D(146)=.98, p>.05), a one-way ANOVA test was done, and it was seen that there was a significant effect of high school type on the culture of learning, F(4,141)=3.66, p<.05. To contrast the high school types, a post-hoc Tukey test revealed that there is a significant difference between the basic high schools and private high schools (p<.05) (please see Table 5).

Table. 5
Post-hoc Tukey for the Differences between High School Types

	What type of high school did the participants attend?	What type of high school did the participants attend?	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Tukey HSD Basic high school		Vocational High School	-.21154	.322	.965
		Anatolian High School	-.31553	.214	.581
		Private High School	-.61480[*]	.211	**.034**
		other	-.40089	.253	.513

4.2.3. Participants' Readiness for Learner Autonomy

In this part of the questionnaire, the participants were addressed a total of 52 questions under 5 sections to find out about their readiness for autonomous language learning. These five sections were considered to be the components of language learner autonomy. The results for each section are presented below.

4.2.3.1. Participants' Perceptions of their Teachers' and their Own Responsibilities

This section of the questionnaire focused on the participants' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities about language learning. There were 13 items in the section and the participants were asked to rank their answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1', meaning *completely the teacher's* to '5', meaning *completely mine*.

For this part, both participants' combined mean scores and descriptive scores (frequencies, mean scores, percentages and standard deviations) were calculated. The combined mean scores were found to be 2.97 (with a standard deviation of 1.08), which indicates the scores fall to *half the teacher's, half mine* category meaning the participants think they shared the responsibility with their teachers.

A separate analysis of the section is also given in Table 6, showing percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations for each item. As presented in the table, for items 15, 18, 19 and 26, the participants gave themselves more responsibility with mean scores of 4.46, 3.88, 3.77 and 4.16, respectively. These items included making progress off the class (item 15), making students study more (item 18), setting goals for the English lessons (item 19) and deciding on what to learn outside the class (item 26). For these items, the majority of the participants responded *completely mine*.

The items in which the participants gave more responsibility to the teachers were items 20, 21, 22 and 23 with mean scores of 2.16, 2.01, 1.96 and 1.71, respectively. For these items, the majority of the participants responded *completely teacher's* or *mostly teacher's*. The responsibilities included what to learn in the following English lesson (item 20), deciding on the activities (item 21), time

allocations for the activities (item 22) and choosing the materials to be used in the English lesson (item 23).

The items where the participants thought they share the responsibility with the teacher were items 14, 16 and 17 (with mean scores of 3.32, 3.01 and 3.10, respectively). The items addressed statements about making progress in the class (item 14), raising interest towards English (item 16) and detecting the weaknesses related to English (item 17).

Table 6

Participants' Perceptions of their Teachers and their Own Responsibilities

Items Whose responsibility is it to ..	Completely teacher's		Mostly teacher's		Half teacher's, half mine		Mostly mine		Completely mine		M	SD
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
14. make progress in the lesson?	2	1.4	11	7.5	79	54.1	47	32.2	7	4.8	**3.32**	.74
15. make progress off the lesson?	0	0	1	.7	14	9.6	48	32.9	83	56.8	**4.46**	.69
16. increase your interest towards English?	13	8.9	39	26.7	48	32.9	26	17.8	20	13.7	**3.01**	1.16
17. detect your weaknesses?	9	6.2	42	28.8	43	29.5	29	19.9	23	15.8	**3.10**	1.16
18. make you study more?	6	4.1	13	8.9	29	19.9	43	29.5	55	37.7	**3.88**	1.13
19. decide on the English lesson's goals?	6	4.1	17	11.6	29	19.9	46	31.5	48	32.9	**3.77**	1.14
20. decide on what to teach next lesson?	63	43.2	38	26	14	9.6	21	14.4	10	6.8	**2.16**	1.30
21. choose the activities in English lesson?	48	32.9	61	41.8	30	20.5	2	1.4	5	3.4	**2.01**	.95
22. decide on time allocations on activities for each activity?	74	50.7	36	24.7	16	11	8	5.5	12	8.2	**1.96**	1.25
23. choose materials for English lesson?	82	56.2	38	26	17	11.6	5	3.4	4	2.7	**1.71**	.99
24. evaluate your learning performance?	35	24	50	34.2	35	24	14	9.6	12	8.2	2.44	1.19
25. evaluate English lesson?	25	17.1	42	28.8	49	33.6	11	7.5	19	13	2.71	1.22
26. decide on what to learn outside class?	7	4.8	10	6.8	14	9.6	37	25.3	78	53.4	**4.16**	1.14

4.2.3.2. Participants' Perceptions of their Decision-Making Abilities

In this section of the questionnaire, the participants were addressed 10 questions about their perceptions related to their decision-making abilities about the activities/responsibilities in the first section. In other words, this section aimed to find out how successful they would be if given a chance to decide on the activities mentioned in this section. Their answers ranked on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1', meaning *very bad* and '5', meaning *very good*. The combined mean score for this section was 3.33 with a standard deviation of .99, which means most of the participants thought they would be *averagely* successful if given a chance to decide on certain activities.

The analysis of the separate items in this section (Table 7) presents the percentages, frequencies, mean scores and standard deviations. Responses of the participants are combined and grouped under three categories, namely *very bad/bad, average* and *good/very good*. Majority of the answers clustered around *good/very good*, meaning the respondents thought they would be (very) successful if they were given a chance to decide on the activities. The highest percentages were obtained for the items 28 and 30, choosing off class activities and materials, respectively. In other words, participants considered themselves (very) good at managing some aspects of their learning outside the class. The items which got the highest percentages for the (very) bad category are items 31 and 36, choosing in-class materials and deciding on what to learn in the following lesson, respectively. Items 27, 29, 31 and 34 received the highest scores for average category, 45.9%, 43.2%, 47.6% and 45.2% respectively. These items included questions related to choosing the in-class activities, goals and materials, and evaluating the English lessons. The data reveals that the percentages of the participants considering

themselves *bad/very bad* at deciding on certain activities were quite low when compared to the percentages of the other participants in the other categories.

Table. 7
Participants' Perceptions of their Decision-Making Abilities

items	very bad/bad %	average %	good/ very good %
27. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose the in-class learning activities?	11.0	**45.9**	43.1
28. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose the off-class learning activities?	11.6	26	**62.3**
29. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose in class goals?	13.7	**43.2**	43.1
30. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose off class goals?	7.5	30.1	**62.4**
31. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose in class materials?	**28.3**	**47.6**	23.9
32. How successful would you be if you were asked to choose off class materials?	17.8	34.9	47.3
33. How successful would you be if you were asked to evaluate your learning performance?	17.1	37	45.9
34. How successful would you be if you were asked to evaluate your English lessons?	19.2	**45.2**	35.6
35. How successful would you be if you were asked to detect your weaknesses regarding English?	17.8	34.9	47.3
36. How successful would you be if you were asked to decide on what to learn in the following lesson?	**36.3**	36.3	27.3

4.2.3.3. Participants' Perceptions of their Motivation

In the third section of the questionnaire, participants were asked to rate the amount they felt motivated on a five-point Likert scale where '1' means *not motivated at all* and '5' represents *highly motivated*. The average motivation level of the participants was 2.73, with a standard deviation of 1.11. This result reveals that there is a tendency among participants to feel *motivated* to learn English. For the frequencies and percentages of each ranking on the scale, please see Table 8. As the table shows, the number of participants who felt *highly motivated* is quite

low, especially when compared to the other extreme point *not motivated at all*. Additionally, it can be seen that the highest percentages are clustered around *somewhat motivated* and *motivated* categories. Yet, if the closer categories are combined, it can be seen that about 44% of the participants' level of motivation are clustered around the lower categories, about 30% fall on the average category, and about 28% of the participants identified themselves with the higher categories in the scale.

Table. 8
Participants' Perceptions of their Motivation

		Frequency	Percent
	not motivated at all	23	15.8
	somewhat motivated	41	28.1
Valid	motivated	41	28.1
	well-motivated	35	24.0
	highly motivated	6	4.1
	Total	146	100.0

4.2.3.4. Autonomous Activities that the Participants Engaged in

In this section of the questionnaire, participants were addressed a total of 20 questions on a four-point Likert scale regarding the activities they are engaged with. On the scale, '1' represents *never*, and '4' represents *often*. 17 of these questions were about out-of-class activities that require autonomy, and the remaining 3 questions asked about the activities carried out inside the class. The combined mean score of all the items in this part was 2.38, with a standard deviation of .87, revealing the participants *sometimes* carried out these activities.

Table 9 presents the frequencies, percentages, mean scores and standard deviations for the first 17 items in this section, which are about off-class activities. The data suggest that the activities which attained the highest mean scores were items 46 and 49. These items included statements about listening to English songs (item 46) and watching films in English (item 49). In addition to these items, more

than 80% of the participants also said they *sometimes* or *often* carried out the activities mentioned in items 39 and 44, noting down new vocabulary and watching TV shows in English, respectively.

However, four activities that attained the lowest mean scores were found out to be *never* or *rarely* carried out by the participants. These items included sending letters in English (item 40), reading newspapers in English (item 41), keeping a diary in English (item 50), and visiting SAC (item 53). The table suggests that more than 80% of the participants were not engaged with these activities outside the class.

Table. 9
Engagement in Autonomous Activities outside the Class

Items	never		rarely		sometimes		often			
Although it wasn't asked of you off the class, how often do you..	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
38. study grammar?	45	30.8	52	35.6	39	26.7	10	6.4	2.11	.95
39. note down new vocabulary and their meaning?	8	5.5	22	15.1	46	31.5	70	47.9	3.27	.88
40. send English letters to your penfriends?	104	71.2	20	13.7	14	9.6	8	5.5	**1.50**	.90
41. read an English newspaper?	97	66.4	28	19.2	17	11.6	4	2.8	**1.51**	.83
42. send emails in English?	61	41.8	36	24.7	36	24.7	13	8.9	2.01	1.03
43. read books or magazines in English?	18	12.3	36	24.7	72	49.3	20	13.7	2.67	.88
44. watch English TV shows?	7	4.6	18	12.3	47	32.2	74	50.7	3.32	.85
45. listen to radio in English?	83	56.8	22	15.1	21	14.4	20	13.7	1.86	1.13
46. listen to songs in English?	2	1.4	12	8.2	24	16.4	108	74.0	**3.66**	.66
47. speak to foreigners in English?	41	28.1	56	38.4	34	23.3	15	10.3	2.16	.96
48. practice speaking English with your peers?	23	15.8	61	41.8	40	27.4	22	15.1	2.47	.96
49. watch movies in English?	7	4.8	10	6.8	31	21.2	98	67.1	**3.56**	.78
50. keep a diary in English?	128	87.7	6	4.1	6	4.1	6	4.1	**1.27**	.78
51. use the Internet in English?	33	22.6	39	26.7	41	28.1	33	22.6	2.52	1.10
52. revise a writing piece?	51	34.9	53	36.3	31	21.2	11	7.6	2.03	.96
53. visit SAC (library, reading room, language lab, etc.)?	88	60.3	28	19.2	21	14.4	9	6.2	**1.67**	.96
54. visit your teacher to talk about your studies?	63	43.2	42	28.8	31	21.2	10	6.9	1.92	.97

For the in-class activities, frequencies, percentages, mean scores and standard deviations are given in Table 10. It was found out that for item 55, asking questions in the class, almost 80% of the participants responded sometimes and often. Item 57 also got a high mean score (2.77); more than half of the participants said they sometimes took opportunities to speak in class. Among three, item 56,

making suggestion in the class, attained a mean score of 2.15, falling in the category of rarely.

Table. 10
Engagement in Autonomous Activities in Class

Items During the lesson, how often have you..	never f	never %	rarely f	rarely %	sometimes f	sometimes %	often f	often %	M	SD
55. asked questions about the things you don't understand?	7	4.8	25	17.1	55	37.7	59	40.4	3.19	.85
56. made suggestions to your teacher about the lessons?	47	32.2	42	28.8	46	31.5	11	7.5	2.15	.97
57. had the opportunities to speak in English?	15	10.3	45	30.8	56	38.4	30	20.5	2.77	.93

4.2.3.5. Metacognitive Strategies

The last section of the readiness questionnaire addressed eight questions about the frequency of metacognitive strategy use by the participants. They were asked to rank how often they applied the strategies mentioned in the questions on a five-point Likert scale, where '1' represents *never or almost never* and '5' represents *always or almost always*. The combined mean scores in this section fall on the category of *often* with a mean score of 3.41 and a standard deviation of 1.06. The item with the highest mean score is item 60 – paying attention to someone speaking in English. More than 75% of the participants answered *mostly true* or *(almost) always true of me* for this question with a mean score 4.03. The lowest mean score was obtained for item 63, which makes inquiries about taking opportunities to read in English, with a mean score of 2.86.

In addition to statistical analysis, the metacognitive strategies were also analysed through the key provided by Oxford (1990, p. 300). In her Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Version 7.0), Oxford identifies three categories for strategy use, which are summarised in Table 11:

Table. 11

Oxford's (1990) Key to Strategy Inventory for Language Learning

High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.0
	Usually 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

The combined mean scores of the participants, 3.41, falls into the upper limit of the category *medium* in Oxford's key to strategy inventory, meaning, the metacognitive strategies mentioned in the questionnaire are sometimes used by the participants.

4.2.4. The Effect of High School Type and Proficiency Level on Participants' Readiness

To investigate if the type of high school and the proficiency level of the participants have any effect on their readiness for autonomy, a set of quantitative tests was conducted on SPSS. In this section, different tests for components of readiness for autonomy are presented.

4.2.4.1. Differences of Perceptions of Responsibility in terms of High School Type and Proficiency Level

To see if perceptions of responsibility differ according to the type of high school, a one-way ANOVA test was done; however, it did not reveal any significant effect on the perceptions of responsibility ($p=.783$, $p>.05$). Thus, it can be said that high school is not one of the factors that affect the perceptions of responsibility.

As for the level of proficiency, an independent t-test was done since the independent variable, level of proficiency, had only two dimensions in this specific context, namely, A2 and B1. However, the test revealed that on average,

participants' proficiency level did not show any significant effect on their perceptions of responsibility (t(144)=.271, p>.05).

4.2.4.2. Differences of Perceptions of Decision-Making Abilities in terms of High School Type and Proficiency Level

Using a one-way ANOVA, the effect of high school type on participants' perceptions of their abilities regarding their decision making was calculated. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between the high schools which the participants graduated from in terms of their perceptions of their decision-making abilities (p<.05). Table 12 presents the results obtained from the one-way ANOVA test below:

Table. 12
Participants' Perceptions of their Abilities regarding Decision Making and High School Type

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	4.913	4	1.228	2.682	.034
Within Groups	64.559	141	.458		
Total	69.472	145			

To investigate which high school types had an effect on the perceptions of decision making, a post-hoc Tukey test was conducted. However, the test didn't reveal any difference between the high schools from which the participants graduated (p>.05).

As for the effect of proficiency level on their perceptions related to their decision-making abilities, an independent t-test was conducted and it revealed that there is not a statistically significant difference between the levels of proficiency on learners' perceived abilities related to decision making (t(144)=.108, p>.05).

4.2.4.3. Differences of Perceptions of Motivation Level in terms of High School Type and Proficiency Level

To see if there is an effect of high school type or proficiency level on participants' motivation level, chi square tests were done. The chi square test for the relationship between high school and motivation level showed that there is not an effect of the high school type on participants' level of motivation (p>.05). Likewise, similar results were obtained for the relationship between motivation and proficiency level of the participants (p=.283, p>.05). In other words, these findings reveal that neither high school nor the proficiency level is a factor in participants' motivation level in learning English.

4.2.4.4. Differences of Autonomous Activities in terms of High School Type and Proficiency Level

To find out if the high school type the participants graduated from is a factor in their engagement in autonomous activities, a one-way ANOVA test was done. The findings showed that there is not a significant difference between these variables (p=.46, p>.05). That is, high school type is not a factor of participants' engagement in autonomous activities while learning English.

An independent t-test revealed that there is a significant effect of the proficiency level of the participants on their engagement in autonomous activities (p<.01). Table 13 presents the data results related to the test.

Table. 13

Participants' Perception of their Motivation Level and the Proficiency Level

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Activities mean	Equal variances assumed	1.785	.184	-3.351	144	**.001**
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.247	115.287	.002

Group statistics for the proficiency levels, A2 and B1, revealed that the mean scores for A2 level was 2.27, and for B1 level, it was 2.51. Table 14 summarizes the data below:

Table. 14

Mean Scores of Engagement in Autonomous Activities for Each Group

Group Statistics					
	What is participants' proficiency level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Activities mean	A2	81	2.2728	.37642	.04182
	B1	65	2.5177	.50594	.06275

4.2.4.5. Differences of Perceptions of Metacognitive Strategy Use in terms of High School Type and Proficiency Level

Regarding the effect of the high school the learners graduated from and their use of metacognitive strategies, a one-way ANOVA revealed that there is not a significant difference between the types of high schools (p=.165, p>.05). Similarly, the independent t-test showed that there is not a significant difference in participants' use of metacognitive strategies depending on their proficiency level (p=.975, p>.05). In other words, it can be concluded that participants' proficiency level is not a factor in determining the frequency of their use of metacognitive strategies.

4.2.5. The Relationship between Culture of Learning and Participants' Readiness

To investigate the relationship between the culture of learning of the participants and their readiness, a Pearson product-moment correlation was obtained separately for the components of learner autonomy and their readiness for autonomy.

For the separate correlations of the components of learner autonomy, it was found out that there is a weak correlation between the participants' culture of learning and their decision-making abilities, their engagement in autonomous activities and their use of metacognitive strategies. The only statistically insignificant relationship was obtained between the participants' perception of responsibility and culture of learning (r=.077, p>.05). Table 15 displays the relationship between the culture of learning and participants' perception of responsibility:

Table. 15
Correlation between the Culture of Learning and Participants' Perception of
Responsibility

	Culture of Learning	Perceptions of Responsibility
Culture of Learning	1	.077
Perceptions of Responsibility	.077	1
Mean	2.68	2.97
Standard Deviation	.585	.574

Regarding the relationship between the culture of learning of the participants and their decision-making abilities, a statistically significant relationship was found (p=.000). However, the correlation was weak (r=.399). Table 16 shows the descriptive data and the Pearson correlation for these variables:

Table. 16

Correlation between the Culture of Learning and Participants' Decision-making Abilities

	Culture of Learning	Decision-Making Abilities
Culture of Learning	1	.399(**)
Decision-Making Abilities	.399(**)	1
Mean	2.68	3.33
Standard Deviation	.585	.692

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In terms of the relationship between the participants' culture of learning and their engagement in autonomous activities, Pearson's correlation showed that there is a significant relationship between these two variables (p=.000, p<.01); yet the correlation is, again, weak (r=.311). Table 17 summarizes this relationship along with the descriptive data:

Table. 17

Participants' Culture of Learning and their Engagement in Autonomous Activities

	Culture of Learning	Autonomous Activities
Culture of Learning	1	3.11(**)
Autonomous Activities	3.11(**)	1
Mean	2.68	2.38
Standard Deviation	.585	.453

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As for the relationship between the participants' culture of learning and the frequency they use the metacognitive strategies, it was found out that there is a significant relationship (p=.000, p<.01); however, just like it is with the decision-making abilities and engagement in autonomous activities, the correlation is weak (r=.334). Table 18 displays the correlation and descriptive data:

Participants' Culture of Learning and their Use of Metacognitive Strategies

	Culture of Learning	Metacognitive Strategies
Culture of Learning	1	.334(**)
Metacognitive Strategies	.334(**)	1
Mean	2.68	3.41
Standard Deviation	.585	.780

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Finally, to see a general picture between the participants' culture of learning and their overall readiness for autonomy, the correlation findings were obtained. The results show that there is a significant relationship between these two variables (p=.000, p<.01), and unlike the findings from the correlations of separate components aforementioned, the correlation is not weak but moderate (r=.646). Table 19 displays the correlation and descriptive data related to these variables:

Table. 19
Participants' Culture of Learning and their Overall Readiness

	Culture of Learning	Overall Readiness
Culture of Learning	1	.646(**)
Overall Readiness	.646(**)	1
Mean	2.68	2.96
Standard Deviation	.585	.405

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.3. NEEDS AND PRESENT SITUATION ANALYSIS FOR COURSE DESIGN

As part of our analysis for course design, a set of needs analysis and present situation analysis procedures were conducted with 37 students who also took part in the questionnaire. The first of these procedures, a needs analysis tool (Appendix B) designed by the researcher aimed to identify the needs, wants and attitudes. Slightly more than half of the students (%51) indicated that they were learning English because it was mandatory to pass the proficiency test in their departments.

However, about 46% of the students also answered that they were learning English because of career prospects. When questioned about their perceived needs concerning the systems and skills in the English language, the students' answers clustered around the *listening* (%20) and *writing* (about %18) skills. *Improving their lexicon* was also another item that attained some of the highest scores (15%). When asked about the resources and/or genres of reading and listening, they answered that reading the *lecture notes* and listening to the *daily conversations* and *videos* are the most important, among others. Additionally, they answered writing for *daily purposes* (i.e., note-taking, writing posts on social media or filling a form) and writing well-organized paragraphs and essays for school are the most critical resources/genres for writing. Lastly, the participants answered *being successful at the oral exam,* which will be held as part of their assessment at Preparatory School is the most important motive for learning/practicing speaking. When asked about the factors which affect language learning, about 47% of the students thought the atmosphere and the environment for learning English pose as the most important factor. This is followed by the methodology (about 31%). The most interesting topics ranked by the students were *tabloids*, *books* and *culture*; and the least interesting topics were identified as *sports, shopping* and *technology*. The students were also asked about their preferences on feedback: the majority of the learners (48%) preferred peer correction on their writing performances. This number was followed by a preference for teacher correction (35%) and self-correction (32%). The learners' preferences for correction to spoken performances followed a similar pattern: about 47% of the students preferred peer correction, and 33% answered self-correction and 30% preferred teacher correction. Lastly, when asked about their reasons for learning English, the learners' answers clustered around career prospects (about 46%) and English being very important (about 33%).

The analysis of the reading text revealed that the students had no difficulties identifying the facts or opinions. They were also quite successful at identifying the genre and the purpose (58% and 76%, respectively). Also, the diagnostic test showed that the level of the majority of the students was Pre-intermediate (about 74%). Finally, the texts that were produced by the learners in the dictogloss task was investigated by two teachers using the rubric developed by the Testing Unit at Ufuk University Preparatory School. When inspected with a focus on meaning, it was found out that most of the content was captured by the pairs, and the main problem was related to form. Hence, the grammatical analysis of the task revealed that most of the pairs had problems with the copula verb 'be', mostly missing to use it correctly. Additionally, they had problems with the use of the articles. When a lexical analysis was done, it was found out that the learners avoided attempting to use any new word (i.e., hang-gliding). Although some pairs spelled it correctly or incorrectly (i.e., hand-gliding), most of them preferred to leave the part related to it out of the reconstructed text.

4.4. CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the findings related to the readiness questionnaire and the needs and present situation analysis. The first research question looked for the learning cultures of the participants, and it was found out that there was a tendency among learners' to perceive their teachers' role in high school to be more on the 'facilitator' side of the Likert scale. Likewise, they perceived themselves to be more 'autonomous' as high school students. Additionally, about the learning cultures of the participants, the items which attained the highest mean scores were mostly about participating in peer work activities. However, the item which attained the least mean score was related to portfolio teaching – a majority of the participants responded they rarely kept a portfolio in high school.

To find out if the learning cultures of the participants differ in accordance with the type of high school they graduated, a set of analysis was done, and they revealed that although there is a significant effect of high school type on learning culture, the main significant difference was found between the basic high school and private high school.

To address participants' readiness for autonomy, a questionnaire that involved items about the components of autonomy was administered. For the first component, the perception of responsibility, the participants answered that making progress out of class, to get them to study more, deciding on the English lesson's goals and deciding on what to learn outside the class is *mostly/completely their* responsibility. On the other hand, choosing materials for the English lesson, deciding on the allocated time for the activities in class, and choosing the activities for the next English lesson are *completely/mostly the teacher's* responsibility. In terms of decision-making abilities of the participants, it was found out that the respondents perceived themselves *good/very good* at choosing the off-class activities and choosing off-class goals. They answered they would be *averagely* successful at deciding in-class learning activities, choosing in-class goals, choosing in-class materials and evaluating their English lessons. Lastly, the participants perceived themselves *bad/very bad* at deciding what to learn in the following English lesson. Generally, the data attained from this part of the questionnaire shows that the percentages of the participants considering themselves *good/very good* at deciding on certain activities were quite high than the percentages of the other participants in the other categories. The mean score of the motivation section of the questionnaire showed that, on average, the participants feel they are *motivated* to learn English. However, a descriptive analysis showing the frequencies and percentages reveal that majority of the answers cluster around the

lower parts of the Likert scale, namely, *not motivated* at all and *somewhat motivated*. Another section of the readiness questionnaire, the autonomous activities, looked for the frequency of the engagement with the autonomous activities inside and outside the class. It was found out that off the class, the participants often listened to songs in English and watched movies in English. On the other hand, the activities which received the lowest mean scores were sending letters in English, reading an English newspaper, keeping a diary in English and visiting SAC. Among all, keeping a diary in English attained the lowest mean score. As for the in-class activities, the participants responded they often ask questions about the things they don't understand, and they rarely make suggestions to the teacher about the lessons. The last part of the questionnaire investigated the metacognitive strategy use by the participants. It revealed that the majority of the answers for the overall section clustered around the category *mostly true*. The students responded that they mostly pay attention when someone is speaking in English, but they do not mostly take opportunities to read in English as much as they can. The answers of the respondents for this section were also analysed through Oxford's Key to SILL(1990), and it was found out that their answers fall on the category of *medium*, which means the participants sometimes used the strategies mentioned in the questionnaire.

The fourth research question investigated if the high school type or proficiency level had an effect on the components of readiness for autonomy. When looked at the effects of these variables on learners' perceived responsibility regarding language learning, it was found out that neither the type of high school nor the proficiency level had a significant effect on responsibility. Secondly, a similar analysis was administered for decision-making abilities, and it was revealed that the high school type is a factor in determining responsibility. To see which type

of high school had an effect, a post-hoc Tukey's test was administered. However, the findings did not show a significant difference between the types of high school. A similar result was obtained for the proficiency level: the findings did not show a significant effect of the proficiency level on participants' decision-making abilities. Additionally, the findings did not reveal a significant effect of the type of high school or proficiency level on motivation. As for the autonomous activities, it was found out that the engagement in autonomous activities did not differ in accordance with the high school type. However, it was also found out that the level of proficiency has a significant effect on these activities. In addition, when the mean scores of the groups, namely the proficiency levels, were identified, it was found out that students who identified their level as B1 scored higher in this section of the questionnaire. The final analysis regarding this research question was done on the metacognitive strategy use. The findings revealed that similar to the results of the responsibility, neither the type of high school nor the level of proficiency had an effect on the metacognitive strategy use by the participants.

The final research question about the readiness questionnaire investigated the relationship between the culture of learning and the readiness for autonomy. To have a deeper look, two correlation analysis were done between the culture of learning and the components of readiness separately, and as a total. The findings from the separate analysis of the readiness revealed that there is a weak correlation between the culture of learning the participants had in high school and their perceived decision-making abilities, the autonomous activities they are engaged with and the metacognitive strategies they are using. However, it was also found out that there was not a relationship between the perceived responsibilities of the participants and the culture of learning they are coming from. When looked at as a total, the correlation analysis run between the culture of learning of the participants

and their readiness for autonomy showed that there is a moderate relationship between these variables.

5. DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In this study, it was aimed to find out the readiness of learners for autonomy in a monolingual tertiary context and propose a course to help learners enhance their autonomous studies. To find out, a set of questions making inquiries about their learning culture and readiness were addressed to the learners (see Karabıyık, 2008). The data from 146 preparatory school students studying at Ufuk University were gathered and analysed. Thirty-seven students also took part in the course proposal, answering some questions in Needs and Present Situation Analysis.

This chapter aims to discuss the results obtained. First, the findings from the learning cultures and readiness questionnaires are discussed. And then, the rationale for the course proposal and the assessment and evaluation plans for the learner performance and course (respectively) are discussed. Additionally, the pedagogical implications stemming from this study, the limitations faced while conducting this research and other potential studies that can contribute to this field will be discussed before making a conclusion.

5.2. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.2.1. Discussion of the Results Related to the Culture of Learning of the Participants

Questions related to the culture of learning of the participants investigated their autonomous practices in high school. When asked about their teacher's role in high school, the participants' avoided giving answers on both edges, meaning they regraded their teacher's role neither as sole authority nor completely facilitator. Instead, they thought the teachers had a role somewhere closer to the facilitator. A similar pattern in their answers was observed when asked about their own role as a

learner: they considered themselves as neither teacher-dependent nor completely autonomous. Just like it is with the teacher's role, their answers clustered around somewhere closer to autonomous on the scale. These would suggest that they did not consider themselves or their teachers completely passive.

These results regarding their own and their teacher's role can be said to be somewhat in line with their answers to the rest of the questions investigating their culture of learning. The combined scores for the remaining questions revealed that they sometimes engaged in autonomous activities when they were in high school. Although the results indicate that learners took part in some autonomous activities, it would be best to note down that the mean score for this later section of the questionnaire is lower than the scores for the first two questions. In other words, there would be a mismatch in learners' perceptions of their roles and the amount they thought they participated in such autonomous tasks when they were in high school.

Additionally, when analysing the items in this section, it can be seen that the items which attained the highest scores were regarding the group work, choosing pairs and setting goals, more related to the techniques which promote collaboration. Also, the items which attained the lowest scores were related to choosing what to learn in the following lesson, assessing their peers' work, and keeping a portfolio. Leaving portfolio teaching apart (since it might have been beyond their decision to keep a portfolio or not), the other two items would indicate a relationship with the more 'technical' or teacher/instruction-directed applications. All these answers would suggest a possible existence of boundaries in learners' mind in terms of autonomy. In other words, the learners might consider autonomy is a space where certain activities would be done best by the learners, and where certain others are best attributed to the teacher.

5.2.2. Discussion of the Results Related to the Type of High School and the Culture of Learning

The results indicated that the high school type has a significant effect on the culture of learning. The post-hoc tests which were done in order to find out the categories the difference lies showed that the significant difference was between the private high school and basic high schools. There may be a few explanations of this difference. To begin with, the number of lessons devoted to English could be a factor. Although it varies from school to school, generally there are more English lessons in private schools in Turkey when compared to basic high schools. Another reason could be related to the syllabuses the private schools follow. Many basic high schools in Turkey follow the syllabus proposed by the Ministry of Education without making any changes. Private schools, on the other hand, have different syllabuses for different English lessons. In some of these schools, English language and English literature are taught separately. Finally, most private schools offer extracurricular activities in English and provide easy access to many innovative teaching opportunities. A great number of basic high schools lack these kinds of activities or facilities. Although this last cause may not have a very direct influence on learner autonomy, it may be a solid factor in engaging learners in the English language outside the class. Thus, it may enhance autonomy.

5.2.3. Discussion of the Results Related to the Readiness for Autonomy

The readiness part of the questionnaire consisted of five sections; responsibilities, decision-making, motivation, activities and strategies, namely. These sections are considered to be components that build autonomy. In this section, these components will be discussed.

The questions in the responsibilities section investigated learners' perceptions about their responsibilities and their teacher's roles. Analysing the data,

it was found out that while students attributed responsibilities regarding the out-of-class to themselves, such as making progress, studying harder or setting goals, they considered it was the teacher's responsibility to arrange in-class activities. As it was stated by Benson (2010), "teachers create spaces not to experiment with new ideas, but to meet what they see as students' needs". These activities include deciding hat to learn in the following lesson, deciding on the time allocation, selecting the activities and the materials. The findings are also in line with Karabıyık (2008) and Koçak (2003), and it can be concluded that learners have a notion of boundaries in their perceptions of responsibility where they take more responsibility for out-of-class activities and leave the in-class responsibilities to the teacher.

The next section of the questionnaire administered some questions about learners' perceptions of their decision-making abilities regarding language autonomy. Similar to the results that were obtained in the responsibilities section, the learners considered themselves as being not so good at deciding on activities regarding in-class applications such as selecting the materials to be used in class and deciding on what to learn in the lesson. These kinds of decisions were left for the teacher. Likewise, decisions for outside class activities attained the highest scores. These results are in line with Karabıyık (2008) and Chan et al. (as cited in Karabıyık, 2008, p.75). This result was expected since, in the responsibilities section of the questionnaire, learners showed a tendency to attribute autonomous outside-class responsibilities to themselves and in-class responsibilities to their teachers. These answers also would suggest the imaginary boundary in learners' minds regarding the teacher's area and their area. Also, it can be concluded that they consider their teachers would be better at deciding on methodological issues such as material selection and deciding on what to learn since the teachers are seen more authority on these points.

The following section of the questionnaire investigated the motivational perceptions of the learners. It was found out that the number of learners who felt *not motivated at all* and *highly motivated* is quite low. Instead, the highest numbers clustered around *somewhat motivated, motivated* and *well-motivated*, with a slightly higher percentage on the lower side of the scale. Some researchers suggest there is a link between motivation and autonomy, stating "motivation is a key factor that influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously" (Spratt, Humphreys & Chan, 2002), yet there is still some discussions about which one is the prerequisite of the other (Ellis, as cited in Dickinson, 1995, p.172). Hence, autonomous activities that the learners are engaged with have also been taken into account.

As for the frequency of the autonomous activities that learners' self-reported was somewhere between rarely and sometimes. The activities which attained the highest scores were listening to songs in English and watching films in English. On the other hand, activities which received the lowest scores were sending letters, reading the newspaper and keeping a diary. Although their scores were found out to be a little bit lower, these results were consistent with Karabıyık (2008) and Koçak (2003). These results could be explained by accessibility and abundance of opportunities. The learners found it easier and more accessible to listen and watch in English since these activities are quite in line with the young adults' cultural and entertainment needs. Likewise, the items which obtained the lowest scores can also be explained by almost the same idea: accessibility and lack of purpose. In other words, as with technology, fewer people are sending letters. This situation is also valid for the participants' age profile. Since they do not really send letters in their L1 or L2, this item got one of the lowest scores. When compared to its digital equivalent, emails, letters are not used as frequent as they were before; hence, this

situation forms a lack of meaning/purpose for sending letters. Since short messages/tweeting have been kept out of the questionnaire in order not to disturb its reliability, no data were obtained in terms of their engagement in activities for sending short messages and tweeting about L2.

However, keeping a diary, using SACs, or reading newspapers in English would not be explained by the same reasons. One explanation for keeping a diary and reading newspapers in English would be that learners don't get exposed to the target language by doing these activities because they do not feel the need to do so. Even if they keep a diary, for instance, that would be in their mother tongue. Studying in a monolingual university context would also reinforce the use of L1 since there is less dependence on the target language to carry on the daily chores of school and or daily life. Thus, learners may be keeping away from using L2 in such areas of their lives because they can still carry on with their lives using their L1.

As for the autonomous activities in the class, the students' perceptions of their frequency to engage in the activities addressed in the questionnaire cluster around the category *sometimes*. Though these items received relatively high mean scores, the item which attained the lowest score is about making suggestions to the teacher about the course, which would imply a possible perception of a boundary in learners' minds that in the class, the teacher would possess more authority about more methodological perspectives of teaching.

Final section of the questionnaire addressed questions about the learners' metacognitive strategy use. The total mean score obtained for the section would suggest learners' perceptions of themselves using metacognitive strategies are rather high, falling on the category of *mostly true*, which is equivalent to the upper limit of medium in Oxford's Key to Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (1990). Although neither Karabıyık (2008) nor Koçak (2003) found a significant

relationship between the high school type or proficiency level, in their study Green & Oxford (1995) found "there was a greater strategy use among more successful learners". One significant conclusion could be drawn for the item which received the lowest mean score: learners answered they sometimes made opportunities to read in English. This would be in line with the findings obtained in the engagement in the autonomous activities, where learners answered they rarely read newspapers in English. This tendency to avoid reading in English would be stemming from a lack of necessity to fulfil their extensive reading needs. The learners would not prioritize reading in English to reinforce their reading skills due to an absence of purpose.

5.2.4. Discussion of the Results Related to the Readiness for Autonomy and the Type of High School and Proficiency

As part of the study, it was aimed to find out if the type of high school and/or proficiency level were/was a factor affecting learners' readiness for autonomy. In light of the findings, it was revealed that only the type of high school was a factor in readiness for autonomy for decision making. In an attempt to find out which type of high school would have a significant effect, a post-hoc test was done; however, it did not reveal any significant difference between the types of high school. Also, the other significant finding was found between the proficiency level and the engagement in autonomous activities, revealing the learners' engagement in these activities increased as their level of proficiency increased. In other words, the higher the learners' proficiency, the more engaged they think they are in the autonomous activities mentioned in the questionnaire. From this last result, it would be discussed that learners who have a higher proficiency in English find it easier and more convenient to engage in autonomous activities inside and outside class. In other words, the language would not be a burden for them to avoid doing such activities.

They would feel more self-esteem and self-confidence using the target language, and it would result in an increased rate of enrolment in autonomous activities.

5.2.5. Discussion of the Results Related to the Relationship between Readiness for Autonomy and Culture of Learning

The findings for the relationship between the readiness for autonomy and the culture of learning led to significant conclusions. In light of the findings, it would be discussed that learners' readiness for autonomy is quite related to the learning cultures of the participants. It was found out that all components of autonomy except for responsibility and learners' learning backgrounds in high school are related. One explanation for this would be learners build new autonomous learning habits based on their autonomous experiences in high school. Since the correlation was found to be weak, it can be concluded that the culture of learning has a role in learners' readiness for autonomy, though it is not the only factor.

5.3. RATIONALE AND ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION PLAN OF THE COURSE

5.3.1. The Rationale of the Course

According to Richards (2001), a rationale for a course design should answer the questions related to who the course is for, what the course is about and what kind of teaching and learning will take place. Following this description, a course was designed for pre-intermediate level Preparatory School students studying at Ufuk University who wish to improve their listening, writing, grammar and vocabulary skills to increase their academic success and career prospects. As a result of the needs and present analysis tools, a couple of priorities are identified and presented in Table 20:

Table. 20
Priorities

Priority	Purpose	Evidence
(P1) Listening: Listening to daily conversations and understanding the videos in English	To master listening skills, To react to the audio content, To follow the audio-visual content on social media	Needs Analysis Tool Dictogloss Task
(P2) Writing: Writing for daily purposes (i.e. note-taking, filling a form, writing comments on social media, etc.) and writing well organized paragraphs	To express themselves in written form, To answer questions in the exams as well-organized paragraphs when they start their departments	Dictogloss Task Needs Analysis Tool
(P3) Systems: Using correct vocabulary, forming correct noun phrases, using the copula 'be' correctly	For accuracy and fluency	Diagnostic Test, Needs Analysis Tool, Dictogloss

The course aims to give learners an experience of autonomous learning through some listening, writing and vocabulary tasks that will be done in the class and practice strategy training and analyze certain study skills; and some related studies to be done outside the class where learners are guided with a series of reflective tasks to lead them in the absence of a teacher present. To achieve this, a learner-centered, integrated syllabus which attempts to include many components of the language is designed (Appendix E). A learner-centered syllabus was chosen since it would emphasize the learner training and aims at increased learner autonomy (Dick, 2005). Furthermore, in line with the purposes of this course, an integrated syllabus enables to put different systems/skills on focus interchangeably and interrelatedly.

The proposal shows the first eight weeks span. Every Tuesday and Thursday afternoons, learners will be offered two 45-minutes sessions followed by a 30

minute one. The general focus is on listening (P1), writing (P2) and systems (P3). The first 10-minutes' sessions (on Tuesdays) are devoted to the reflection of the previous week's tasks, and in the last 30-minutes sessions (on Thursdays), students will do their writing tasks. The priorities and objectives of the course are set accordingly:

Priority 1: Improving listening skills

O1.1. Students will practice listening to identify the audience

O1.2. Students will practice listening to identify the genre of the audio content

O1.3. Students will practice listening to identify the attitude of the speakers

O1.4. Students will practice listening to find out the purpose of the text

O1.5. Students will practice listening to take notes

O1.6. Students will practice listening to make predictions

O1.7. Students will listen for the gist

O1.8. Students will listen for the main idea

O1.9. Students will listen for the numbers

O1.10. Students will listen for specific information

Priority 2: Improving writing skills

O2.1. Students will be able to understand and complete a personal profile and introduce themselves in the written form

O2.2. Students will be able to post their comments on social media

O2.3. Students will be able to understand and identify the parts of a well-organized paragraph (topic sentence, supporting details, concluding sentence)

O2.4. Students will practice writing well-organized descriptive paragraphs

O2.5. Students will practice writing informal emails

O2.6. Students will practice writing formal emails

O2.7. Students will practice filling out forms

O2.8. Students will practice writing a recipe

Priority 3: Improving systemic competence

O3.1. Students will have raised their awareness of some core vocabulary related to the topic of the week

O3.2. Students will practice some collocations about the topic of the week

O3.3. Students will practice some grammatical forms related to the listening and/or writing task

The basis for the teaching approach is an interpretation model where students learn how to communicate their ideas (Nunan, 1999). Moreover, low-structure tasks that enable learners with more control and power (ibid) are also included to leave more room for autonomy. The content is organized in terms of the learners' preferred topics. For the purposes of the course, both authentic and pedagogical materials are used. A range of different audio content is taken and or adapted from various coursebooks where applicable as long as they serve to the purposes of the listening objectives.

For staging and timing, in each session, the syllabus presents the learners with a listening content which introduces the basic vocabulary and/or the grammatical structure to be used in the writing task at the end of the unit. Roughly two blocks of 45 minutes (a total of 90 minutes) are devoted to this stage every Tuesday afternoons. In an additional 30 minutes session at the end, a reflective lesson is done to talk and reflect about learners' autonomous studies such as checking answers for the homework, asking any follow-up questions related to the previous week's content, etc. Also, it is aimed to include a mini writing task which aims for social media in Tuesday lessons. These mini-writing tasks are not intended to be a big, carefully planned tasks; instead, while keeping the learners' schemata active related to the listening task, they aim to develop self-esteem and provide

space for practice to be active on social media not only in their L1, but also in English.

A similar pattern is followed on Thursdays every week; in the first 45 minutes, the class meets for another listening lesson; and the second 45 minutes is devoted to supplementary productive skills such as critical thinking where learners do the initial planning for the written outcome. These two sessions, then, are followed by a 30 minutes session where learners write their first drafts and edit them on the given writing task. For these written outcomes, a combination of genre and process approach is used: in the *Critical Thinking* sections, the learners analyze and plan their writing; and their texts are composed following the procedures of The Process Approach. All writing tasks end with a self- and peer-check tasks to increase metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness. Since learners follow an integrated coursebook as part of their studies for the remaining sessions of the week for five days, only the vocabulary and grammatical structures related to the listening and writing tasks will be given in this course.

5.3.2. Assessment and Evaluation Plan of the Course

5.3.2.1. Learning Assessment

Both formative and summative assessment tools will be used to assess students' learning (Appendix F). As formative tools, students will be given *Reflective Task Sheets* after every session to help them summarize the session content. These sheets aim to enhance learning by getting students to reflect beyond the classroom walls. They are not scored, but learners are asked to report about their performances and hand in the sheets in the following session. Another formative tool is *Take-home Tasks*, which can be likened to weekend homework and aim to cover almost all contents of the week's topic. With Take-home Tasks, it is aimed to get the use of metacognitive study to equip learners with autonomous learning

skills. For the purposes of the formative assessment, both discrete and integrative testing methods will be used to monitor learners' performance.

As for the summative assessment, writing portfolios and two exams (one in the middle of the course and another at the end) will be used. In order to content validity, all objectives will be addressed. Furthermore, *a process portfolio* will help learners assess their learning by balancing the elements of formative assessment (learners will be able to observe their own process) and summative assessment (the students will learn about their weaknesses and strengths) (Lam & Lee, 2009). The *mid-course* and *end-course exams* are planned to cover all the objectives through a number of task types: a listening task which contains elements of both discrete point and integrative testing, a cloze test which addresses vocabulary objectives (since this type of testing is both indirect and integrative), and a writing task which is guided through specific task requirements.

All the writing tasks except for the ones that will be done in the exams are designed in accordance with the process approach. A task checklist will be given to the learners so that they can do self- and peer-evaluation. However, these checklists will not be included in the Take-home Tasks since it could be difficult for learners to meet their friends at the weekend. Additionally, by excluding these checklists in Take-home Tasks, students will be given an opportunity to evaluate their studies on their own without relying on a friend's proofreading before submission.

It will be avoided to give too general tasks in the writing tasks to maximize reliability since too much freedom may result in a difference between the elicited performance and the performance that would be captured at another rime (Hughes, 1989, p. 45-46). Instead, learners will be asked to plan their paragraphs through guiding writing tasks that will help them to stay within the scope of the topic.

5.3.2.2. Course Evaluation

A course evaluation procedure was designed to give an overall picture of the effectiveness of the course (Appendix F). In this procedure, the learners are given an online survey, answering three general questions related to the course. Furthermore, the feedback from students will be obtained through an open-class discussion, which will enable the teachers to obtain unwritten and in-depth comments (Richards, 2001, p. 300). Additionally, at the end of the course (in the last session), learners will be asked to write an anonymous letter about how they feel about the course. These letters are not to be opened immediately. Instead, in the 3rd or fourth weeks following the course, the participants will be asked to participate in an online survey to give delayed feedback. Only then, the letters will be read to cross-analyze the answers. Finally, after each week, teaching logs will be kept by the teacher to record specific instances of what goes well or not related to the course. Although these logs seem to be unsystematic in nature, they will provide the teacher's perspective as vivid reminders of the sessions.

5.4. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The analysis of data leads to some important pedagogical implications which can help future teaching practices. To begin with, the culture of learning questionnaire revealed that learners reported they sometimes practiced autonomous activities when they were in high school. The total mean score was not low; however, this does not mean that nothing can be done to improve these practices. Thus, learners' background practices regarding autonomy can be enhanced by integrating more autonomy-promoting applications (i.e., portfolio teaching), adapting the curricula in a way it leaves more room for autonomous participation or improving teachers' awareness towards autonomy. Some of these implications

can be implemented by the Ministry of Education, some by the school administrations and some others by the teachers.

As for the learners' readiness for autonomy, the results indicated that learners' perceptions of autonomy could be defined by spatial boundaries such as inside the class and outside the class where they attribute most of the autonomous planning and execution to the teacher in the class, and are more active in studying and analyzing their learning needs outside the class. This tendency was apparent in many parts of the questionnaire. When the components and/or sections of the readiness questionnaire taken into account separately, it was found out that preparatory school learners who study in a monolingual university take most of the responsibility of their autonomous learning for the out of class activities. One pedagogical implication for this would be sharing the responsibility with the learners inside the classroom. It could be simple implementations such as nominating the pairs or writing on the board, or more sophisticated implementations where negotiation between the teacher/administration and the learners would be required (i.e. choosing the aims/topic of the lesson or choosing the homework).

This idea about the existence of potential boundaries was also implied in the decision-making section of the questionnaire. The results suggested learners have role expectations in their minds where they see the teacher as the authority figure for the decisions to be made about the lesson execution, and they consider themselves to be able to make all the decisions regarding the work done outside school. This could lead to another pedagogical implication that maybe the learners could be encouraged to be more active in making in-class decisions. From time to time, if not completely, learners can be asked to bring in the class material to be explored or choose the aim/objectives of the course. These kinds of implications can also be found in DOGME language teaching, where in order to ensure the

content is interesting to the students, they bring in the material, yet the teacher prioritizes the interactivity between the teacher and the learner, instead of material-deviated teaching (Thornbury, 2005). However, before implementing, such an implication should be discussed and planned with the school administration where numerous planning is done regarding the pacing and syllabus. Additionally, the teachers who wish to apply this to their lessons should always be aware of the possible problems such as the quality of the material to be brought in by the learner.

Other final remarks would be about the autonomous activities preparatory school students engaged in and the strategies they use. The results indicated a conclusion about the purpose and accessibility of opportunities: learners are more likely to engage in such activities if they can access it easily (i.e., listening to songs in English). Additionally, unless they feel the need, they avoid enrolling in some activities such as sending letters /emails in English. This would be explained by a lack of purpose: since they are students in a monolingual university, it can be concluded that their mother tongue made it easier to communicate, filling a need to use the target language to communicate. Also, the learners self-reported that they rarely used SACs, which also questions their motivation. First pedagogical implication for this could be about increasing the number of opportunities for learners so that they can use the target language more naturally. In other words, in accordance with the nudging theory, if the learners are provided with enough easily accessible opportunities to engage in the L2 more, they will get exposed to the language in a greater sense. Also, as Swan and Walters put it "people generally learn languages best when their experience, knowledge of the world, interests and feelings are involved" (as cited in Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 97). Hence, more courses that put learners' needs and interests into account can be designed and autonomy can be promoted by equipping the learners with easily accessible sources

of L2. Another pedagogical implication would be about the use of SACs. As it was not among the purposes of this study to investigate the reasons of learners to visit SACs, no data were obtained. However, these centers can be made popular among students by enriching the types of data they involve. Thus, in addition to the language books, readers and other audio sources, maybe some elements from popular culture which learners of this age profile would feel closer to can be added. In other words, authentic English magazines (i.e., Rolling Stone or Entertainment Weekly) or films and even video games can also be placed in SACs. One final pedagogical implication would be related to strategy training. It would be best if it was not limited to in-class activities, though. Teachers would enhance strategy training through self-check lists and other awareness-raising tasks so that learners would consciously pay attention to their performance and planning when they are studying autonomously as well. And this could be achieved by providing learners with tasks targeting the study skills outside the class.

5.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the results obtained from the survey part of the study revealed major similarities to the previous researches in this area (see Karabıyık, 2008), a number of limitations were faced.

Even though the high school types of the participants showed a great variety, the proficiency level of the students was quite restricted as the Ufuk University Preparatory School offered only two distinct level groups: A2 and B1. If the proficiency level could be more varied, more thorough results could have been obtained. An absence of such diversity leads to a lack of data on the other end of the spectrum while contrasting the levels and the type of high schools. Similarly, since there were only students from two departments, Law and Psychology, namely, behaviors of students studying other majors could not be covered in the study. This

limitation may be significant as students who study these departments are supposed to have excellent verbal skills. Therefore, the students who study majors that are more attributed to the numerical skills are not covered in this study. One last limitation is related to the unequal number of participants from the departments. In other words, the number of Law school students and the Psychology students were not equal nor balanced. Although it did not pose any significant problem, if the number of students from these majors had been closer, it would have provided more balanced results.

5.6. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Based on the limitations mentioned in the previous sections, some suggestions can be made for further research. First of all, since this study was conducted with only students from one university where the medium of teaching is fully monolingual, in further research, more students from different universities with a similar context can be asked to participate. Additionally, a contrastive study where learners with monolingual university contexts and learners who attend L2-medium universities would provide a different insight into the field of learner autonomy.

Since the survey part of this study was conducted through questionnaires, in a further study, the findings received from the students could be reinforced and explained more by interviews, focus groups or classroom observations. This way, both qualitative and quantitative methods would be directly used in the study. Interviews that ask learners to elaborate on their answers would give valuable insight and leave space for examples or detailed explanations from the learners' experiences. Similarly, teachers could also be asked to participate in a further study since learner autonomy is intertwined with teacher autonomy and the institution.

In addition to the suggestions mentioned above, other studies would well look deeper into the effects of familiarity of learners with technology tools and their exposure to L2 outside the class and their autonomous study skills. Since almost all of the preparatory school learners are digital natives and has early access to technological devices such as computers, tablets or smartphones, it can be suspected there could be a relationship between their readiness for computer-assisted tools and applications and autonomy.

5.7. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to find out the readiness of preparatory school learners in a monolingual tertiary context towards autonomy and offer a course proposal to enhance it. A questionnaire that addresses questions about learners' background learning experiences and their readiness for autonomy revealed some important results. To begin with, the culture of the learning part suggested the learners had some experience with autonomy in high school, mostly in terms of group work and pair work tasks. However, more methodological aspects of teaching like choosing what to learn in the following lesson or evaluating peer's work were left for the teacher. In order to find out if background experiences of the learners are similar, a post-hoc test was done and it revealed there was a difference between private high schools and basic high schools, which could be explained by the number of hours devoted to the target language.

The second part of the questionnaire directed questions about learners' readiness for autonomy. The results of this part indicated that learners' readiness is not homogenous for each component of autonomy, making it a rather complicated phenomenon affected by various factors (i.e., proficiency). Students' answers revealed a tendency towards attributing methodological managements to the teacher, especially the ones related to the in-class implementations and feeling more

proficient with the outside the class activities. However, in this study, the high school type did not turn out to be one of these factors. This conclusion of autonomy not being homogenous is also in line with Sinclair's that autonomy comes in degrees (as cited in Borg & Al Busaidi, 2012, p. 5): learners may possess substantial autonomy in one area; however, it does not necessarily mean they would be as strong as it in other areas. This conclusion is also supported by this study that some mean scores for separate components of autonomy were not identical. In addition, when a correlation test was done to see if there were any relationship between the learning cultures of the learners and their readiness for autonomy, a weak correlation was found out, meaning a better engagement with autonomous activities in high school would eventually lead to greater readiness for autonomy.

All these conclusions would suggest autonomy is a rather complex and phenomenon, which has different reflections in each learner's learning behaviors. In this respect, solutions to promote learner autonomy would work better if they are tailor-cut for smaller contexts where it is easy to analyze the needs of the learners.

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APPENDIX A

BÖLÜM 1

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

a. Kadın   b. Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____

3. Öğrenim gördüğünüz üniversitenin adı nedir?

_____

4. Bölümünüz nedir?

a. Hukuk Fakültesi   b. Psikoloji   c. Diğer
_____

5. Hazırlık sınıfındaki kurunuz (seviyeniz) nedir?

_____

6. Üniversiteye başlamadan önce kaç yıl İngilizce eğitim aldınız?

a. Hiç   b. 1-3 yıl   c. 4-6 yıl   d. 7 yıl ve üzeri

7. Babanızın eğitim düzeyi nedir?

a. İlkokul   b. Ortaokul   c. Lise   d. Üniversite
e. Yüksek Lisans/Doktora   f. Okuryazar değil

8. Annenizin eğitim düzeyi nedir?

a. İlkokul   b. Ortaokul   c. Lise   d. Üniversite
e. Yüksek Lisans/Doktora   f. Okuryazar değil

9. Öğrenim gördüğünüz lisenin türü nedir?
a. Düz lise   b. Meslek Lisesi   c. Anadolu Lisesi   d. Süper Lise
e. Özel lise   f. Diğer _____

10. Lise öğreniminizi hangi şehirde tamamladınız?

_____

BÖLÜM 2

Aşağıdaki soruları mezun olduğunuz liseyi düşünerek cevaplandırınız.

1. Mezun olduğunuz lisedeki GENEL öğretmen profilini düşünerek,
öğretmenlerinizin rolünü aşağıdaki ölçekte işaretleyiniz (Uygun numarayı
yuvarlak içine alınız).

(**Kolaylaştırıcı:** öğrenmeyi kolaylaştırır, yol gösterir, dinler, rehberlik eder, katılımı
teşvik eder, öğrenci merkezlidir.)

Tek otorite				Kolaylaştırıcı
1	2	3	4	5

2. Lisedeyken nasıl bir öğrenci olduğunuzu, öğrenmenizde öğretmene bağımlılık
derecenizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ölçekte işaretleyiniz (Uygun numarayı yuvarlak
içine alınız).

(**Özerk/Otonom öğrenci:** Kendi öğrenmesinde sorumluluk ve kontrol sahibidir, kendi
amaçlarını belirler, kendi öğrenmesini denetler, öğretmeni öğrenmede tek sorunlu kişi
olarak görmez).

Öğretmene bağımlı				Özerk
1	2	3	4	5
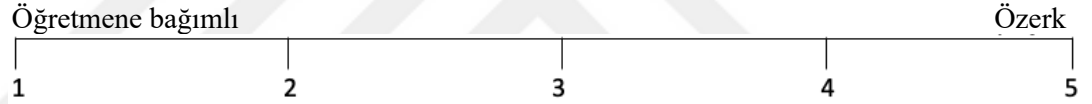
*Aşağıdaki soruları cevaplarken lisedeki öğrenim hayatınızı düşünerek sizin için en uygun
cevabı işaretleyiniz.*

	Lise öğreniminiz boyunca..	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık sık
3.	grup çalışması etkinliklerine ne sıklıkla katıldınız?				
4.	kendi çalışmalarınızı değerlendirmeniz ne sıklıkla istendi?				
5.	arkadaşlarınızın çalışmalarını ne sıklıkla değerlendirdiniz?				
6.	çalışma arkadaşınızı/ arkadaşlarınızı seçmenize ne sıklıkla izin verildi?				
7.	proje çalışmalarına ne sıklıkla katıldınız?				
8.	öğretmenleriniz sizden ders içinde kullanılacak etkinlikleri seçmenizi ne sıklıkla istedi?				
9.	öğretmenleriniz sizden ders içinde kullanılacak materyalleri seçmenizi ne sıklıkla istedi?				
10.	kendi öğrenme hedeflerinizi koymanız ne sıklıkla istendi?				
11.	derslerinizi değerlendirmeniz ne sıklıkla istendi?				
12.	bir sonraki derste ne öğrenmeniz gerektiğine karar vermenize ne sıklıkla izin verildi?				
13.	Portfolyo hazırlamanız ne sıklıkla istendi?				

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Aşağıdaki tüm soruları İngilizce öğrenim gördüğünüz hazırlık sınıflarını dikkate alarak cevaplayınız.

BÖLÜM 3

A. SORUMLULUKLAR:

Aşağıda, İngilizce derslerindeki sorumluluklarla ilgili ifadeler vardır. İfadeleri dikkatle okuyarak her bir sorumluluğun SİZCE kime ait olduğunu ilgili kutucuğa (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Tamamen Öğretim Elemanının	Büyük Ölçüde Öğretim Elemanının, Biraz Benim	Yarı Yarıya Öğretim Elemanının, Yarı Yarıya Benim	Büyük Ölçüde Benim, Biraz Öğretim Elemanının	Tamamen Benim
14. Ders içinde gelişme kaydetmenizi sağlamak					
15. Ders dışında gelişme kaydetmenizi sağlamak					
16. İngilizce öğrenmeye karşı ilginizi arttırmak					
17. İngilizce ile ilgili zayıf yönlerinizi tespit etmek					
18. Daha fazla çalışmanızı sağlamak					
19. İngilizce dersinizin hedeflerine karar vermek					
20. Bir sonraki İngilizce dersinde ne öğrenmeniz gerektiğine karar vermek					
21. İngilizce dersi içinde kullanılacak aktiviteleri seçmek					
22. Her bir aktiviteye ne kadar zaman ayrılacağına karar vermek					
23. İngilizce dersi içinde kullanılacak materyalleri seçmek					
24. Öğrenme performansınızı değerlendirmek					
25. İngilizce derslerini değerlendirmek					
26. Ders dışında ne öğreneceğinize karar vermek					

B. BECERİLER:

Sizden istendiği takdirde aşağıda verilen sorumlulukları yerine getirmekte ne kadar iyi olacağınızı düşündüğünüzü ilgili kutucuğa (X) işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Çok Kötü	Kötü	Orta	İyi	Çok İyi
27. Ders içi öğrenme aktivitelerini seçmek					
28. Ders dışı öğrenme aktivitelerini seçmek					
29. Ders içi hedefleri seçmek					
30. Ders dışı hedefleri seçmek					
31. Ders içi materyallerini seçmek					
32. Ders dışı materyallerini seçmek					
33. Öğrenme performansınızı değerlendirmek					
34. İngilizce derslerini değerlendirmek					
35. İngilizce ile ilgili zayıf yönlerinizi tespit etmek					
36. Bir sonraki İngilizce dersinde ne öğrenmeniz gerektiğine karar vermek					

C. MOTİVASYON: *Lütfen ilgili kutuyu işaretleyiniz.*

	Motive Olmamış	Düşük Derecede Motive Olmuş	Motive Olmuş	İyi Derecede Motive Olmuş	Yüksek Derecede Motive Olmuş
37. İngilizce öğrenmek konusunda kendinizi ne kadar motive olmuş görüyorsunuz?					

D. AKTİVİTELER: *Lütfen ilgili kutuyu işaretleyiniz.*

Hazırlık sınıfındaki öğreniminiz sırasında, sizden istenmediği halde DERS DIŞINDA ne sıklıkla ..	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık
38. kendi kendinize dilbilgisi kitapları okudunuz?				
39. öğrendiğiniz yeni kelimeleri ve anlamlarını not ettiniz?				
40. mektup arkadaşlarınıza İngilizce mektup yazdınız?				
41. İngilizce gazete okudunuz?				
42. İngilizce e-posta gönderdiniz?				

	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık
43. İngilizce kitap veya dergi okudunuz?				
44. İngilizce televizyon programları seyrettiniz?				
45. İngilizce radyo dinlediniz?				
46. İngilizce şarkı dinlediniz?				
47. yabancılarla İngilizce konuştunuz?				
48. arkadaşlarınızla İngilizce konuşarak pratik yaptınız?				
49. İngilizce film seyrettiniz?				
50. İngilizce günlük tuttunuz?				
51. İnternet'i İngilizce kullandınız?				
52. öğretmeniniz istemeden yazılı bir çalışmayı gözden geçirdiniz?				
53. Bireysel Çalışma Merkezine (okuma odası, video odası, dil laboratuvarı, vb.) gittiniz?				
54. çalışmalarınız hakkında öğretmeninizi görmeye gittiniz?				

Bu okuldaki öğreniminiz sırasında, DERS İÇİNDE ne sıklıkla ..	Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sık Sık
55. anlamadığınız konularda öğretmeninize soru sordunuz?				
56. öğretmeninize dersle ilgili önerilerde bulundunuz?				
57. fırsat bulup İngilizce konuştunuz?				

E. STRATEJİLER:

Aşağıda yeni bir dil öğrenmeye yönelik ifadeler vardır. İfadeleri dikkatle okuyarak kendiniz için geçerli olan ifadeyi işaretleyiniz.	(1) Hiç veya Neredeyse Hiç	(2) Genellikle Değil	(3) Az Çok	(4) Genellikle	(5) Her Zaman veya Neredeyse Her Zaman
		BENİM İÇİN GEÇERLİ			
58. İngilizce kullanmak için mümkün olduğunca fazla yol bulmaya çalışırım.					
59. İngilizce yaptığım hataları fark ederim ve bu bilgiyi daha başarılı olmak için kullanırım.					
60. Biri İngilizce konuşurken dikkat ederim.					
61. Nasıl daha iyi bir İngilizce öğrencisi olacağımı bulmaya çalışırım.					
62. Zaman planlamamı İngilizce öğrenmeye yeterli zaman bırakacak şekilde yaparım.					
63. Mümkün olduğunca fazla İngilizce okumak için fırsat yaratmaya çalışırım.					
64. İngilizcemi geliştirmek için net amaçlarım vardır.					
65. Dili öğrenme sürecinde kaydettiğim genel ilerlemeyi değerlendiririm.					

APPENDIX B

(In Turkish)

İHTİYAÇ ANALİZİ ANKETİ

Ad & Soyad: _____   **Yaş: _____**
Bölüm:_____   **Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?**
_____

1. Ne amaçla İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?
   a. Mesleki hedefler   c. Yurtdışında yasamak/okumak
   b. Bölümümde zorunlu olduğu için   d. Diğer

Diğer seçeneğini işaretlediyseniz lütfen yazınız:
_____

Şuanda hangi İngilizce beceri/alanın daha gelişmesine ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz? Birden
fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz.

   a. Dinleme   b. Okuma   c. Yazma   d. Konuşma
   e. Dilbilgisi   f. Kelime bilgisi   g. Telaffuz   h. Diğer: ____

2. Aşağıdaki İngilizce **okuma** kaynaklarını size göre en önemliden (5) en az önemliye
   (1) doğru sıralayın.

Teknik okuma parçaları	Hakemli dergi makaleleri	Roman, gazete, magazin,..	Ders notları	Ders kitapları

3. Aşağıdaki İngilizce **dinleme** kaynaklarını size göre en önemliden (5) en az önemliye
   (1) doğru sıralayın.

Dersler	Seminerler	Yönerge/Direktifler	Videolar	Günlük Konuşmalar

4. Aşağıdaki İngilizce **yazma** kaynaklarını size göre en önemliden (5) en az önemliye
   (1) doğru sıralayın.

Kompozisyon	Günlük yazışmalar (örn. Not alma, sosyal medya, Form doldurma,..)	Rapor Hazırlama	Sınavlarda cevap vrebilme	Paragraf Türleri (düşünce, karşılaştırma, ...)

5. Aşağıdaki İngilizce **konuşma** alanlarından hangilerine ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz? Lütfen
   önem sırasında göre numaralandırın (7: en önemli, 1: en az önemli)

Sınıfta sorulara cevap verebilmek ( )	Sunum yapabilme ( )
Sınıfta soru sorabilmek ( )	Ders anlatabilme ( )
Pair-work'lere katılım ( )	Speaking sınavında başarılı olabilme ( )
Group-work'lere katılım ( )	Diğer( ):

6. Aşağıda dil öğrenmeyi etkileyen etmenlerden bazıları sıralanmıştır. Eğer siz de
   bunlardan birini yaşadıysanız ltfen işaretleyin.
   a. Öğretim metodları   c. Kullanılan materyaller
   b. Ortam   d. Diğer (lütfen belirtiniz) _____

7. Aşağıdaki konuları size en çok ilginç gelenden (10), en az ilginç gelene (1) doğru numaralandırınız.

Spor ( )	Kitaplar ( )	Sinema ( )	Sosyal Medya ( )	Magazin ( )
Bilimsel Gelişmeler ( )	Teknolojik Gelişmeler ( )	Kültürel Gelişmeler ( )	Seyahat ( )	Alışveriş ( )

8. Yazdığınız parçalara dönüt/düzeltme verirken, hangisini tercih edersiniz? Lütfen numaralandırın (3: en çok isterim, 1: en az isterim)

Kendim düzeltmek isterim.	Arkadaşımın düzeltmesini isterim.	Öğretmenimin düzeltmesini isterim.

9. Konuşmalarıma dönüt/düzeltme verirken, hangisini tercih edersiniz? Lütfen numaralandırın (3: en çok isterim, 1: en az isterim)

Kendim düzeltmek isterim.	Arkadaşımın düzeltmesini isterim.	Öğretmenimin düzeltmesini isterim.

Aşağıdaki cümleciği lütfen tamamlayınız:
İngilizce öğreniyorum çünkü ….

(In English)

Needs Analysis Questionnaire

Name & Surname: _____   **Age: _____**
Department: _____   **How long have you been learning English?**
_____

1. What are your purposes of learning English?
    a. Professional goals   c. to study/live abroad
    b. Because it's a must at my department   d. Other
    Please state here if you've chosen "other":

    _____

2. Which area of English do you need to improve right now? You can select more than one.

    a. Listening   b. Reading   c. Writing   d. Speaking
    e. Grammar   f. Vocabulary   g. Pronunciation   h. other _____

3. Please rank the following **reading sources** from 5 (the most important) to 1 (the least important).

Technical reading texts	Journals	Novels, magazines, etc.	Lecture notes	Course books

4. Please rank the following **listening sources** from 5 (the most important) to 1 (the least important).

Lectures	Seminars	Instructions	Videos	Daily Talk

5.   Please rank the following **writing sources** from 5 (the most important) to 1 (the least important).

Essays	Daily writing purposes (i.e. note-taking, posting on social media, filling a form,..)	Writing a report	Giving answers in exams	Types of paragraphs (opinion, compare, contrast, etc.)

6. Please rank the following **speaking sources** from 7 (the most important) to 1 (the least important).

Answering the questions in class ( )	Presentations ( )
Asking questions in class ( )	Giving lectures ( )
Participating at pair-work activities ( )	Being successful at the Speaking exam ()
Participating at group-work activities ( )	Other ( ):

7. Some of the factors affecting language learning are listed below. Please choose if you have experienced any of them.
    a. Methodology
    b. Materials
    c. Environment
    d. Other (please state)

    _____

8. Please rank the following **topics** from 10 (the most interesting) to 1 (the least interesting).

Sports ( )	Books ( )	Cinema ( )	Social Media ( )	Tabloids( )
Science ( )	Technology ( )	Culture ( )	Travelling ( )	Shopping ( )

9. What kind of **feedback to your writing** do you like to receive? Please rank (3: the most preferred way; 1: the least preferred way)

Self-correction	Peer correction	Teacher correction

10. What kind of **feedback to your speaking** do you like to receive? Please rank (3: the most preferred way; 1: the least preferred way)

Self-correction	Peer correction	Teacher correction

Please complete the following sentence:
I am learning English because .. .

Reading Text
Please read the text and answer the following questions.

The face of seven billion people

Age
The average person in the world is twenty-eight years old. In Japan, the average life expectancy for a woman is eighty-six. In Afghanistan, it's forty-five.

Population
20% of the world's population live in China. There are one point 2 billion people in India.

Language
13% of the world's population speak Mandarin as their first language. 5% speak Spanish as their first language. 5% also speak English as their first language; but English is a second language for 1 billion people.

Religion
There are many different religions in the world. For example, 32% of the world are Christian, 21% are Muslim and 13% are Hindu.

Jobs
40% of people work in a service industry (hotels, banks, etc.), 38% are in agriculture and 21% are in manufacturing and production.

City and countryside
51% of the world's population live in cities and 49% live in the countryside.

Internet and mobile phones
2.5 billion people in the world use the Internet and 5 billion people have a mobile phone.

---

1. Does the text give **facts** or **opinions**? How can you tell?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………

2. Where can you read this text?

a. Novel   b. Magazine article   c. Weather report

3. Why does the author write this text?

a. To convince the readers about the best jobs
b. To tell his/her ideas about different countries
c. To give information about people in the world

Straightforward Quick Placement & Diagnostic test

The *Straightforward* Quick Placement & Diagnostic test has been designed to help you decide which of the five levels of the *Straightforward* series is the most appropriate for you.

The *Straightforward* test has 50 questions, each worth one point. The first 40 are grammar questions and the final 10 are vocabulary questions. To decide your level, use the conversion chart below. Please note that these bandings are a guide.

Total score	Level
0 - 15	Beginner
16 - 24	Elementary
25 - 32	Pre-intermediate
33 - 39	Intermediate
40 - 45	Upper Intermediate
46 - 50	Advanced

This test can also be used to diagnose grammar that you need clarification on. Please consult the relevant level and unit of the course for more information.

Grammar

1. I _____ from France.

    a) is
    b) are
    c) am
    d) be

2. This is my friend. _____ name is Peter.

    a) Her
    b) Our
    c) Yours
    d) His

3. Mike is _____.

    a) my sister's friend
    b) friend my sister
    c) friend from my sister
    d) my sister friend's

4. My brother is _____ artist.
    a) the
    b) an
    c) a
    d) —

5. _____ 20 desks in the classroom.
   a) This is
   b) There is
   c) They are
   d) There are

6. Paul _____ romantic films.

   a) likes not
   b) don't like
   c) doesn't like
   d) isn't likes

7. Sorry, I can't talk. I _____ right now.

   a) driving
   b) 'm driving
   c) drives
   d) drive

8. She _____ at school last week.
   a) didn't be
   b) weren't
   c) wasn't
   d) isn't

9. I _____ the film last night.

   a) like
   b) likes
   c) liking
   d) liked

10. _____ a piece of cake? No, thank you.

   a) Do you like
   b) Would you like
   c) Want you
   d) Are you like

11. The living room is _____ than the bedroom.

   a) more big
   b) more bigger
   c) biggest
   d) bigger

12. The car is very old. We're going _____ a new car soon.

   a) to buy
   b) buying
   c) to will buy
   d) buy

13. Jane is a vegetarian. She _____ meat.
   a) sometimes eats
   b) never eats
   c) often eats
   d) usually eats

14. There aren't _____ buses late in the evening.

   a) some
   b) any
   c) no
   d) a

15. The car park is _____ to the restaurant.

   a) next
   b) opposite
   c) behind
   d) in front

16. Sue _____ shopping every day.
   a) is going
   b) go
   c) going
   d) goes

17. They _____ in the park when it started to rain heavily.
   a) walked
   b) were walking
   c) were walk
   d) are walking

18. _____ seen fireworks before?

   a) Did you ever
   b) Are you ever
   c) Have you ever
   d) Do you ever

19. We've been friends _____ many years.
   a) since
   b) from
   c) during
   d) for

20. You _____ pay for the tickets. They're free.
   a) have to
   b) don't have
   c) don't need to
   d) doesn't have to

21. Jeff was ill last week and he _____ go out.

    a) needn't
    b) can't
    c) mustn't
    d) couldn't

22. These are the photos _____ I took on holiday.

    a) which
    b) who
    c) what
    d) where

23. We'll stay at home if it _____ this afternoon.
    a) raining
    b) rains
    c) will rain
    d) rain

24. He doesn't smoke now, but he _____ a lot when he was young.
    a) has smoked
    b) smokes
    c) used to smoke
    d) was smoked

25. Mark plays football _____ anyone else I know.
    a) more good than
    b) as better as
    c) best than
    d) better than

26. I promise I _____ you as soon as I've finished this cleaning**.**

    a) will help
    b) am helping
    c) going to help
    d) have helped

27. This town _____ by lots of tourists during the summer.

    a) visits
    b) visited
    c) is visiting
    d) is visited

28. He said that his friends _____ to speak to him after they lost the football match.

    a) not want
    b) weren't
    c) didn't want
    d) aren't wanting

29. How about _____ to the cinema tonight?
   a) going
   b) go
   c) to go
   d) for going

30. Excuse me, can you _____ me the way to the station, please?

   a) give
   b) take
   c) tell
   d) say

31. I wasn't interested in the performance very much. _____.

   a) I didn't, too.
   b) Neither was I.
   c) Nor I did.
   d) So I wasn't.

32. Take a warm coat, _____ you might get very cold outside.

   a) otherwise
   b) in case
   c) so that
   d) in order to

33. _____ this great book and I can't wait to see how it ends.

   a) I don't read
   b) I've read
   c) I've been reading
   d) I read

34. What I like more than anything else _____ at weekends.

   a) playing golf
   b) to play golf
   c) is playing golf
   d) is play golf

35. She _____ for her cat for two days when she finally found it in the garage.
   a) looked
   b) had been looked
   c) had been looking
   d) were looking

36. We won't catch the plane _____ we leave home now! Please hurry up!

   a) if
   b) providing that
   c) except
   d) unless

37. If I hadn't replied to your email, I_____ here with you now.

   a) can't be
   b) wouldn't be
   c) won't be
   d) haven't been

38. Do you think you _____ with my mobile phone soon? I need to make a call.

   a) finish
   b) are finishing
   c) will have finished
   d) are finished

39. I don't remember mentioning _____ dinner together tonight.

   a) go for
   b) you going to
   c) to go for
   d) going for

40. Was it Captain Cook _____ New Zealand?
   a) who discovered
   b) discovered
   c) that discover
   d) who was discovering

Vocabulary

41. You may not like the cold weather here, but you'll have to _____, I'm afraid.
   a) tell it off
   b) sort itself out
   c) put up with it
   d) put it off
42. It's cold so you should _____ on a warm jacket.
   a) put
   b) wear
   c) dress
   d) take
43. Paul will look _____ our dogs while we're on holiday.
   a) at
   b) for
   c) into
   d) after
44. She _____ a lot of her free time reading.
   a) does
   b) spends
   c) has
   d) makes
45. Hello, this is Simon. Could I _____ to Jane, please?
   a) say
   b) tell
   c) call
   d) speak
46. They're coming to our house _____ Saturday.
   a) in
   b) at
   c) on
   d) with
47. I think it's very easy to _____ debt these days.
   a) go into
   b) become
   c) go down to
   d) get into
48. Come on! Quick! Let's get _____!
   a) highlight
   b) cracking
   c) massive
   d) with immediate effect
49. I phoned her _____ I heard the news.
   a) minute
   b) during
   c) by the time
   d) the moment
50. I feel very _____. I'm going to go to bed!
   a) nap
   b) asleep
   c) sleepy
   d) sleeper

The test is retrieved from http://www.macmillanstraightforward.com/resources/tests/

APPENDIX D

THE DICTOGLOSS TEXT

The Hills family from Texas, USA are the most interesting family in the country. Thomas is the father of the family. He's 52 years old and he can do everything. He can run for a long time. Every day, he goes running in his neighborhood for 40 minutes. He can also swim very well. Thomas can't speak any foreign languages, but his wife, Judy, can! She can speak French, Spanish and even Japanese. And she can teach them too. She works at a Language Academy.

Thomas and Judy Hills have two children and they can all do many things too. Robbie, 23, can't run for long distances like his father, but he can run very fast. He can run 100 meters in just 11 seconds. That's very fast. He can also fly! Not like a bird, but he uses a hang-glider. He goes hang-gliding every weekend in the hills near the family home. The youngest child is Janine, who is 19. She's similar to her mother and she loves foreign languages. She studies Italian and French and can speak both of them very well. When she's with her mother, they can speak French and nobody in the house understands them!

The text was adapted from http://www.esl-lounge.com/level1b/level-1b-elementary-the-hodgsons-can-reading.php

APPENDIX E: THE COURSE PROPOSAL

Week & Topic	Session	Object-ives	Contents				Materials	Home-work
			Listening	Vocabulary & Grammar	Critical Thinking	Writing		
1 Tabloids	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.4, O2.1, O3.1, O3.3	Students listen to a conversation between two friends talking about a social media website and practice • identifying the audience, • identifying the purpose	• Vocabulary for introducing yourself (major, age, free time activities) • The copula 'be' • Present Simple for knowledge and likes/dislikes	• Understanding a celebrity's personal profile • Brainstorming about a personal profile	• Writing a personal profile in a short paragraph to be posted on social media	• A blank template from Face-book	
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.2, O2.2, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to an excerpt from a biography of the singer Beyoncé and practice • identifying the genre • identifying the audience	• Vocabulary for some basic events in a celebrity's life (career, private life, achievements, etc) • A revision of Past Simple tense for factual information • A revision of sequence markers	• Analysing the important events in a person's life • Making a mini search on a celebrity's life • Selecting important events	• Planning a biography • Writing a biography of a celebrity in a paragraph	• Teacher-prepared handouts	
2 Books	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15	O1.2, O1.5, O2.2, O2.3, O3.1, O3.2,	Students listen to an online book tour by the author Patti Henry and practice • identifying the genre,	• Vocabulary related to the literary genres and some collocations and adjectives for book reviews	• Analysing a book review by looking at the lexical choice and the organization	• Planning a review to be posted on social media • Composing a mini review on a	• A blank template from goodreads.com	

Unit	Day/Time	Objectives	Listening	Language	Speaking/Brainstorming	Reading/Analysis	Writing	Resources
	15:30-16:00		• note-taking		• Brainstorming for a short review on the last book learners' have read		book on goodreads.com	
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.3, O1.4, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a conversation between two friends comparing two books by the same author and practice • identifying the attitude, • identifying the purpose	• Adjectives to describe books • Comparative and Superlative Adjectives	• Analyse a simple paragraph in terms of its contents in a mind-map • Create a mind-map for a book		• Students will use the mind-map they prepared to write a paragraph about a book	• Teacher-prepared handouts
3 Cultures	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.4, O2.2, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a lecture about Amazonian tribes and practice • identifying the audience • identifying the purpose	• 'would' for hypothetical situations • Target words related to daily practices, traditions and culture of some Amazonian tribes	• Brainstorming on how different the learners' lives would be if they were from a tribe • Create a poster about it	• Students will comment on a thread on Reddit and post their answers to the question they brainstormed about.		• Teacher-prepared handouts
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.2, O1.5, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2	Students listen to a ted-talk about the history of chocolate and practice • identifying the genre • note-taking	• Target words related to child labour, chocolate industry, etc.	• Brainstorming on the solutions against abuse of child labour in chocolate industry • Creating a mind-map for the solutions	• Analysing the parts of a well-organized paragraph • Studying topic and controlling idea in a topic sentence		• Teacher-prepared handouts • https://www.ted.com/talks/deanna_pucciarelli_the_hist

					• Practicing writing topic sentences • Writing a paragraph about solutions against child abuse in chocolate industry	<u>ory_of_c hocolate? language =en</u>	
	Tuesda y 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O2.2, O3.1, O3.2	Students will listen to an interview of a Hollywood production release and practice • identifying the audience • identifying the genre • identifying the attitude	• Vocabulary to describe production and film industry	• Brainstorming about learners' favourite films • Creating a poster about it	• Students will write a comment describing their favourite films on a Facebook group about film reviews	• Teacher-prepared handouts	
4 Cinema	*Thursd ay* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.5, O1.6, O2.3 O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students will listen to a student presentation about the future of cinematography and practice • note-taking • making predictions	• Adjectives and collocations to describe films, • Modals for predictions ('will, may, might') • Phrases for predictions (likely, unlikely, probably, etc.)	• Brainstorming about the future of cinema in Turkey on a mind map	• Revising the parts of a well-organized paragraph and focus on the supporting arguments • Practice writing supporting sentences • Writing a well-organized paragraph about the future of	• Teacher-prepared handouts	Writin g Portfol io 1

								cinema industry in Turkey
5 Science	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.4, O1.10, O2.2, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a short talk about Leonardo Da Vinci and practice • identifying the audience, • identifying the purpose, • listening for specific information	• Descriptive adjectives • Collocations & structures for describing objects	• Brainstorming ideas about a very useful device which would make a difference in learners' life • Create a poster about it	• Writing a post about learners' own designs on Tumblr	• Teacher-prepared handouts	Mid-course Exam
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.4, O1.5, O1.9, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2	Students listen to a student presentation about Stephen Hawking and practice • identifying purpose • taking notes, • listening for numbers	• Pronouncing numbers • Collocations about achievements • Phrasal verbs about life events	• Brainstorming ideas about the learners' favourite device/technological tool • Exploring the device/tool on a mind-map	• Revising the organization of a descriptive paragraph • Writing a well-organized, descriptive paragraph	• Teacher-prepared handouts	Writing Portfolio 2
6 Work	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.5, O1.6, O1.10, O2.7, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students will listen to a job interview and practice • listening for specific information • note-taking • making predictions	• Vocabulary about working (i.e. full-time, salary, etc.) • Collocations about work life (i.e. flexible working hours, work-life balance, etc.)	• Exploring some LinkedIn profiles to have an understanding of the sections of a business profile • Thinking about the kind of information can be written in a	• Understanding the sections of a job application form • Filling in a job application form	Teacher-prepared handouts	

	Day/Time	Objectives	Listening	Language	Activities	Writing	Materials	Assessment
						job application form		
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.4, O1.6, O2.6, O3.1, O3.3	Students listen to a meeting at sales department in a company and practice - identifying purpose - identifying audience, - making predictions	• Vocabulary related to jobs, • Structures for offers & suggestions	• Brainstorming ideas about possible suggestions to manage budget • Identifying between formal and informal language	• Analysing the format of a semi-formal email, • Writing a well-organized semi-formal email to a colleague and make suggestions about managing a budget.	Teacher-prepared handouts	Writing Portfolio 3
7 Travel	*Tuesday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.1, O1.2, O1.4, O2.5, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a vlog where a student introduces Prague and practice - identifying the audience - identifying the genre - identifying the purpose	• Vocabulary about tourism and travel (i.e. passport, backpack, etc.) • Adjectives used for describing places • Directions	• Making an internet search on learners' favourite city to travel to • Brainstorming what they would need for a weekend vacation there • Creating a poster	• Studying the parts of an informal email • Writing an informal email to a friend and plan a weekend in their favourite city	Teacher-prepared handouts	
	Thursday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.3, O1.7, O1.8, O2.3, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a telephone conversation between two friends and practice - identifying the attitude, - identifying the gist,	• A revision of past tense • Vocabulary and collocations for hotels and activities (check -in, transportation, sightseeing, etc.)	• Brainstorming about a memorable vacation and take notes	• Revising the paragraph organization • Writing a well-organized paragraph about a memorable vacation	Teacher-prepared handouts	Writing Portfolio 4

	Day/Time	Objectives	Listening	Vocabulary & Grammar	Speaking	Writing	Materials	Portfolio
			• identifying the main idea					
	Tuesday 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.2, O1.5, O1.10, O2.2, O2.8, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a recipe and practice • identifying the genre, • note-taking, • listening for specific information	• Vocabulary and collocations for cooking, • Revision of the imperatives • Revision of the (un)countable nouns & quantifiers • Revision of the sequence markers	• Brainstorming about learners' favourite types of food/dishes (dessert, main course, etc.)	• Writing a recipe of learners' favourite food/dish • Writing the recipe as a post on social media	Teacher-prepared handouts	
8 Food	*Thursday* 13:30-14:15 14:30-15:15 15:30-16:00	O1.3, O1.7, O1.8, O1.10 O2.3, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Students listen to a monologue about vending machines and practice • Identifying the attitude, • Listening for the gist, • Listening for the main idea, • Listening for specific information	• Adjectives for describing food • Vocabulary for food and health • Revision of comparative and superlative forms	Brainstorming ideas about the food being sold in vending machines in Turkish schools	• Revising paragraph organization, • Writing a well-organized paragraph about the type of food which should be sold in vending machines in Turkey	• Empower B1+ Unit 6B (Listening) • Teacher-prepared handouts	Writing Portfolio 5 A letter for future

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APPENDIX F: LEARNING ASSESSMENT & COURSE

EVALUATION PLANS

LEARNING ASSESSMENT PLAN

	Assessment Type	Objectives	Explanation	When
1 **Formative**	Reflective Task Sheet 1	O1.1, O1.4, O3.1, O3.3	Reflective Task Sheets focus only on Listening and Systems priorities. Learners are directed to a listening source every Tuesday and Thursday to complete the activities in these sheets. Writing priorities are generally left aside on purpose since the learners will be revising and editing the 1st drafts of their tasks after every Thursday. Additionally, these writing priorities are revisited every weekend as part of Take Home Tasks.	Given at the end of each session (except for the last session) to be submitted in the following session. Since there will not be a Reflective Task Sheet at the end of the course, that last session does not cover any new objectives. Instead, it revisits previous objectives.
	Reflective Task Sheet 2	O1.1, O1.2, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 3	O1.2, O1.5, O3.1, O3.2		
	Reflective Task Sheet 4	O1.3, O1.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 5	O1.1, O1.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 6	O1.2, O1.5, O3.1, O3.2		
	Reflective Task Sheet 7	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O3.1, O3.2		
	Reflective Task Sheet 8	O1.5, O1.6, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 9	O1.1, O1.4, O1.10, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 10	O1.4, O1.5, O1.9, O3.1, O3.2		
	Reflective Task Sheet 11	O1.5, O1.6, O1.10, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 12	O1.1, O1.4, O1.6, O3.1, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 13	O1.1, O1.2, O1.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 14	O1.3, O1.7, O1.8, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
	Reflective Task Sheet 15	O1.2, O1.5, O1.10, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		
2	Take Home Task 1	O1.1, O1.2, O1.4, O2.1, O2.2, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	Take Home Tasks aim to help learners gain autonomous studying skills on the skills/subskills	Given every Thursday to be handed in next Tuesday
	Take Home Task 2	O1.2, O1.3, O1.4, O1.5, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3		

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Take Home Task 3	O1.1, O1.2, O1.4, O1.5, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	covered in the topic of the week. Hence, the
Take Home Task 4	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O1.5, O1.6, O2.2, O2.3, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	listening and writing sections leave space for strategy training
Take Home Task 5	O1.1, O1.4, O1.5, O1.9, O1.10, O2.2, O2.3, O2.4, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	activities which lead to a metacognitive awareness of the
Take Home Task 6	O1.1, O1.4, O1.5, O1.6, O2.6, O2.7, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	topic through checklists, vocabulary
Take Home Task 7	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O1.4, O1.7, O1.8, O2.3, O2.5, O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	journals (to enrich students' lexicon through self-study) and bilingualized dictionaries. Since these Take Home Tasks are not used for any summative purposes, they are not scored; yet a record of student performance is kept for formative feedback. Written work is checked by both the students and the teacher.

Summative 3	Process Portfolio	O2.3, O2.4, O2.6	Process portfolio includes the learners' writing tasks of Thursday sessions (a total of 5 tasks). The learners will not start adding tasks to their portfolio before they cover paragraph organization. Each task affects the grading 10% (a total of 50% of the grading will be taken out of the portfolio assignment). Each task will be scored out of 10 point, 4 of which will be from the 1st drafts; and the remaining 6 points will be from the 2nd drafts.	Students will add 5 of their writing tasks from Thursday sessions to their portfolio. The assignments to be added to the portfolio are specified on the course proposal.

	Mid-course Exam	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O1.4, O1.5, O1.6 O2.1, O2.2, O2.3, O2.4 O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	This exam includes the elements of both direct and indirect testing. It includes a listening task which gets students to take notes during the first-listening; and a set of questions to be answered in the 2nd listening, a cloze test and a writing task which guides the students to plan and organize their paragraphs through some questions before they write their paragraphs. The test lasts about 50 minutes.	At the end of Week 4 (It is marked in the 5th week in the course proposal)
	End-course Exam	O1.1, O1.2, O1.3, O1.4, O1.5, O1.6, O1.7, O1.8, O1.9, O1.10 O2.2, O2.3, O2.4, O2.5, O2.6, O2.7, 02.8 O3.1, O3.2, O3.3	End-course exam is planned very similar to the Mid-course Exam. It aims to cover as many objectives as it can.	At the end of the course (it is not marked on the course proposal on purpose as it will be held in the following week, which is beyond the planned course duration).

COURSE EVALUATION PLAN

	Evaluation Type	Explanation	When
1	Online Questionnaires	Learners are asked to take a 5-minutes online survey which will be prepared on SurveyMonkey. After every session, the questionnaire will be renewed; yet the questions will be very general and quite similar to the questions that were asked a week before since they all will be general questions about the sessions. The answers will be collected anonymously.	After every session
2	End-of-course Interview	Students will be asked some guiding questions and are expected to answer them in a class interview	At the end of the course (Week 8)
3	'A letter for future' & Future Survey	Learners will write an anonymous paragraph about how they felt about the course, in what ways it has helped them develop listening and writing skills and in what ways it has been limiting for them. They will be asked to bring this letter as homework for the last session. The teachers will not read the letters immediately.	Letter: homework to be submitted in the last session of the course
		Learners will be invited to participate in an online survey 3-4 weeks after the course. In the questionnaire, they will be directed some guiding questions about if and how they have made use of the content they have covered in their future studies or if the course has been adequate for them to give opportunities to practice, etc.	3 or 4 weeks after the end of the course
		Once the online surveys are completed, the teachers will open the letters to cross check the learners' views on the course.	
4	Teacher logs	The teacher will keep logs of each session. These logs refer to the specific instances about the content, learner reactions, or classroom dynamics. They will try to cover as many details as possible.	After every session, on the same day

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