To my beloved family

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TURKISH

UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY STUDENTS' READINESS FOR LEARNER

AUTONOMY

The Graduate School of Education
of
Bilkent University

by

ASLI KARABIYIK

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I certify that I have read this thesis and have found that it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CULTURE OF LEARNING AND TURKISH UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY STUDENTS' READINESS FOR LEARNER AUTONOMY

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The applicability of learner autonomy in different cultural contexts has been widely researched in the literature in recent years. However, the studies investigating the connection between culture and learner autonomy in Asian cultures have been inconclusive as they revealed contradictory findings about Asian students' reactions to autonomous learning. Taking this inconclusiveness as an impetus, this study aimed to investigate Turkish university learners' readiness for learner autonomy and its relationship with learners' culture of learning to explore whether learners' approaches to learner autonomy were based on their culturally predetermined learning behaviors or could be explained on the basis of differences in their educational backgrounds and experiences.

This study gathered data from 408 students from the preparatory schools of seven universities in Turkey. The data were collected through questionnaires, and

analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics, a one-way ANOVA, cross tabulations and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

Analysis of the quantitative data revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between the participants' culture of learning and their readiness for learner autonomy, which suggested that the extent of exposure to autonomous activities in the high schools in which the participants studied had an effect on their subsequent perceptions and behaviors related to learner autonomy.

This study implied that national and ethnic definitions of culture, which describe all learners in homogeneous terms as if they were alike, may not sufficiently explain the differences in learners' autonomous behaviors. Therefore, learners' previous learning experiences -culture of learning- along with other individual factors should be taken into account in any attempts to promote learner autonomy.

Key words: learner autonomy, culture of learning, perception

ÖZET

ÖĞRENME KÜLTÜRÜ VE TÜRKİYE'DEKİ ÜNİVERSİTE HAZIRLIK SINIFI

ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ÖZERK ÖĞRENMEYE HAZIR BULUNUSLUKLARI

ARASINDAKI İLİŞKİ

Aslı Karabıyık

Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

Tez Yöneticisi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Julie Mathews-Aydınlı

Temmuz 2008

Öğrenci özerkliğinin farklı kültürel bağlamlarda uygulanıp uygulanamayacağı son yıllarda literatürde geniş çapta araştırılmıştır. Ancak kültür ile öğrenci özerkliği arasındaki ilişkiyi irdeleyen çalışmalar Asyalı öğrencilerin özerk öğrenmeye karşı tutumlarıyla ilgili tutarsız bulgular sundukları için kesin bir sonuç elde edilememiştir. Bu durumdan yola çıkarak, bu çalışma Türk üniversitelerindeki öğrencilerin öğrenci özerkliğine hazır olup olmadıklarını, özerklik ile öğrenme kültürü arasındaki ilişkiyi ve öğrencilerin öğrenme özerkliğine olan tutumlarının kültürel olarak önceden belirlenmiş öğrenme davranışlarından mı yoksa eğitim geçmişleri ve deneyimlerinden mi kaynaklandığını incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır.

Bu çalışma için Türkiye'deki yedi üniversitenin hazırlık okullarından toplam 408 öğrenciden veri toplanmıştır. Veriler anket aracılığıyla toplanmış ve betimsel istatistik, tek yönlü varyans analizi, çapraz tablolar ve Pearson çarpım moment korelasyon katsayısı kullanılarak nicel çözümleme yapılmıştır.

Nicel veri analizinin sonuçlarına göre katılımcıların öğrenme kültürü ve öğrenci özerkliğine hazır bulunuşlukları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir ilişki bulunmaktadır, yani öğrencinin öğrenim gördüğü lisedeki özerk etkinliklere ne kadar maruz kaldığı öğrencinin özerklikle ilgili algı ve davranışlarında etkilidir.

Ayrıca bu çalışma öğrencilerin tümünü homojen koşullarda betimleyen ulusal ve etnik kültür tanımlarının öğrencilerin özerk davranışları arasındaki farklara doyurucu bir açıklamada bulunamayacağına işaret etmektedir. Bu nedenle, öğrenci özerkliğini arttırmayı hedefleyen çalışmalarda diğer bireysel etkenlerin yanı sıra öğrencilerin geçmiş öğrenme deneyimleri- öğrenme kültürü- de incelenmelidir.

Anahtar kelimeler: öğrenci özerkliği, öğrenme kültürü, algı

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Give a man a fish, he eats for a day; teach him how to fish and he will never go hungry. This well-known saying highlights the importance of learning how to learn and characterizes learners as active participants who are responsible for their own learning. The objective of having learners become self-sufficient requires a shift of responsibility from the teacher to the learners, and this important shift has begun to take place in the field of teaching over the last three decades. As a result of this shift, researchers have shown an increased interest in the concept of learner autonomy (LA), which is considered a necessary condition for effective learning (e.g. Chan, 2001b; Chan, Spratt, & Humphreys, 2002; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Dickinson, 1987; Littlewood, 1999). The applicability of learner autonomy in different cultural contexts has also been under discussion in recent years (Littlewood, 1999; Pennycook, 1997). However, the research on learner autonomy conducted in Asian contexts in particular does not provide a consistent picture of Asian students and their autonomous learning practices (Chan et al., 2002). This inconclusiveness has given impetus to this study, which aims to investigate Turkish university learners' readiness for learner autonomy and to explore whether learners' approaches to learner autonomy are culturally determined or can be attributed to differences in the learning culture that they are familiar with.

Background of the Study

In the field of language teaching, the concept of learner autonomy was first brought into play with the Council of Europe's Modern Language Project in 1971. The leadership of the project passed in 1972 to Henri Holec, an important figure within the field of autonomy. The establishment of the Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues (CRAPEL) was one of the outcomes of this project. At CRAPEL, one of the aims was to provide adults with access to a rich collection of second language materials in a self-access resource centre. The idea behind this center was to have learners experiment with self-directed learning (Benson, 2001). Thus, "the ability to take charge of one's learning", as defined by Holec (1981, p. 3), was seen as a natural product of this kind of learning. Holec's definition highlighted all aspects of learning, as the learners were seen as the determiners of their own learning by setting their goals, choosing materials and evaluating their own progress. Little (1991) mentions the psychological aspect of learner autonomy by stating that learner autonomy "presupposes, but also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning - a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action" (p. 4).

In the varying definitions of learner autonomy, the necessity of taking responsibility for one's own learning is a common point stressed. Hence, several researchers have been concerned with promoting the necessary skills to have learners take charge of their own learning and have proposed a number of justifications for advocating autonomy in the learning process. They state that learning becomes more meaningful, permanent and effective when learners take responsibility for their own

learning as they learn what they are ready to learn (Dickinson, 1987; Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Crab, 1993 cited in Yildirim, 2005). This control also leads to motivation, which in turn leads to success in language learning (Dickinson, 1995).

In addition to the importance of promoting learner autonomy, several researchers have described the characteristics of autonomous learners (Benson, 2001; Candy, 1991; Chan, 2001b; Cotterall, 1995). According to these researchers, autonomous learners are those who set their own goals, employ learning strategies to achieve those goals, select their resources according to their needs, reflect on their learning, work cooperatively, and assess their own progress.

Considering the characteristics of autonomous learners and the importance of learner autonomy, one may claim that fostering autonomous learning should be a general goal in teaching. However, several factors exert influence on the development of learner autonomy. Thus, the literature suggests that before making any attempt to promote learner autonomy, its manifestations in different contexts should be investigated first to prepare an appropriate plan for fostering autonomous learning (Chan et al., 2002; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Kocak, 2003; Spratt, Humphreys, & Chan, 2002). Considering this, several attempts have been made to explore the promotion of learner autonomy in different contexts. For example, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002) investigated the role of motivation in facilitating autonomous learning. The results suggested that motivation had an impact on learners' readiness for learner autonomy. Additionally, Cotterall (1995) investigated the role of learner beliefs in reflecting learners' readiness for LA. In the light of the findings, she suggests that learner beliefs about the roles of teacher and students in learning, and about themselves as learners influence their responsiveness to the

autonomous practices in class. In an extension of her earlier study, Cotterall (1999) attempted to investigate the language learning beliefs of a group of students by using a questionnaire which identified important factors in autonomous language learning. The study included six variables: the role of the teacher; the role of feedback; the learners' sense of self-efficacy; important strategies; dimensions of strategies-related behavior; and beliefs about the nature of language learning. The results of the fourth part of the questionnaire, which was related to strategies, showed that the use of two key metacognitive strategies, 'monitoring' and 'evaluating', was quite limited. In the light of these findings, she suggests that unless learners are trained in the use of these strategies, they will face some difficulties in classrooms where autonomous learning is practiced.

As another variable affecting the promotion of learner autonomy, the role of culture has also been examined recently. Palfreyman (2003) states that while the idea of learner autonomy has been promoted widely by Western countries, attempts to implement it in Eastern cultures have encountered some difficulties and those difficulties are attributed to the cultural differences between Eastern and Western cultures. These views have been based on the view of Asian learners' acceptance of the teacher's power and authority (Benson, 2001). On the other hand, other researchers (Littlewood, 1999; Pierson, 1996) claim that autonomy is valid for all learners. For example, Littlewood (1999) investigated "the aspects of autonomy that might be strongly rooted in East Asian traditions" and found that the results did not confirm commonly-expressed generalizations.

The question of whether or not learner autonomy is appropriate for Eastern cultures calls up another issue: questioning the definition of culture in homogeneous

terms as if all the members were alike. Is it the broad ethnic or national culture which has an influence on students' autonomous learning behaviors? Is there really more difference in attitudes to learning between Asian and European countries than between individuals within each country? Littlewood (2001) examines this issue by investigating the attitudes of 2656 students from Eastern and Western cultures towards learning. His purpose was to investigate whether the preconceptions about Asian students can be considered as reflections of their actual behaviors in class. The results of the study suggest that there is not much difference between Asian and Western students in terms of attitudes towards learning. Considering the results, he states that:

> if Asian students do indeed adopt the passive classroom attitudes that are often claimed, this is more likely to be a consequence of the educational contexts that have been or are now provided for them, than of any inherent dispositions of the students themselves. (p. 33)

<div align="center">Statement of the Problem</div>

Over the last 20 years, there has been considerable interest in the concept of learner autonomy (LA), which is considered a necessary condition for effective learning (e.g. Chan, 2001a; Chan et al., 2002; Cotterall, 1995, 1999; Dickinson, 1995; Holec, 1981; Littlewood, 1999). Some of the literature on learner auonomy suggests that culture has an effect on LA and the concept of learner autonomy may not suit Eastern contexts (Benson, 2001; Pennycook, 1997). However, studies that particularly focus on the connection between culture and learner autonomy have been inconclusive in the sense that they show contrastive views of Asian students and their reactions to autonomous learning (Chan et al., 2002). The inconclusiveness of the previous studies suggests that a broad understanding of ethnic, national or regional

culture is inadequate to make broad comparisons, as if all the members in a specific culture were alike. Considering this, there is a need to explore the culture – learner autonomy connection in greater depth by taking into consideration more specific variables of culture such as culture of learning.

Many major university preparatory programs in Turkey are increasingly leaning towards curricula which demand greater autonomy from learners. However, students have been shown to exhibit either resistance or reluctance while engaging in the various kinds of activities which require learner autonomy (e.g. Bozkurt, 2007). Thus, there is a need to understand where those problems for learner autonomy might stem from. If the apparent lack of student readiness for learner autonomy is being caused by the type of learning culture that the students come from, we need to be aware of this to start moving the students in the direction of autonomy from the first day of the preparatory program and prepare our students better for the changes in the curricula.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

This study attempts to address the following research questions:

1. What kinds of learning cultures do Turkish university preparatory students come from?

2. Do the students' learning cultures differ based on (a) the geographic region and (b) the type of the high school in which they studied?

3. To what extent are the students ready for autonomous language learning?

    a) How do the students perceive their own and their teachers' responsibilities?

     b) What are the students' perceptions of their decision making abilities in learning English?

     c) What is the students' level of motivation for learning English?

     d) What kind of autonomous learning activities do the students engage in inside and outside the classroom?

     e) What is the frequency of the students' metacognitive strategy use in learning English?

4. Do the students' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities, decision making abilities, autonomous practices, motivation levels and metacognitive strategy use differ based on a) the geographic region of the high school they graduated from, (b) the type of the high school that they graduated from and (c) English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between culture of learning and the students' readiness for learner autonomy?

Significance of the Study

Recently, the literature has offered contradictory findings about the appropriateness of learner autonomy in different cultures (Chan et al., 2002). This study, which intends to provide the current picture of a wide range of Turkish preparatory students' perceptions and experiences in terms of learner autonomy, may contribute to the existing literature by giving further insight into specific variables that might affect the development of learner autonomy. Thus, the findings of this study might help resolve the inconclusiveness in the literature by either strengthening one argument over another or showing that previous studies might have some

methodological shortcomings, as they describe cultures in homogeneous terms without taking into consideration more complex variables of culture.

At the local level, by revealing more about the relationship between culture and learner autonomy, it is expected that the results of the study may help predict potential problems with attempts to promote learner autonomy, and provide guidance for curriculum development, materials revision and classroom practices, to adapt them to students' learning realities. Information gathered on the relative importance of culture of learning in particular may be of use to the Ministry of National Education, which may choose to draw on this information in setting up aligned curricula which contribute to learner autonomy from primary school to university. Such curriculum redesign could help to ensure that learners can start university more prepared for taking charge of their own learning with the necessary skills to be life-long learners.

Conclusion

In this chapter, an overview of the literature on learner autonomy has been provided. The statement of the problem, research questions, and the significance of the study have also been presented. In the second chapter, the relevant literature is reviewed in more detail. In the third chapter, the methodology of the study is explained. In the fourth chapter, the results of the study are presented, and in the last chapter, conclusions are drawn from the data in the light of the literature.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

In this chapter, the literature relevant to this study will be reviewed. First, the definitions of and some misconceptions about learner autonomy will be presented. In the following section, some important events and factors that have contributed to the emergence of learner autonomy as an important factor in language teaching will be covered. The subsequent section will describe the characteristics of autonomous learners. Next, several factors which have an influence on the promotion of learner autonomy will be discussed. Then, the concept of culture of learning, as one of the factors affecting the development of learner autonomy (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), will be discussed in detail with a specific reference to the Turkish educational system. Lastly, several research studies conducted in other cultural settings and in Turkey will be presented.

Definitions of Learner Autonomy

Learner autonomy is defined in many different ways by many different researchers and theorists. The most frequently cited definition of learner autonomy is that it is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Holec, 1981). Holec further explains that learner autonomy requires taking responsibility for all aspects of learning such as "determining the objectives, defining the content and progression, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has been acquired" (p. 3).

In Holec's definition, the concept of autonomy is accepted as a capacity of the learner rather than of learning situations. On the other hand, Dickinson (1987) defines learner autonomy as situations in which learners work under their own direction by taking all decisions for their own learning outside the traditional classroom.

To clarify what learner autonomy is and what it entails, it may be beneficial to discuss what it is not. Little (1991) argues that there are some misconceptions about learner autonomy. According to him, the most widespread misconception is that learner autonomy is synonymous with self instruction, and autonomous learners work independently of the teacher. Secondly, it is mistakenly believed that any teacher intervention interferes with the autonomy that learners have developed. Additionally, he argues that it is not a methodology, so a series of lesson plans cannot be prepared for the promotion of learner autonomy. A fourth misconception is that autonomous behavior can be described easily. It is hard to describe it because it is affected by learners' ages, their learning needs and so on. Finally, learner autonomy is not "a steady state achieved by certain learners" (p. 4). It is difficult to guarantee its permanence, and being autonomous in one area does not mean that the learner will apply it to every other area of his or her learning. After discussing these misconceptions about learner autonomy, Little explains what learner autonomy is. He adds a psychological dimension to Holec's definition and defines learner autonomy as:

> … a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action. It presupposes but also entails that the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of learning. The capacity of learner autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts. (p. 4)

In these varying definitions of learner autonomy, 'taking responsibility for one's own learning' is the common point emphasized. Benson (2001) also agrees on this commonly shared definition and claims that it is not necessary to define autonomy by using more precise terms, as 'control over learning' can be identified in a variety of forms. Therefore, it is crucial to "identify the form in which we choose to recognize it in the contexts of our own research and practice" (p. 48).

In this study, learner autonomy is taken as a capacity as in Holec's (1981) definition, but not as situations in which learners work under their own directions outside the traditional classroom as Dickinson (1987) defines, since the main purpose of this study is to investigate learners' autonomous behaviors in formal settings where the teacher is available to facilitate the learning process and cooperate with learners to build knowledge. Therefore, the focus here is on the interactive learning process in which learners gradually gain more control over the process and content of their learning.

Autonomy in Language Teaching: the Historical Background

Gremmo and Riley (1995) discuss some factors that contributed to the emergence and spread of the concept of autonomy in the field of language teaching. Firstly, with the minority rights movement, members from different ethnic, religious and linguistic minorities have been under focus in education and learning, and this has had a direct influence on the development of adult education in Europe. Established in 1971, The Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project was the first manifestation of this influence. Initially, the project concentrated on the language needs of migrant workers and aimed to provide adult learners with opportunities for lifelong learning. The *Centre de Recherches et d'Applications en Langues* (CRAPEL), one of the

outcomes of the project, became a place for research and practice in the field. The approach developed at CRAPEL was based on the idea of self-directed learning with a focus on creating responsible learners who could benefit from self-access centers. Henri Holec's project report (1981), which addressed the idea of autonomy in learning, played a key role in popularizing autonomy in language learning (Benson, 2001).

Gremmo and Riley (1995) point to reactions against behaviorism in psychology, education and linguistics as one of the factors which had an influence on the development of learner autonomy in language learning. These reactions emphasized learning as a process and saw individuals as active participants in the learning process. Moreover, this active nature of the way that individuals learn highlighted the social aspect of learning and put an emphasis on interaction, which led to a shift towards more communicative approaches to language teaching. Proponents of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) support the idea that "the primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 71). Focusing on both functional and structural elements of language and emphasizing the interdependence between form and meaning (Brown, 2001), the learning theory of CLT assumes that tasks that involve real communication, in which the language is used meaningfully, promote learning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In CLT, learners are provided with ample opportunities to use the target language for communicative purposes. Therefore, unlike traditional approaches, CLT emphasizes learner-centered and experience-based learning process in which learners are negotiators, communicators and discoverers of information, but not the passive receptors of knowledge transmitted from the teacher (Nunan, 1991). In the same vein,

CLT encourages an equal relationship between the teacher and the student. The teacher takes on the roles of a facilitator, a co-communicator, a needs analyst, an organizer and a negotiator, but not an authority. Thus, basic ideas of autonomy, which place learners at the center of the teaching and the learning process have come into harmony with current approaches in language teaching (Benson, 2001; Littlewood, 1996).

The growth of technology has also played a role in the development of learner autonomy and self-access in language teaching. Technological tools such as the tape-recorder, the fast-copier, the video-recorder, the computer and the photocopier are put together in self access centers, which let students choose when, where and what to study by making decisions about their own learning (Gremmo & Riley, 1995).

All the changes explained above have put the learner at the center of current teaching approaches. Creating life-long learners who can make their own decisions requires the promotion of learner autonomy, which allows learners to become more independent in how they think and behave. The promotion of learner autonomy highlights a new learner profile. That is, autonomous learners are different from those who are passive receptors of knowledge in traditional approaches. Thus, the next section focuses on the characteristics of autonomous learners.

Characteristics of Autonomous Learners

Several researchers in the literature have focused on different characteristics of autonomous learners. For example, Dickinson (2004) states that autonomous learners are those who are aware of what is going on in their classes. They work collaboratively with the teacher to decide on their own learning objectives. She adds that autonomous learners can employ appropriate learning strategies consciously. For example, in approaching a piece of reading, they do not try to understand it immediately. Instead,

they go through the reading text and use the pictures, the title and subheadings to get the meaning. As a last characteristic, she mentions that autonomous learners can monitor their own use of learning strategies, and identify the strategies that are not effective for them. Cotterall (1995) agrees with Dickinson on the self assessment skills of autonomous learners and says "autonomous learners not only monitor their language learning, but also assess their efforts" (p. 199). Additionally, they can overcome problems caused by educational background, cultural norms and prior experience.

Chan (2001a) reports on the results of a questionnaire survey which revealed learners' perceptions of the characteristics of autonomous learners. Participants reported that an autonomous learner has the following characteristics:

· determined and has a clear mind
· self-motivated/is able to take initiative
· interested in (curious/cares about) learning
· inquisitive (willing to ask the teacher and classmates questions)
· focused/goal-oriented/has a set of perceived needs
· willing to explore/wants to find ways to improve his/her study
· patient (since learning is a life-long process)
· able to analyze and evaluate/willing to improve on areas that one is weak in
· able to solve problems on his/her own when the teacher is not there
· knows how to manage his/her own time. (p. 290)

Breen and Mann (1997) list certain qualities characterizing autonomous learners in a language classroom. According to them, autonomous language learners are intrinsically motivated to learn a particular language. For autonomous learners,

language learning is not just learning the rules and strategies, but a way of being. They have the metacognitive capacity to monitor their learning and to make decisions about the content of learning, the methodology and the materials to be used. Lastly, autonomous learners can transfer their abilities to learning activities outside the classroom.

Considering these qualities that autonomous learners have, it can be said that fostering autonomy in schools should be a desired goal. However, this is not an easy process and several individual factors exert influence on the development of learner autonomy. The next section deals with some of these factors.

Factors Involved in the Promotion of Learner Autonomy

For its advocates, learner autonomy is an inborn capacity (Thomson, 1996), so all learners can be autonomous if they can exert control over the factors affecting their potential for the development of learner autonomy. On the basis of this view, this section deals with the factors which may have an influence on learner autonomy, and some research findings related to those factors.

Beliefs

Studies in the area of learner beliefs show that learners' beliefs and attitudes about language learning have an influence on language learning behaviors. For example, Victori and Lockhart (1995) claim that learners cannot become autonomous if they "develop or maintain misconceptions about their own learning, if they attribute undue importance to factors that are external to their own action" (p. 225). Cotterall (1995; 1999) states that autonomous language behaviour may be managed by language learning beliefs, and beliefs may act as either a facilitator or an obstacle for the

development of learner autonomy. Taking this as a starting point, Cotterall (1995) conducted a questionnaire study of the language learning beliefs of language learners. The aim of the study was to see if participants' responses revealed any particular clusters of beliefs. She administered a 26-item questionnaire to a group of adult ESL learners. Factor-analysis of the learners' responses to the questionnaire revealed six factors in students' sets of beliefs: the role of the teacher, the role of feedback, learner independence, learner confidence in study ability, experience of language learning and approach to studying. After discussing the relationship between each factor and autonomous learning, the writer concludes that learners' beliefs about each factor shows the extent to which they are ready for autonomous learning. For example, in terms of the role of the teacher, students may have two different beliefs: the teacher as an authority or the teacher as a facilitator of learning. The former might act as a barrier, but "the view of the teacher as counsellor or facilitator of learning is consonant with beliefs about how autonomy could be fostered" (p. 198). Given the connection between learner beliefs and readiness for learner autonomy, Cotterall suggests that learner beliefs should be investigated first before making any attempts to promote learner autonomy.

White (1999, p. 44) makes a similar point and says "attention to expectations and beliefs can contribute to our understanding of the realities of the early stages of self-instruction in language". She reports on a longitudinal study on the expectations and emergent beliefs of beginning learners of Japanese and Spanish who did not have any experience in the self-instructed learning mode, which is defined as "situations in which learners are working without the general control of the teacher" (Dickinson, 1987, p. 11). The participants, who chose to study in the distance learning mode,

received necessary materials, which were the same as in the classroom based program, and undertook the process of self instruction. The aim of the study was to examine how the learners experienced and interpreted self-instructed language learning. Prior to the experience, the participants were interviewed about their expectations of self-instructed learning. To investigate the shift in beliefs and expectations, a cycle of interviews, ranking exercises, questionnaires, scenarios and yoked subject procedures was conducted through the five phases of data collection. The results showed that the expectations and beliefs of self-instructed learners evolved over a 12-week period. Learners' experience in the distance learning mode prompted these changes. That is, as they gained experience in the new learning mode, they revised and modified their expectations and beliefs, which were developed prior to experience, and this adjustment helped them adapt to the new learning context. Considering the results, the writers argue that beliefs have a role in how we react, experience and adapt to new learning situations.

Motivation

Researchers generally argue that there is a definite interface between motivation and autonomy. However the direction of the relationship between motivation and autonomy in language learning has been a controversial issue, and the question of whether autonomy enhances motivation or motivation leads to autonomy generates the controversy.

Dickinson's review article on autonomy and motivation (1995) argues that motivation is the result of taking responsibility for learning outcomes, and she concludes that:

> …enhanced motivation is conditional on learners taking responsibility for their own learning, being able to control their own learning and perceiving that their learning successes or failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control. (p. 174)

Similarly, in the Self-Determination Theory of Deci and Ryan (1985), it is argued that autonomy is the prerequisite for intrinsically motivated behaviors. Additionally, Dörnyei (1994) discusses the motivational components that are specific to learning situations, and considers the teacher's authority type to be one of the factors affecting L2 motivation. He argues that if the teacher supports learners' autonomy by sharing responsibility with students and involving them in the decision-making process, this enhances "student self-determination and intrinsic motivation" (p. 278). Likewise, Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) reports on the results of an empirical survey that investigated motivational strategies in the classroom. For this purpose, 200 language teachers were given a set of motivational strategies and asked to report how important they considered certain motivational strategies. The results of the survey showed that the strategies that were used to promote learner autonomy in the class such as sharing responsibility with the students and encouraging questions from the students were considered very important by the participants. The results of this study, along with the claims of the researchers whose views were explained above, support the idea that autonomy precedes motivation.

On the other hand, several researchers argue that motivation generates autonomy. For example, Littlewood (1996) examines the components that make up autonomy and claims that the extent to which a learner possesses ability and willingness to act independently determines his capacity to take control of his learning.

He further argues that willingness to act independently depends on learners' motivation and knowledge. Thus, he considers motivation one of the components necessary for autonomous learning.

Spratt, Humphreys, and Chan (2002) researched the question of whether autonomy or motivation comes first by conducting a questionnaire study at Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The comparison between the questionnaire sections related to learners' level of motivation and the frequency of autonomous learning activities that learners engaged in inside and outside the class showed that there was a significant relationship between autonomy and learners' engagement in autonomous activities. Follow-up interviews were carried out to find the reasons for the low uptake of many activities. Respondents pointed out that they were not motivated enough to participate in the activities that require learner autonomy. In the learners' eyes, motivation appeared to precede autonomy. Thus, the writers conclude that the absence of motivation may be an inhibiting factor for the development of learner autonomy, which is in line with Littlewood's claims.

Metacognitive Strategies

Researchers also emphasize the influence of metacognitive strategies on the development of learner autonomy. Metacognitive strategies include behaviors such as "thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring the learning task, and evaluating how well one has learned" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 137), which are closely related to autonomy in learning (Reinders, 2000). Oxford (1990) considers metacognitive strategies to be actions that help learners control their own learning. She further argues that learners should be familiar with metacognitive

strategies in order to manage their learning. Thus, it can be said that employing metacognitive strategies is a sign of learner autonomy.

In the literature, there are also several empirical studies which provide support for the role of metacognitive strategy employment in learner autonomy development. For example, White (1995) compares the strategies of distance and classroom foreign language learners to investigate the degree of autonomy that learners assume under different learning conditions. The results revealed that distance learners in a self-instruction context employed the monitoring and evaluation dimensions of metacognition more frequently than classroom learners. In terms of the individual metacognitive strategies, distance learners were also found to use self-management more frequently. Considering the results, White argues that distance language learners try to meet the demands of a self-directed learning mode, which requires learners to take complete responsibility for their own learning, by developing metacognitive strategies that help them manage the process of language learning for themselves. Thus, she suggests that "autonomy in language learning results from the way in which, and the extent to which, the learner manages his/her interactions with the TL, rather than from the use of any specific set of cognitive strategies" (p. 217).

These studies on the factors affecting the development of learner autonomy reveal that autonomous learning is affected by several individual variables. However, these variables are not constant and are open to change if learners can exercise some degree of control over these variables to move gradually in the direction of autonomy.

Apart from the individual variables which have an influence on autonomous learning behaviors, there is also empirical evidence showing that learners' previous experience of education shapes their attitudes towards language learning (e.g. Little &

Singleton, 1991 cited in Benson, 2001). As one of the aims of this study is to examine

the effect of past learning experiences, or the culture of learning that learners are

familiar with, the next section focuses on some discussions related to culture of

learning, school culture and the Turkish educational system.

Culture of Learning

Culture of learning may be one of the determining factors in learners' reactions

to innovations in the educational system. Jin and Cortazzi (1996) describe 'culture of

learning' in the following way:

> By the term 'culture of learning' we mean that much
> behavior in language classrooms is set within taken-for-
> granted frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values, beliefs
> about what constitutes good learning, about what to teach and
> learn, whether and how to ask questions, what textbooks are
> for, and how language teaching relates to broader issues of
> the nature and purpose of education. (p. 169)

They further state that culture of learning has an influence on the teaching and

learning process although teachers and learners are not aware of its effect. Children

begin to socialize into the culture of learning in their primary school years, which has a

continuous effect on secondary and university learning.

The culture of learning that learners have acquired may be shaped by the values

and policies of the schools in which they are educated. Prosser (1999) states that each

school creates its own unique culture in which the predominant values have an effect

on the guiding policies. Prosser's claim implies that each school imposes a different

culture of learning on learners, which may determine their attitudes and learning

behaviors.

The concept of 'culture of learning' challenges the claims defining one culture in homogeneous terms as if all the members were alike. However, in the literature, there are some studies which generalize certain learning behaviors to all members of a specific culture. For example, Yumuk (2002) describes the learning context in Turkey as traditional, teacher dominated, and authority oriented. She states that learners who enter universities do not possess necessary critical thinking and reflection skills due to their teacher-dependent learning habits. Additionally, Yilmaz (2007) documents the problems that learner-centered instruction in Turkey encounters. In his article, he cites John Dewey (1983 cited in Yilmaz, 2007), who pointed out that the centralized education system in Turkey was acting as a barrier to adjusting schools and curriculum on the basis of the needs and interests of learners in different provinces, urban and rural environments. John Dewey was invited to Turkey by the Turkish Ministry of National Education in 1924 to examine the education system and make recommendations for education reform and policy in Turkey. Yilmaz states that although more than seven decades have passed since Dewey's recommendations, teachers still teach the same curriculum in different regions of the country in accordance with the principles of the centralized education system. He further argues that this centralized system is not compatible with learner-centered instruction, which requires a flexible system to meet the varying needs of learners in culturally different communities.

Apart from carrying out a substantial literature review to identify the problems, Yilmaz (2007) also asked several teachers to report what kinds of problems hamper the implementation of learner-centered instruction in secondary school classrooms. The teachers' answers revealed that a teacher-centered, textbook-driven, and content-

focused approach to teaching is the dominant classroom instructional style in secondary schools in Turkey. Some teachers also pointed out the effect of the Turkish culture on instruction and learning. They stated that due to Turkish society's patriarchal structure, which depends on parental and teacher authority, students are not encouraged to speak freely in the class or in conversations at home, and this makes Turkish learners passive and lacking in initiative, not expressive of opinions, and dependent. Additionally, the teachers who participated in the study considered the classical teacher-centered, domineering and authoritarian educational style to be the most fundamental problem in the Turkish education system.

It is also stated that the Turkish education system is heavily based on memorization. Creativity, independence and responsibility are not encouraged in the curriculum (Simsek, 2004). Learners are used to learning via memorization, and this passive learning habit prevents them from being responsible for their own learning. Students do not experience learner-centered instruction in the early grades in elementary schools, and they have little experience in engaging in activities of the learner-centered approach such as learning by doing, discovering, investigating and questioning (Yilmaz, 2007)

In terms of foreign language instruction in Turkey, Kavanoz (2006) states that conventional foreign language instruction oriented around the teacher and the textbook is widely practiced in classrooms. Her study of the English language teachers' beliefs, assumptions and knowledge about learner-centeredness and the way they implement learner-centeredness in their classrooms also revealed that teachers in public schools could not provide the correct definition of learner-centered instruction. They mainly saw learner-centeredness as making students active by engaging them in grammar

focused exercises. They also defined their roles as presenters and correctors. Classroom observations showed that activities in the classrooms were arranged as whole class activities directed by the teachers.

One problem with these descriptions is that they are mostly based on anecdotal evidence and generalizations. In addition, these generalizations about Turkish students' approaches to learning may not be relevant for all learners. Learners in a classroom may have different learning habits that they have acquired in different learning cultures. Thus, the extent to which these approaches to learning are affected by the learning context, the culture of learning and environmental factors needs to be further investigated (Ramburuth, 2001; Smith, 2002).

Related Studies

Learner Autonomy and Culture

In this section, learner autonomy will be investigated from a cultural point of view. Whether the cultural background of learners acts as a hindrance in promoting learner autonomy is a controversial issue in the literature recently. Some scholars argue that learner autonomy is appropriate for all learners regardless of their culture (Littlewood, 1999; Pierson, 1996) while others claim that learner autonomy is a Western educational trend unsuited to Eastern contexts (Pennycook, 1997). In the course of this debate, those who doubt the universality of learner autonomy base their views on certain cultural traits of Asian learners, who are generally characterized as having strong orientations towards the acceptance of power, authority, collectivism and interdependence (Littlewood, 1999). The Asian culture of learning is claimed to influence learners' classroom participation patterns, such as non-participation, lack of

questioning, too much reliance on the teacher, and lack of autonomy in learning practices (Gieve & Clark, 2005; Ho & Crookall, 1995). On the other hand, scholars who are skeptical about these cultural stereotypes suggest that these characteristics that Asian learners display might be attributed to the structural elements of the educational system itself rather than cultural factors (Pierson, 1996). In this section, various studies on learner autonomy in the Asian context will be examined to present the evidence for these contrasting claims about Asian learners.

Several studies provide evidence which supports the view that Asian learners cannot be autonomous. For example, Thang (2005) investigated Malaysian learners' perceptions of their English proficiency courses. The participants of the study were first- and second-year on-campus learners and distance learners studying at the University Kebangsaan Malaysia. The results revealed that learners did not exhibit autonomy or awareness of language learning processes. They appeared to prefer a more teacher-centered approach to learning and they expected support and guidance from the teacher, which the author interprets as supporting the view that learners' culturally-based expectations of language study may cause them to assume that language learning is a teacher-driven process. Additionally, Li (1998) conducted a study that aimed to investigate South Korean secondary school English teachers' perceived difficulties in adopting Communicative Language Teaching. The results showed that most of the respondents considered learners' resistance to class participation one of the factors that had an influence on their adoption of communicative language teaching practices. Korean teachers reported that learners were used to the traditional classroom structure in which they took on a passive role and expected the teacher to give them information directly.

Unlike the studies suggesting the inapplicability of learner autonomy in the Asian context, other studies depict a more favorable picture of Asian students and their autonomous practices. Ho and Crookall (1995) investigated whether the use of large-scale simulation can promote learner autonomy in traditional classrooms where there are learners with certain cultural traits that may act as an obstacle to the promotion of learner autonomy. Participants were twenty-one students enrolled in the first year of the BA in English for Professional Communication at the City University of Hong Kong. These learners, as a team, participated in a world-wide computer-mediated simulation in which they were asked to negotiate with teams from other countries on how the world's ocean resources should be managed. In this study, the use of simulations was considered an important method as the learners engaged in activities in which they could take responsibility for their own learning while performing tasks such as time management and contingency planning, conflict resolution when dealing with personal clashes, and making decisions to achieve the goals in the simulation. The data gathered by questionnaires revealed that taking part in the simulation promoted learner autonomy in spite of the cultural constraints.

Gieve and Clark's study (2005) examined whether approaches to learning are culturally determined or attributed to contextual factors. The participants were Chinese undergraduates studying English in the UK. These learners participated in a program of self-directed language learning and tandem learning, and their responses to this program were compared with a group of European Erasmus students who participated in the same program. The results suggested that Chinese learners appreciated the benefits of autonomous study as much as European students did, and they made equally good use of this opportunity. Considering these results, the writers argue that if

the learners are provided with appropriate conditions to practice learner autonomy, culturally determined approaches to learning become flexible to contextual variation. This finding warns us against "the danger of characterizing groups of learners with reductionist categories" (Gieve & Clark, 2005, p. 261).

In another study, Littlewood (1999) discusses some Asian attitudes and habits of learning which may be influenced by learners' cultural traits. These traits include the collectivist orientation of Asian cultures, which encourages interdependence rather the dependent self, high acceptance of power and authority, and the belief in the value of effort and self-discipline, but not innate ability. Considering the learning attitudes under these cultural influences, he made some predictions about Asian students' reactions to autonomy, which were used as a basis for a questionnaire he developed. The questionnaire was then administered to 50 first-year tertiary students who were learning English in Hong Kong. The results showed that there were vast individual differences in the responses to the statements, and some of them were contrary to the commonly-accepted cultural generalizations. In the light of the findings, the writer draws our attention to the "powerful role of the learning context" (p. 83), which may not coincide with generalizations about collectivist, authority-dependent East Asian learners.

From these four studies, it is difficult to draw a conclusion supporting one view over another as the studies present some contradictory findings. However, we have enough evidence to support the view that Asian learners can act autonomously when they are provided with appropriate conditions. Under the scope of this argument, one may ask, then, the causes of the resistance and passivity that the Asian learners display while dealing with certain tasks that require learner autonomy. The issue questioning

the culture of learning that the learners are familiar with comes to the stage at this point. The language teaching methodologies that learners have been familiar with from their earlier experiences may cause them to develop passive learning behaviors. As mentioned in the previous section, there may be a culture of learning specific to certain school types which either encourages learners to ask questions, take part in discussions, think critically and make decisions about their own learning, or to take on a passive role and depend on the teacher. Therefore, learners coming from similar cultural backgrounds may exhibit different learning behaviors because of the culture of learning that they are used to. Although several studies mentioned above touched upon this issue (Littlewood, 1999; Gieve & Clark, 2004), there is no empirical evidence showing the relationship between learners' perceptions of autonomy and their culture of learning.

Readiness for Learner Autonomy

Before taking the necessary steps to promote learner autonomy in specific contexts, students' readiness for learner autonomy should be investigated first to match the demands in the curriculum to the learning realities of learners and to take the specific conditions affecting the development of learner autonomy into consideration in that particular context (Chan, 2001b; Chan et al., 2002; Cotterall, 1995). As this view has given the impetus to this study, which aims to investigate Turkish students' readiness for learner autonomy, it would be beneficial to look at similar studies that attempted to investigate learners' readiness for learner autonomy in different educational contexts.

Chan et al. (2002) report on a large scale study on the students' readiness for learner autonomy at the tertiary level in Hong Kong. The participants of this study

were 508 undergraduates coming from a range of academic departments at Hong Kong Polytechnic University. A questionnaire aimed to investigate students' views of their own and their teachers' responsibilities, students' decision-making abilities, motivation level, and actual autonomous learning activities that they carried out inside and outside the classroom. The writers claim that students in this study had a strong preference for a dominant teacher role and a less autonomous student role. Although they were able to decide on certain language learning activities by themselves, they held the teacher more responsible for most areas of learning. Even if the students reported high levels of motivation, this high level of motivation did not manifest itself in actual autonomous learning behaviors. They appeared to exhibit autonomous behavior only to deal with the heavy workload demands of their curriculum, which might mean that their motivation comes from some extrinsic sources. Their weak commitment (even the language major students') to their language study prevented them from operating autonomously. Hence, the results of this study are consistent with the previously mentioned studies suggesting that Asian students tend to accept power and authority and do not operate well autonomously because of some constraining factors such as heavy workload and dependence on the teacher.

In Turkey, Kocak (2003) conducted a study with 186 preparatory students at Baskent University. The aim of this study was to investigate if the students attending English Language Preparatory School at Başkent University were ready to be involved in autonomous language learning. The questionnaire administered in the study aimed to examine students' perceptions related to their motivation level in learning English, their metacognitive strategies, their perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in learning English and their autonomous practices outside the class.

Regarding the participants' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities, the results revealed that students considered the teacher more responsible than themselves for their learning process, especially in the methodological aspects of learning. Drawing on this result, the researcher concludes that participants' unwillingness to take responsibility in these areas of their learning might result from their teacher-dependent learning characteristics. This result implies that the participants are not ready for the responsibility transfer from the teacher to themselves especially for the formal aspects of their learning.

Yildirim (2005), in a similar study, investigated 90 first year and 89 fourth year ELT students' perceptions and behavior related to learner autonomy both as learners of English and as future teachers of English. Fourth year students were considered to be future teachers of English in this study and it was aimed to explore whether the teacher education program they received in the ELT department made any difference in their perceptions. The results of the study showed that both 1st year and 4th year students gave more responsibility to their teachers for the methodological aspects of their learning such as deciding on what to learn, and materials and activities to be used in class. The results also showed that in spite of the teacher education program they received, fourth year students' perceptions of responsibility did not change and they still see the teacher as the one who should take most of the decisions about students' learning.

The three studies mentioned above have some consistent findings in that the participants in these studies do not seem ready to take responsibility for their learning and they consider the teacher more responsible especially for the methodological aspects of learning. However, these studies have some limitations. Firstly, the results

found can only be relevant in the particular contexts where the studies were conducted. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to different groups of students in other educational settings. Additionally, they do not take the students' past learning experiences into consideration to understand whether these experiences may relate to any differences in learners' perceptions. This study, which aims to investigate the perceptions and autonomous learning practices of university level language learners all around Turkey, will not only reveal the general picture related to readiness for learner autonomy in Turkey, but it will also shed light on the extent to which past learning experiences of the learners play a role in their perceptions of responsibility and actual autonomous practices.

<p align="center">Conclusion</p>

This literature review provides an overview regarding learner autonomy in education and language learning. The studies reviewed here show that the effect of learners' past learning experiences should be investigated in greater depth to understand the extent to which learners' readiness for learner autonomy is influenced by contextual variables. Therefore, this study aims to fill this gap in the literature with an attempt to measure both culture of learning and readiness for learner autonomy to see the relationship between these two variables. The next chapter will cover the methodology used in this study, including participants, instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive survey study was to investigate whether Turkish preparatory students were ready for the changes in the curricula which demand greater autonomy from learners and to what extent culture of learning may play a role in learners' readiness.

The following research questions were addressed in this study.

1. What kinds of learning cultures do Turkish university preparatory students come from?

2. Do the students' learning cultures differ based on (a) the geographic region and (b) the type of the high school in which they studied?

3. To what extent are the students ready for autonomous language learning?

   a) How do the students perceive their own and their teachers' responsibilities?

   b) What are the students' perceptions of their decision making abilities in learning English?

   c) What is the students' level of motivation for learning English?

   d) What kind of autonomous learning activities do the students engage in inside and outside the classroom?

   e) What is the frequency of the students' metacognitive strategy use in learning English?

4. Do the students' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities, decision making abilities, autonomous practices, motivation levels and metacognitive strategy use differ based on a) the geographic region of the high school they graduated from, (b) the type of the high school that they graduated from and (c) English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between culture of learning and students' readiness for learner autonomy?

This methodology chapter is composed of four sections. In the first section, the participants are described. In the second section, the instruments used are explained in detail. In the third section, a chronologically-based step-by-step description of the data collection period, including general procedural steps for locating institutions, securing subjects, preparing materials, piloting instruments, and specific steps for data collection including timing, introduction of the study, conducting the study, and assembly of data are explained. In the last section, the data analysis procedure is described.

<div align="center">Participants</div>

This study was conducted in seven universities from five different regions of Turkey. Participant universities were as follows: Anadolu University (Eskisehir), Gaziantep University (Gaziantep), Gaziosmanpasa University (Tokat), Yildiz Teknik University (Istanbul), Cukurova University (Adana), Zonguldak Karaelmas University (Zonguldak) and Atilim University (Ankara). At these seven universities, a total of 408 preparatory students were asked to answer the questionnaires administered. As the labeling of the proficiency levels varies from institution to institution, three broad levels were defined: beginner/elementary, pre-

intermediate/intermediate/ and upper-intermediate/advanced. The characteristics of

the sample participating in the present study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 - Characteristics of the Study Participants

	Groups	**N**	**%**
Gender	Male	213	52
	Female	195	48
Proficiency Level	Beginner/elementary	121	30
	Pre-intermediate/intermediate	218	53
	Upper-intermediate/advanced	69	17
Geographic Hometown Region	The Black Sea Region	43	11
	The Marmara Region	101	24
	The Aegean Region	32	8
	The Mediterranean Region	82	20
	The Central Anatolia Region	100	25
	The Eastern Anatolia Region	26	7
	The Southeastern Anatolia Region	19	5
High School Type	General High School	181	44
	Technical/Vocational High School	10	3
	Anatolian High School	92	23
	Super High School	74	18
	Private High School	20	5
	Other	31	7

The first four high schools in Table 1 are state schools. Among these schools,

Anatolian high schools require passing a very competitive centralized test to enter,

and generally include intensive foreign language study in, most frequently, English,

but also in German or French. Super high schools offer one-year English language instruction as well. Acceptance to these schools is granted on the basis of high academic achievement, but not a centralized test. Technical high schools provide specialized instruction to train qualified people for certain professions, and they offer elective foreign language courses. Private high schools are tuition-based schools, and students attending these schools may achieve a higher level of English language proficiency since they are generally exposed to English for a longer period compared to state schools. In some private schools, the medium of instruction for certain subjects is also English. 'Other' high schools in the table refer to science high schools, which accept students on the basis of a centralized exam, and mostly focus on science education. The other school type in the 'other' category in the table is Anatolian teacher training high schools. Like Anatolian and Science high schools, entrance to these schools is achieved through a centralized test. Students in these schools are offered some compulsory teaching courses such as Educational Psychology and Educational Management. The students who graduate from Anatolian teacher training high schools get extra scores in the university entrance exam if they choose to continue their studies in education faculties.

<div align="center">Instruments</div>

The data collection instrument of this survey study was a questionnaire, which was designed to collect quantitative data. The questionnaire was comprised of three sections: multiple choice questions to gather demographic information about the participants, the culture of learning questionnaire and the learner autonomy readiness questionnaire (see Appendix A, also see Appendix B for an English translation of the questionnaire).

Section I: Multiple Choice Questions

The first section of the questionnaire focused on demographic information such as age, gender, proficiency level, hometown, parent education and high school type. To assure confidentiality, participants' names and addresses were not asked. The questions in this section were prepared in Turkish to eliminate any miscomprehension problems.

Section II: The Culture of Learning Questionnaire

The second section of the questionnaire aimed to investigate participants' culture of learning. For this purpose, a questionnaire was developed by the researcher. Before constructing the questionnaire, an item pool, which included items from various learner autonomy questionnaires in the literature as well as those written by the researcher on the basis of the substantive literature review on learner autonomy, school culture and culture of learning, was generated. Further, expert opinions were asked, and their suggestions were taken into consideration. After that, the items which were considered to be the most relevant to the purpose of the research were selected for the pilot study.

There were 13 questions, which were prepared in Turkish, in this section. In the first question, students were asked to indicate the general role of the teachers in the high school they graduated from, and they rated the answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' representing *sole authority* to '5' representing *facilitator*. In the second question, participants were asked to report their own role as a learner in their high school classes on a five point Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *teacher dependent* to '5' representing *autonomous*. For the first two questions, the participants were given some explanations about what "facilitator

teacher" and "autonomous learner" mean to clarify these concepts in their minds. The rest of the questions, from 3 to 13, aimed to explore how often the participants were encouraged to take responsibilities for their own learning by having them engage in specified activities that promote learner autonomy. They answered these questions on a four-point Likert ranging from '*never*' to '*frequently*'.

Section III: Learner Autonomy Readiness Questionnaire

In the literature, it is suggested that learners' readiness for learner autonomy can be investigated by focusing on learners' perceptions of responsibility in the language learning process, learners' perceptions of their abilities to act autonomously, learners' metacognitive strategy use, learners' motivation level and their actual autonomous practices inside and outside the classroom (Chan, 2001a; Chan et al., 2002; Reinders, 2000; Spratt et al., 2002).

The section on Learner Autonomy Readiness included five parts. The first four parts of the section, which aimed to measure learners' perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities, their decision-making abilities, their motivation level and their engagement in autonomous activities inside and outside the class, were adapted from a questionnaire developed by Chan et al. (2002) to investigate the learner autonomy readiness of tertiary students in Hong Kong. For the fifth part of the readiness questionnaire, the fourth section of Oxford's (1990) Language Learning Strategy Inventory (SILL) version 7.0 was adapted. Thus, all the areas stated above, which were considered the manifestations of learner autonomy, were included in the questionnaire.

Holec (1981) defines learner autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's learning" (p. 3), and he sees taking responsibility in a) defining objectives, b)

defining contents, c) defining materials and techniques, d) defining the place and pace of learning, and e) evaluating what has been learned in the language learning process as the important practice of learner autonomy. Thus, the first part of the questionnaire focuses on learners' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities in these areas. It includes 13 items, and participants were asked to answer questions on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *not at all* to '5' representing *completely*.

In the second part of the questionnaire, which is composed of 11 items, learners' perceptions of their own decision-making abilities in a range of activities included in the first section were asked. In other words, the participants were asked how successful they would be if they were asked to make decisions about the responsibilities included in the first part. Participants again reported their answers on a Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *very poor* to '5' representing *very good*.

The third part of the questionnaire was about learners' motivation to study English. As Littlewood (1996) suggests, learners' willingness to act autonomously determines their capacity to take control of their learning, and their willingness is based on their motivation level and confidence. Considering this, in this section, participants were asked to indicate their level of motivation as English language learners on a Likert scale between the ranges '1' *not at all motivated* to '5' *highly motivated*.

In the fourth part of the questionnaire, students were asked to indicate the frequency of the autonomous learning activities they engaged in inside and outside the class. Chan et al. (2002) state that the activities listed in this section resulted from a brainstorming session in which students were asked to write the activities they considered helpful in their attempts to learn English autonomously. There were 20

items in this section and participants reported on the frequency of their engagement in the autonomous activities on a Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *never* to '5' representing *very often*.

The last part of the questionnaire aimed to investigate learners' employment of metacognitive language learning strategies, and the fourth section of Oxford's Language Learning Strategy Inventory (SILL), which is used commonly in many language learning strategy studies, was adapted for this purpose. In the literature, several researchers emphasize the influence of metacognitive strategy use on the development of learner autonomy (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Reinders, 2000). Therefore, including a section about metacognitive strategy use was necessary to examine learners' readiness for learner autonomy. In this section, participants read sentences describing metacognitive language learning strategies, and indicated the frequency of their employment of these strategies on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *never or almost never true of me* to '5' representing *always or almost always true of me*.

Translation Process

The learner autonomy readiness questionnaire was originally in English. However, since participants were not native speakers of English, the items in the questionnaire were translated into Turkish to eliminate any possible miscomprehension problems. Then, the Turkish version of the questionnaire was given to two graduates of the Hacettepe University Department of Translation and Interpretation, and they were asked to back-translate the items into English. Finally, the two versions were compared by the experts, and necessary revisions were made to eliminate any differences.

Pilot Study

To assure the content and face validity of the instruments, all items in the questionnaires were shown to several experts at Anadolu University and Bilkent University. After the experts evaluated the items in terms of content validity and face validity, the questionnaires were revised according to the feedback received. After the revision procedure, all sections of the questionnaires were piloted with a group of 60 preparatory school students at elementary and upper-intermediate levels at Anadolu University to see the potential problems that could occur during the administration process. The participants in the pilot study were selected randomly.

For reliability, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was calculated to examine the internal consistency of the instruments. The measure of Cronbach Alpha for the culture of learning section of the questionnaire was .734, and it was .778 for the readiness for learner autonomy section. The Cronbach Alpha measure for all sections in the questionnaire combined was .783, which indicated that it had quite high internal consistency.

Considering the problems in the administration of the questionnaires in the pilot study, necessary revisions were made. The format of some sections was changed, and the wordings of some of the items were revised. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for the revised questionnaire used in the actual study was .888 for the whole questionnaire.

Procedure

After the questionnaires were approved, data collection was conducted in the spring semester of the 2007-2008 academic year. Firstly, at least one representative university from each geographic region was selected, and the English preparatory

program heads or colleagues in each selected university were contacted, and asked

for help in distributing the questionnaires after the purpose of the study was

explained. In addition, formal follow-up letters written by the MA TEFL Program

Director, accompanied by a sample of the questionnaire, were sent to the selected

universities. In total, 12 universities were contacted. Of the 12 universities contacted,

seven universities agreed to administer the questionnaires to students in their

universities. The questionnaires were sent to these universities via mail, and they

were informed about the data collection timeline; once received, the questionnaires

had to be completed, and sent back to the researcher within two weeks. Contact

persons were asked to distribute the questionnaires to two randomly selected

preparatory classes at the lowest and highest proficiency levels, and provide

supervision until each student completed the questionnaires. Questionnaires were

accompanied by a cover letter which explained the purpose of the study, enumerated

participants' rights, and thanked the participant for his/her help.

A total of 520 questionnaires were sent to the contact persons and 408 of

them were returned, with an overall return rate of 78.4%.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively by

using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to calculate descriptive and

inferential statistics.

With regard to statistical methods, research questions 1, 3a, 3b, 3c, 3d and 3e

were analyzed through descriptive statistics. Frequencies and percentages, means and

standard deviations were calculated for these items in the questionnaires.

Participants' metacognitive strategy use, which was measured in the fifth part of the

learner autonomy readiness questionnaire, was analyzed according to Oxford's (1990) key to averages. Additionally, a one-way ANOVA was used to calculate whether there were any differences in participants' culture of learning scores based on the variables mentioned in the second research question with post-hoc comparisons to investigate the direction of any differences. The same procedure was repeated to investigate whether learners' perceptions of responsibility, decision-making abilities, motivation, engagement in autonomous activities and metacognitive strategy use differed according to the variables mentioned in the fourth research question. Lastly, to investigate the relationship between learner autonomy readiness and culture of learning, correlations were carried out separately between the components of learner autonomy readiness and the respondents' culture of learning scores, as well as between the respondents' overall learner autonomy readiness and culture of learning scores by using a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the research methodology of the study including the design of the study, participants, instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis were described. A total of 408 EFL students at preparatory schools of seven Turkish universities participated in this study. Questionnaires were conducted for the survey to examine learners' readiness for learner autonomy and the extent to which culture of learning played a role on learners' autonomy readiness. Data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively. The analysis of the survey will be explained in detail in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This study was designed to investigate the learner autonomy readiness of preparatory school students in different universities in Turkey and the relationship between their readiness for learner autonomy and culture of learning. The following research questions were addressed in the study.

1. What kinds of learning cultures do university preparatory students come from?

2. Do the students' learning cultures differ based on (a) the geographic region and (b) the type of the high school in which they studied?

3. To what extent are the students ready for autonomous language learning?

    a) How do the students perceive their own and their teachers' responsibilities?

    b) What are the students' perceptions of their decision making abilities in learning English?

    c) What is the students' level of motivation for learning English?

    d) What kind of autonomous learning activities do the students engage in inside and outside the classroom?

    e) What is the frequency of the students' metacognitive strategy use in learning English?

4. Do the students' perceptions of teacher and student responsibilities, decision making abilities, autonomous practices, motivation levels and metacognitive strategy use differ based on a) the geographic region of the high school they

graduated from, (b) the type of the high school that they graduated from and (c) English proficiency level?

5. What is the relationship between culture of learning and the students' readiness for learner autonomy?

This study gathered data from 408 preparatory students studying at Anadolu University (Eskisehir), Gaziantep University (Gaziantep), Gaziosmanpasa University (Tokat), Yildiz Teknik University (Istanbul), Cukurova University (Adana), Zonguldak Karaelmas University (Zonguldak) and Atilim University (Ankara). The data were collected through a questionnaire (see Apendix A) and analyzed quantitatively. The frequencies, means and standard deviations of the individual items were calculated to analyze the learner autonomy readiness and the culture of learning of the respondents. In addition to this, the relationship between each component of learner autonomy (perceptions of responsibility, decision-making abilities, motivation level, engagement in autonomous learning activities and metacognitive strategy use) and proficiency level, high school type, and the geographical region of the high school were computed through a one-way ANOVA and cross tabulations. The same procedure was repeated to see the relationship between culture of learning and the type and the geographical region of the high schools that the participants graduated from. To investigate the direction of any differences, Post-hoc comparisons were also performed. Lastly, the correlations between the culture of learning score and learner autonomy readiness score were conducted to see the relationship between them.

In this chapter, the analysis of the questions in the questionnaire will be presented in three sections. The first section focuses on the analysis of the respondents' culture

of learning and its relationship with the variables defined in the second research question. The second section presents the analysis of the items related to learner autonomy readiness and its relationship with the variables mentioned in the fourth research question. The third section presents the relationship between readiness for learner autonomy and culture of learning.

The Culture of Learning of the Respondents

In this study, the second section of the questionnaire was based on the culture of learning of the respondents. In this section, the participants were asked 13 questions. In the first question, students were asked to indicate the general role of the teachers in the high school they graduated from, and they rated the answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from '1' representing *only authority* to '5' representing *facilitator*. In the second question, participants were asked to indicate their role as a learner in the high school on a five point Likert scale that ranged from '1' representing *teacher dependent* to '5' representing *autonomous*. The items from 3 to13 aimed to investigate whether the participants were given responsibilities in their own learning in their high schools by having them engage in some activities that require autonomy. While answering these 10 questions, the participants were asked to report their answers on a four-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *frequently*. For the data analysis, firstly, the overall culture of learning score of the participants was calculated. Then, frequency, mean and standard deviation of each item were estimated.

The overall culture of learning score of the participants was a combination of their self-ranking of their teachers' and their own roles and their reported amount of experience with autonomous activities in the high schools that they graduated from.

The overall average score of the participants in this section was 2.58 with a standard deviation of .533.

As it is mentioned above, the items in this section were also analyzed separately by using descriptive statistics. Regarding the first two items, which focused on learners' perceptions of their teachers' and their own role in the high school, Table 2 shows the mean scores and the standard deviations, which reveal that the participants refrained from choosing the extremes both for their own roles as learners and the roles of their teachers. The results show that both scores fall within the range of a score of '3' on the Likert scale. That is, the participants considered their teachers to be neither the only authority nor the facilitator in the class, but falling somewhere in between. Similarly, they did not consider themselves to be completely autonomous or teacher dependent, but somewhere in the middle.

Table 2 - Mean values for Students' Perceptions of their Teachers' and their Own Roles

Question	Mean	SD
1. Considering the general teacher profile in the high school you graduated from, how would you define the role of your teachers?	2.98	1.048
2. How would you define your role as a learner when you were in the high school?	3.25	.983

For the items from 3 to 13, respondents' combined mean score was computed first to get a general picture, and the score of 2.48 (SD = .563) was found, which suggests that most of the participants were 'rarely' given responsibilities in their learning in their high schools.

The questions in this section were also analyzed item by item, and Table 3 presents the percentages and frequencies (with means and standard deviations) for each item. As shown by the data, in this section, there were no items which were

clustered in the 'frequently' category of the scale. The items that attained the highest percentages were choosing partners to work with (item 6), setting learning goals (item 10) and evaluating the courses (item 11), which were 'sometimes' carried out by the participants in their high schools with mean scores of 2.99, 2.97 and 2.74 respectively.

The items that had the lowest mean scores were preparing portfolios (item 13), deciding what to learn next (item 12) and choosing what materials to use in the lessons (item 9) with mean scores of 1.96, 2.14 and 2.25 respectively. Frequency counts show that more than half of the respondents were 'rarely' asked to engage in these activities.

Table 3 - Autonomous Learning Activities that the Participants Engaged in in their High Schools

Items	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Frequently		Mean	Std. dev.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	M	SD
3. How often were you asked to participate in group/pair work activities?	38	9.3	134	32.8	156	38.2	80	19.6	2.68	.893
4. How often were you asked to evaluate your own work?	67	16.4	137	33.6	143	35.0	61	15.0	2.49	.938
5. How often were you asked to evaluate your peers' work?	87	21.3	149	36.5	130	31.9	42	10.3	2.31	.921
6. How often were you asked to choose your partners that you wanted to work with?	48	11.8	68	16.7	131	32.1	159	39.0	2.99	1.027
7. How often were you asked to participate in a project work?	77	18.9	142	34.8	121	29.7	68	16.7	2.44	.980
8. How often did your teachers ask you to choose what activities to use in your lessons?	79	19.4	136	33.3	151	37.0	42	10.3	2.38	.912
9. How often did your teachers ask you to choose what materials to use in your lessons?	113	27.7	127	31.1	119	29.2	49	12.0	2.25	.933
10. How often were you asked to set your own learning goals?	52	12.7	69	16.9	127	31.1	160	39.2	2.97	1.036
11. How often were you asked to evaluate your course?	53	13.0	117	28.7	123	30.1	115	28.2	2.74	1.010
12. How often were you asked to decide what you should learn next?	138	33.8	123	30.1	99	24.3	48	11.8	2.14	1.017
13. How often were you asked to prepare portfolios?	178	43.6	118	28.9	59	14.5	52	12.7	1.96	1.046

Differences in Culture of Learning Based on the Type and Geographical Region of

the High School

As for the relationship between the culture of learning and the high school type, a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant effect for high school type on participants' culture of learning ($p < .000$). The independent variable, the type of the high school, has six dimensions: General high school, Anatolian high school, Super high school, Technical high school, Private high school and other. Table 4 shows the mean scores of the participants who were educated in each school type. The Post-hoc Tukey test revealed that participants who received education in general high schools got significantly lower culture of learning scores as compared to those who were educated in Anatolian, super, private and other (science and Anatolian teacher training) high schools (Table 5).

Table 4 - Descriptive Statistics for Culture of Learning and High School Type

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1 General High School	181	2.4092	.53140	.03950
2 Technical High School	10	2.6077	.51595	.16316
3 Anatolian High School	92	2.6906	.47157	.04916
4 Super High School	74	2.6923	.51057	.05935
5 Private High School	20	2.9769	.40095	.08965
6 Other	31	2.7692	.53699	.09645
Total	408	2.5841	.53340	.02641

Table 5 -Post-hoc Tukey Tests for Culture of Learning and High School Type

(I) High school type	(J) High school type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower bound	Upper bound
1 General high school	2 Technical high school	-.19850	.16538	.837	-.6721	.2751
	3 Anatolian high school	-.28144(*)	.06519	.000	-.4681	-.0948
	4 Super high school	-.28311(*)	.07025	.001	-.4843	-.0820
	5 Private high school	-.56773(*)	.11997	.000	-.9113	-.2242
	6 Other	-.36004(*)	.09896	.004	-.6434	-.0767

Note: * The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The analysis of the relationship between the culture of learning and the geographical region of the high school that the participants received education revealed that the relationship between these variables was not statistically significant ($p < .166$). The result suggests that learners' culture of learning score did not differ based on the geographical region of the high school from which they received education.

Learners' Readiness for Learner Autonomy

The third section of the questionnaire administered to the participants aimed to investigate learners' readiness for autonomous language learning. In this section, there were five parts, each of which can be considered to be one of the components that make up autonomy. The results of each part are presented below.

Part 1: Participants' Perceptions of their Teachers' and their Own Responsibilities

In this part, participants were asked to indicate their perceptions of their teachers' and their own responsibilities while learning English. There were 13 items related to perceptions of responsibility, and the respondents ranked their answers on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from *completely the teacher's* to *completely mine*. To get a general picture first, the participants' combined mean scores were calculated, and a score of 2.8 was found with a standard deviation of .504, which shows that the participants had a tendency to share the responsibility with their teachers in learning English.

The items in this part were also analyzed separately, and Table 6 shows the percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations of each item. As shown by the data, for items 15, 18 and 26, the participants gave more responsibility to

themselves with mean scores of 4.40, 3.68 and 4.18 respectively. These items include the responsibilities for making progress outside the class (item 15), making students work harder (item 18), and deciding what to learn outside the class (item 26). In these items, the majority of the participants chose either 'completely mine' or 'mostly mine, partly the teachers' options. In particular, the results of items 15 and 26 show that more than 80% of the participants had a tendency to take more control for the responsibilities taken outside the class.

However, in six out of thirteen items, students gave more responsibility to their teachers. The lowest mean score in these six items belongs to item 23, which is related to choosing the materials to be used in English lessons. For this item, the majority of the participants either gave full responsibility to their teachers or chose the option '*mostly the teacher's, partly mine*'. Similarly, in items 19, 20, 21, 22, 24 and 25, most of the respondents agreed that more responsibility belonged to their teachers. The responsibilities in these items include deciding the objectives of the English course (item 19), deciding what to learn next (item 20), choosing the activities to be used in the class (item 21), deciding how long to spend on each activity (item 22), evaluating student learning (item 24) and evaluating the course (item 25).

The participants agreed to share the responsibility with the teacher in some items. That is, for items 14, 16, and 17, with mean scores of 3.08, 2.76 and 3.17 respectively, the general tendency was to take half of the responsibility. These items include the responsibilities for making sure that learners make progress during lessons (item 14), stimulating student interest in learning English (item 16), and identifying their weaknesses in learning English (item 17).

Table 6 - Participants' Perceptions of their Own and their Teachers' Responsibilities

Item In English lessons, whose responsibility should it be	Completely the teacher's		Mostly the teacher's, partly mine		Half mine, half the teacher's		Mostly mine, partly the teacher's		Completely mine		Mean	Std. dev.
	%	F	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	M	SD
14. make sure you make progress during lessons	2.7	11	18.4	75	51.8	208	23.8	97	3.9	16	3.08	.827
15. make sure you make progress outside class	.2	1	3.9	16	7.8	32	31.9	130	56.1	229	4.40	.814
16. stimulate your interest in learning English	18.1	74	32.4	132	23.3	95	14.2	58	11.5	47	2.76	1.993
17. identify your weaknesses in English	9.8	40	24.3	99	23.5	96	24.3	99	18.1	74	3.17	1.257
18. make you work harder	6.6	27	14.2	58	20.8	85	27.7	113	30.4	124	3.68	1.872
19. decide the objectives of the English course	28.4	116	20.3	83	20.6	84	17.2	70	13.5	55	2.56	1.409
20. decide what you should learn next	41.9	171	28.9	118	16.2	66	6.9	28	5.9	24	2.09	1.317
21. choose what activities to use in your English lessons	34.8	142	34.6	141	23.0	94	6.4	26	1.2	5	2.05	971
22. decide how long to spend on each activity	41.9	171	25.5	104	17.6	72	7.8	32	7.1	29	2.13	1.240
23. choose what materials to use in your English lessons	53.2	217	27.5	112	14.7	60	3.9	16	.7	3	1.72	.907
24. evaluate your learning	25.2	103	33.6	137	24.5	100	11.0	45	5.6	23	2.38	1.142
25. evaluate your course	23.5	96	23.3	95	32.8	134	12.3	50	8.1	33	2.58	1.203
26. decide what you learn outside the class	3.2	13	6.6	27	13.0	53	23.5	96	53.7	219	4.18	1.090

Differences in Perceptions of Responsibility Based on High School Type, High School Location, and Proficiency Level

Regarding the relationship between perceptions of responsibility and the type of the high school that they graduated from, a one-way ANOVA analysis did not reveal a statistically significant relationship, $p < .421$. The result suggests that high school type did not have an important effect on learners' perceptions of responsibility.

As for the relationship between participants' perceptions of responsibility and the geographical region of the high school that the participants graduated from, the relationship found was not statistically significant, $p < .813$, which shows that students' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities did not show variance according to the geographical region of the high schools they received education.

A one-way ANOVA was also conducted to explore the relationship between English proficiency level and their perceptions of responsibility. The independent variable, participants' proficiency level, included three dimensions: beginner/elementary, lower-intermediate/intermediate and upper-intermediate/advanced. The result shows that there is a statistically significant relationship between proficiency level and participants' perceptions of responsibility as shown in Table 7. The Post-hoc Tukey test shows that beginner/elementary students' score (mean= 2.77, SD= .422) in perceptions of responsibility was significantly lower than the scores obtained by the upper-intermediate/advanced students (mean= 2.93, SD= .518), as seen in Table 8. This may mean that lower proficiency students tend to feel more teacher-dependent while learning English.

Table 7 - One-way ANOVA for Perceptions of Responsibility and Proficiency Level

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.953	2	.977	3.888	**.021**
Within Groups	101.752	405	.251		
Total	103.706	407			

Table 8 - Post-hoc Tukey Test for Perceptions of Responsibility and Proficiency Level

(I) Proficiency Level	(J) Proficiency Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower bound	Upper bound
1 beginner/elementary	2 low-intermediate/intermediate	-.13507	.07561	.175	-.3129	.0428
	3 upper-intermediate/advanced	-.15557(*)	.05682	.018	-.2892	-.0219

Note: * The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Part 2: Participants' Perceptions of their Decision Making Abilities

In this part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked 10 questions about their perceptions of their decision-making abilities in a range of activities/responsibilities included in the first part. In other words, they were asked to indicate how successful they would be if they were given the opportunity to make decisions about their own learning. They ranked their answers on a five-point Likert scale ranging from *very poor* to *very good*. The mean score for the whole section is 3.32 with a standard deviation of .549, which reveals that most of the respondents tended to choose the '*OK*' response on the scale and rated their decision-making abilities about average.

Table 9 shows the percentages of the responses given to the individual items. Responses for the '*good/very good*' and '*poor/very poor*' categories have been

combined in the table. As shown by the data, most of the responses are clustered under either the '*OK*' or the '*good/very good*' categories of the scale. That is, for items 28, 30, 32, 33 and 35, the highest percentage of the respondents considered their abilities to be '*good*'. The activities that the participants rated themselves as '*good/very good*' at managing were choosing learning activities outside the class, choosing learning objectives outside the class, choosing learning materials outside the class, evaluating their learning and identifying the weaknesses in learning English. These results show that respondents had a tendency to consider their abilities to be '*good/very good*' in outside-class activities and self-evaluation. The activities that more than one third of the participants rated their abilities as '*OK*' were choosing learning activities in class (item 27), choosing learning objectives in class (item 29), choosing learning materials in class (item 31), evaluating the course (item 34) and deciding what to learn next in English lessons (item 36). As seen, the items in this category mostly include in-class activities. The data also shows that the percentages of the participants who chose '*poor/very poor*' categories were generally quite low as compared to the percentages in the other categories.

Table 9 - Participants' Decision-Making Abilities in %

	Abilities		
Item	very poor /poor	OK	good/very good
How do you think you would be at :			
27. choosing leaning activities in class	11.0	**49.8**	38.8
28. choosing learning activities outside class	14.3	33.6	**52.2**
29. choosing learning objectives in class	12.0	**48.0**	39.5
30. choosing learning objectives outside class	12.1	37.7	**50.0**
31. choosing learning materials in class	27.7	**45.1**	27.2
32. choosing learning materials outside class	22.3	38.3	**39.5**
33. evaluating your learning	14.9	40.2	**46.6**
34. evaluating your course	15.9	**42.4**	41.7
35. identifying your weaknesses in learning English	11.2	28.7	**57.6**
36. deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons	31.2	**39.7**	29.2

Differences in Learners' Perceptions of Their Decision Making Abilities Based on

High School Type, High School Location and Proficiency Level

By means of a one-way ANOVA, it was analyzed whether participants'

perceptions of their decision making abilities differ based on the type of high school

that they graduated from. The result reveals that there was not a statistically

significant relationship between these variables ($p < .186$). Thus, it shows that high school type is not one of the factors affecting students' decision making abilities.

As for the relationship between perceptions of decision making ability and the geographical location of the high school, the result shows that learners' decision making abilities did not significantly differ based on the geographical region of the high school ($p < .086$).

Regarding the relationship between decision making abilities and the proficiency level of the respondents, the relationship found was not statistically significant, $p < .388$, which means that learners' decision making abilities did not differ based on their proficiency level.

Part 3: Participants' Perceptions of their Motivation Level

The third part of the questionnaire asked the respondents to indicate their motivation level for learning English on a five-point Likert scale that ranged from '*not at all motivated*' to '*highly motivated*'. The average motivation level of the respondents was 2.81 with a standard deviation of .994, which reveals that the general tendency among the participants was that they felt '*motivated*' to learn English. Table 10 summarizes the findings related to the participants' perceptions of their motivation level. As seen in the table, the percentages of the participants who felt that they were highly-motivated are the lowest, and the highest percentages are clustered in either the 'slightly motivated' or 'motivated' categories on the scale. If we combine the categories rather than analyze the percentages separately in each category, the picture that emerges shows that the number of participants who felt they were 'motivated', 'well motivated' or 'highly motivated' is higher than those who considered themselves 'slightly motivated' or 'not at all motivated', which

shows that more than half of the participants considered themselves to be reasonably motivated to learn English.

Table 10 - Students' Perceptions of their Level of Motivation

Categories	Percent	Frequency
	%	f
Not at all motivated	7.4	30
Slightly motivated	34.1	139
motivated	33.1	135
Well-motivated	20.8	85
Highly motivated	4.4	18

Differences in Learners' Motivation Level Based on High School Type, High School Location, and Proficiency Level

Chi-squares were used to analyze the relationship between motivation level and high school type, and it was found that participants' motivation level did not significantly differ based on the type of the high school that they graduated from ($p < .734$). This finding shows that high school type is not an important factor in learners' motivation in learning English.

As for the relationship between motivation and the geographical region of the high school, Chi-squares again failed to reveal any significant difference ($p < .239$), which shows that learners' motivation level did not differ based on the geographical regions in Turkey.

Chi-squares with regard to the relationship between motivation in learning English and proficiency level did not reveal any statistically significant relationship between these variables ($p < .953$). It shows that learners' motivation level did not depend on their English proficiency level.

Part 4: Autonomous Activities Engaged in outside and inside Class

In the fourth part of the questionnaire, students were asked to indicate the frequency of the autonomous learning activities they engaged in inside and outside the class. On a four point Likert scale, students were asked to indicate how often they carried out 17 out-of-class and three in-class activities that require autonomy. The combined mean score of all the items in this part was 2.26 with a standard deviation of .450, which suggests that the general tendency among participants was that they 'rarely' carry out these activities while learning English.

Table 11 presents the frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations of each activity engaged in outside the class. As shown by the data, the activities that attained the highest percentage in the 'often' category were listening to songs (item 46) and noting down the meanings of the unknown words (item 39). Additionally, there were three activities that more than half of the participants said that they 'sometimes' or 'often' carried out. These activities were reading books or magazines in English (item 43), watching English TV programs (item 44) and watching movies in English (item 49).

However, the other 12 activities were found to be 'rarely' or 'never' practiced by the participants. Among these activities, the two with the very lowest means were

sending letters to pen-pals, with a mean score of 1.46, and writing diaries, with a

mean score of 1.38.

Table 11 - Engagement in Autonomous Activities outside the Class

Item	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often	
In your last academic term, outside class, without having been assigned to do so, how often did you:	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f
38. read grammar books on your own?	35.8	146	36.0	147	22.1	90	6.1	25
39. note down new words and their meanings?	8.3	34	24.5	100	31.6	129	35.3	144
40. send letters to your pen-friends?	72.1	294	14.7	60	8.1	33	4.7	19
41. read newspapers in English?	52.5	214	31.1	127	14.2	58	2.0	8
42. send e-mails in English?	41.7	170	23.5	96	25.7	109	8.8	36
43. read books or magazines in English?	15.9	65	29.7	121	43.1	176	11.0	45
44. watch English TV programs?	14.2	58	23.0	94	37.0	151	25.2	103
45. listen to English radio?	47.5	194	20.6	84	19.4	79	12.3	50
46. listen to English songs?	3.9	16	14.2	58	31.6	129	49.8	203
47. speak English with native speakers?	37.5	153	31.1	127	20.3	83	10.5	43
48. practice using English with friends?	18.6	76	39.2	160	27.5	112	14.5	59
49. watch English movies?	7.8	37	17.2	70	38.2	156	36.3	148
50. write a diary in English?	79.2	323	9.1	37	6.6	27	4.9	20
51. use the Internet in English?	27.9	114	27.5	112	23.0	94	21.1	86
52. review your written work on your own?	36.3	148	38.7	158	20.1	82	4.7	19
53. attend a self-study centre?	50.0	204	22.5	92	16.2	66	11.0	45
54. talk to your teacher about your work?	45.1	184	32.4	132	17.2	70	5.1	21

Regarding the responses for in class activities, item 55 -*asking the teacher questions when you do not understand*- was the most common practice carried out 'sometimes' or 'often' by 69.1% of the participants. Taking opportunities to speak English in class was another quite common activity, 'sometimes' or 'often' carried out by 57.1% of the participants. However, the majority of the respondents (67.4%) said that they 'never' or 'rarely' made suggestions to the teacher (Table 12).

Table 12 - Engagement in Autonomous Activities in Class

Item	Never		Rarely		Sometimes		Often	
In your last academic term, in class, how often did you:	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f
55. ask the teacher questions when you do not understand?	6.1	25	24.8	101	37.5	153	31.6	129
56. make suggestions to the teacher?	27.2	111	40.2	164	24.3	99	8.3	34
57. take opportunities to speak English?	10.8	44	32.1	131	40.4	165	16.7	68

Differences in Learners' Engagement in Autonomous Language Learning Activities Based on High School Type, High School Location and Proficiency Level

Regarding the relationship between participants' engagement in autonomous language learning activities and the type of the high school that they graduated from, it was found that there was no significant relationship between these variables ($p < .967$). The result shows that the type of the high school did not play an important role in their engagement in the autonomous activities outside and inside the class while learning English.

The analysis of the relationship between engagement in autonomous activities and the geographical location of the high school reveals that there was a statistically significant relationship between these variables (Table 13). The independent variable, the geographical hometown region of the high school, has seven dimensions: the Marmara Region, the Aegean Region, The Mediterranean Region, The Central Anatolia Region, The Eastern Anatolia Region, The Southeastern Anatolia Region and the Black Sea Region. The data reveals that the participants in the Aegean Region tended to engage in autonomous activities significantly more than those who completed their high school education in other regions as shown in Table 14.

Table 13 - One-way ANOVA for Engagement in Autonomous Activities and the Geographical High School Region

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.209	7	.458	2.316	**.025**
Within Groups	78.975	399	.198		
Total	82.185	406			

Table 14 - Descriptive Statistics for Engagement in Autonomous Activities and Geographical High School Region

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
1 Marmara	101	2.2351	.42752	.04254
2 Aegean	32	**2.3719**	.49301	.08715
3 Mediterranean	82	2.3409	.47383	.05233
4 Central Anatolia	100	2.2131	.44568	.04457
5 Southeastern Anatolia	19	2.3184	.45528	.10445
6 Eastern Anatolia	26	2.1808	.36772	.07212
7 Black Sea	43	2.1477	.44145	.06732
Total	403	2.2586	.44992	.02230

As for the relationship between engagement in autonomous activities and the proficiency level, a statistically significant relationship was found (Table 15). The Post-hoc Tukey test reveals that upper-intermediate/advanced students' score (mean=2.43, SD=.440) in this part is significantly higher than those of both the lower- intermediate/intermediate (mean=2.20, SD=.427) and beginner/elementary students (mean=2.25, SD=.425), as shown in Table 16. This result suggests that as language proficiency increases, the frequency of engagement in autonomous activities increases, too.

Table 15 - One-way ANOVA for Engagement in Autonomous Activities and Proficiency Level

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.643	2	1.322	6.684	**.001**
Within Groups	80.090	405	.198		
Total	82.733	407			

Table 16 - Post-hoc Tukey Test for Engagement in Autonomous Activities and Proficiency Level

(I) Proficiency Level	(J) Proficiency Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower bound	Upper bound
3 upper-intermediate/advanced	1 beginner/elementary	.17879(*)	.06708	.022	.0210	.3366
	2 low-intermediate/intermediate	.22433(*)	.06143	.001	.0798	.3688

Note: * The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Part 5: Participants' Employment of Metacognitive Strategies

In the last section of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to indicate the frequency of their employment of the metacognitive strategies given. Students were given eight strategies and asked to rank their employment of these strategies on a 5 point Likert scale that went from '*never or almost never*' to '*always or almost always*'. The results of this section were analyzed according to Oxford's (1990) key to averages. The Table 17 below shows the meaning of each score.

Table 17 - Key to SILL Averages (Oxford, 1990)

High	Always or almost always used	4.5 to 5.00
	Generally used	3.5 to 4.4
Medium	Sometimes used	2.5 to 3.4
Low	Generally not used	1.5 to 2.4
	Never or almost never used	1.0 to 1.4

The average score found for the participants' metacognitive strategy use was 2.94, which means that their metacognitive strategy use was at the medium level, and they sometimes used metacognitive strategies that help them control their own learning process.

Differences in Learners' Metacognitive Strategy Use Based on High School Type, High School Location and Proficiency Level

The analysis of the relationship between metacognitive strategy employment and the type of the high school that the participants graduated from shows that learners' use of metacognitive strategies did not significantly differ based on the high school type ($p < .410$).

As for the relationship between metacognitive strategy use and the geographical region of the high school, it was found that there was no statistically significant relationship between these variables ($p < .158$). It reveals that metacognitive strategy employment did not display variance based on the geographical hometown region of the high school.

Regarding the relationship between learners' metacognitive strategy use and proficiency level, no significant relationship was found ($p < .167$). The result suggests that proficiency level is not an important factor in these learners' metacognitive strategy use.

The Relationship between Culture of Learning and Learner Autonomy Readiness

To see the relationship between culture of learning and the separate components of learner autonomy as well as learners' learner autonomy readiness, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was obtained.

Table 18 displays the correlation between culture of learning and learners' perceptions of their own and their teachers' responsibilities. Although the correlation between culture of learning and learners' perceptions of responsibility is statistically significant (r=.20, p< .01), the correlation was quite weak.

Table 18 - Correlation between Culture of Learning and Learners' Perceptions of Responsibility

	Culture of Learning	Perceptions of Responsibility
Culture of Learning	1	.200(**)
Perceptions of Responsibility	.200(**)	1
Mean	2.48	2.92
Standard deviation	.563	.504

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

In terms of the relationship between culture of learning and learners' decision making abilities, again a statistically significant relationship was found between them, as shown in Table 19, but again the correlation was weak (r=.343, $p < .01$). The result shows that there is some likelihood that as learners' culture of learning scores increase, their scores regarding their perceptions of their decision making abilities increase, too or vice versa.

Table 19 - Correlation between Culture of Learning and Learners' Decision-Making Abilities

	Culture of Learning	Decision Making Abilities
Culture of Learning	1	.343(**)
Decision making abilities	.343(**)	1
Mean	2.48	3.32
Standard deviation	.563	.549

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

Regarding the relationship between culture of learning and participants' engagement in autonomous language learning activities outside and inside the class,

a positive weak correlation (r= .285, p<0.01) was found between these variables, as

shown in Table 20.

Table 20 - Correlation between Culture of Learning and Learners' Engagement in
Autonomous Language Learning Activities

	Culture of Learning	Engagement in autonomous lang. learning activities
Culture of Learning	1	.285(**)
Engagement in autonomous language learning activities	.285(**)	1
Mean	2.48	2.26
Standard deviation	.563	.450

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

Regarding the relationship between the culture of learning and learners'

employment of metacognitive strategies, the relationship was also statistically

significant (r= .283, $p < .01$) as shown in Table 21. However, as the correlation was

weak, it suggests only that there was a mild relationship between these variables.

Table 21 - Correlation between the Culture of Learning and Participants'
Metacognitive Strategy Use

	Culture of Learning	Metacognitive Strategy Use
Culture of Learning	1	.283(**)
Metacognitive strategy use	.283(**)	1
Mean	2.48	2.94
Standard deviation	.563	.708

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

Apart from carrying out correlations between the culture of learning score of the participants and separate sections in the learner autonomy readiness questionnaire, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was also conducted to see the relationship between the culture of learning and the learners' combined score for learner autonomy readiness. The result found was statistically significant ($p < .01$), with a moderate correlation ($r = .401$) as shown in Table 22.

Table 22 - Correlation between Culture of Learning and Participants' Learner Autonomy Readiness

	Culture of Learning	Learner Autonomy Readiness
Culture of Learning	1	.401(**)
Learner Autonomy Readiness	.401(**)	1
Mean	2.48	2.73
Standard deviation	.563	.355

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

Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires. First, the data regarding the participants' culture of learning were described, and it was found that in high school, the majority had not been exposed to activities that promoted learner autonomy in the high school they received education. Additionally, it was found that learners' culture of learning scores significantly differed based on the type of high school in which they had studied.

Second, the findings related to learner autonomy readiness were presented. There were five parts in the learner autonomy readiness section of the questionnaire, and each part was analyzed separately. Overall findings showed that the participants gave more responsibility to themselves for out-of-class activities while giving more responsibility to their teachers for in-class activities. The findings also showed that most of the participants would consider their own decision-making abilities to be average, especially in in-class activities. In other words, if they were given the opportunity to make decisions about their own learning, on average they felt they could do it. As for the motivation level, it was found that participants had a tendency to consider themselves to be reasonably motivated while learning English. In the fourth part, the participants' engagement in autonomous language learning activities inside and outside the class was investigated, and the findings showed that the general tendency among participants was to rarely carry out autonomous activities while learning English. Additionally, it was found that their engagement in these activities differed based on the region and proficiency, but not the type of the high school. In the last part of the questionnaire, the findings showed that learners' metacognitive strategy use was at the medium level, which suggested that they sometimes employed these strategies to take control over their learning.

Third, to see the relationship between culture of learning and learner autonomy readiness, correlations were conducted, and a moderate statistically significant relationship was found. This suggests that as learners' culture of learning score increases, their learner autonomy readiness score increases as well.

The next chapter will discuss the findings, pedagogical implications, suggestions for further studies and limitations.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to explore Turkish preparatory students'

readiness for autonomous learning and its relationship with the participants' culture

of learning. Data were collected through questionnaires, which were administered to

408 preparatory students from seven different universities around Turkey. The

questionnaire administered to students included three main sections. In the first

section, demographic information about the participants was collected. The second

section aimed to investigate participants' culture of learning, and it included

questions about teacher and learner roles and autonomous learning activities in the

high schools that the learners graduated from. The third section aimed to explore

participants' readiness for autonomous learning, measured in terms of perceptions of

student and teacher responsibilities, decision-making ability, motivation, engagement

in autonomous learning activities, and metacognitive strategy use. The data were

analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics, a one-way ANOVA, cross

tabulations and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

This chapter discusses the results obtained in this study, compares the results

with those of similar studies, suggests pedagogical implications, discusses the

limitations of the study, and outlines suggestions for further research. The discussion

follows the same order in which the results were given.

Discussion of the Findings

Discussion of the Results Related to Participants' Culture of Learning

The second section of the questionnaire aimed to investigate what kinds of learning cultures that the participants came from. When asked to indicate both their own roles as learners and their teachers' roles, participants tended not to choose the extremes of the scales. That is, they considered their teachers to be neither the sole authority nor purely a facilitator in the class. Similarly, they reported that they neither depended completely on the teacher nor took on completely autonomous roles in the high school. That most of the responses regarding teacher and learner roles tended towards the mid-point of the scales shows that in high schools, participants felt they received education that was not completely teacher dependent. The learners reported not being entirely passive, and felt they took responsibility to a certain extent. However, this cautiously optimistic picture was not confirmed when they were asked their actual autonomous practices in high school, as most of the participants reported that in their high schools, they were rarely engaged in activities that require autonomy. This result suggests that most of the participants came to the university without having been exposed to autonomous activities in their early education.

It was also analyzed whether the participants' culture of learning differed based on the geographical regions of the high schools that the participants graduated from, and the result showed that it did not show variance in different regions of Turkey. That is, participants coming to the universities from different regions of Turkey received more or less the same culture of learning score. This result shows that the participants of this study depict a relatively homogeneous picture in terms of

their impressions of their teachers' and their own respective positions and their reported limited experiences with autonomous learning activities. However, we do not see the same homogeneous picture when it was analyzed whether the culture of learning of the respondents differed based on the type of the high school that they graduated from. Learners who received their high school education in general high schools obtained significantly lower culture of learning scores compared with those from Anatolian, Super and Private high schools. This result may imply that the quality of education varies in different school types in Turkey. Students in Anatolian, super and private high schools are accepted to these schools if they can get high scores from a standardized nationwide exam, so they represent a distinctive group in terms of their academic achievement. Additionally, these students may be provided with effective learning environment equipped with innovative learning opportunities, some of which have a role in fostering autonomous learning. The number of students per teacher tends to be lower in these school types, which also positively affects the quality of education. Moreover, teachers working in Anatolian and private high schools are selected after they pass certain tests, and they are encouraged to participate in professional development activities, which may help them keep up with the recent trends and innovations in education. Thus, leaving behind their traditional roles, they may be encouraged more to promote learner autonomy in their classrooms.

Discussion of the Results Related to Participants' Readiness for Learner Autonomy

The third section of the questionnaire aimed to investigate participants' readiness for learner autonomy. This section included five parts each of which can be considered as the components that make up learner autonomy. The results of each part will be discussed in the same order as they were presented in the fourth chapter.

Participants' Perceptions of their Own and their Teachers' Responsibilities

The first part of the third section of the questionnaire asked students their perceptions of their own responsibilities and how they perceived their teacher's role in the language learning process. The results showed that learners seemed to take more responsibility upon themselves for outside-of-class responsibilities such as making progress outside the class, deciding what they learn outside the class and making themselves work harder. Although students assumed more responsibility for their outside-of-class learning processes, they gave more responsibility to their teachers when it came to in-class educational issues of evaluation and to methodological aspects of learning such as deciding the objectives of the course, choosing materials and activities to be used, and deciding how long to spend on each activity. These results concerning the participants' perceptions of responsibility are consistent with those found by Chan, Spratt and Humpreys (2002*),* who concluded that most of the participants in Hong Kong Polytechnic University gave the teachers more responsibility for the areas mentioned above. Similarly, Kocak (2003) reported that preparatory students at Baskent University held the teacher more responsible especially for the methodological aspects of their learning concerning the decisions to be taken on the content of English lessons, the activities or tasks to be carried out in the English lessons, the time limit to be spent on each activity or task and the

materials to be used in the English lessons. Likewise, Yildirim (2005) found that both 1st year and 4th year ELT students at Anadolu University gave the teacher more responsibility for the methodological aspects of their learning.

By looking at these findings, it can be said that Turkish learners, like their Asian counterparts in the study carried out by Chan et al. (2002), have some definite lines in their minds about teacher and student roles in the classroom. Although they feel that they can take responsibility for certain areas of their learning, they still see the teacher as an authority and expert who makes most of the decisions about students' learning in the classroom. However, it is widely argued in the literature that learners should be willing to take responsibility in all kinds of decision making processes, including those related to methodological aspects of their learning such as setting course objectives and defining the content of the lesson. Assuming such responsibilities is considered important if students are expected to have control over their learning (Benson, 2001; Cotterall, 2000; Holec, 1981; Little, 1991). Similarly, Cotterall (1995) argues that learners' beliefs may act either as a facilitator or an obstacle in the development of learner autonomy, and if they see the teacher as an authority figure in the class, this view will conflict with attempts to promote learner autonomy.

When it was analyzed whether learners' perceptions of responsibility differed according to high school type, high school location and proficiency level, a statistically significant relationship was found only between perceptions of responsibility and proficiency level of the participants. The results revealed that beginner and elementary learners' mean scores for perceptions of responsibility were lower than those of the pre-intermediate/intermediate students, which were in turn

lower than those of upper-intermediate/advanced students, suggesting that that students become more willing to take more responsibility in their learning as their proficiency in the language increases. The reason for this can be related to experience in language learning and resulting confidence. That is, as they feel less competent in the language, they may see the teacher as a knowledge expert who should make decisions about students' learning. Another reason could be teachers' using more autonomy promoting activities in higher proficiency classrooms and allowing students to do as much as they can on their own. Thus, students at higher proficiency levels may get used to taking responsibility for their own learning, which in turn affects their perceptions of responsibility.

Participants' Decision-Making Abilities

The results in this part showed that participants considered their own decision making abilities to be good/very good for the responsibilities taken mostly outside the class such as choosing learning activities outside the class, choosing learning objectives outside the class, choosing learning materials outside the class, and identifying their own weaknesses in learning English. On the other hand, they rated their abilities lower regarding responsibilities taken in the class. These responsibilities mostly include the methodological aspects of their learning as in the previous section. This result suggests that Turkish university students do not feel very competent in making decisions about their own learning, at least within the formal classroom environment. This result is also consistent with the results found by Chan et al. (2002), especially for the activities carried out in the class. They found that their participants rated their abilities as average in most of the areas of their learning. In this respect, Turkish students depict a similar learner profile to those in

Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Consistent with the answers given in the first part regarding participants' perceptions of responsibility, the results in this part can be attributed to students' general acceptance of teacher authority. Therefore, students expect the teacher to make most of the decisions in the learning process as they do not feel that they have the abilities to make the right decisions about their own learning. However, we cannot say that the general picture on this issue is completely pessimistic, because only a very few of the participants felt that their decision making abilities would be poor/very poor if they were given the opportunity. This result suggests that students can ultimately make crucial decisions in their learning if teachers gradually give them more responsibilities and train them to be more autonomous. This could be done by slowly increasing the dose of responsibility, allowing students to feel more competent in making their own decisions in their own learning.

Participants' Motivation Level in Learning English

A majority of the participants in this study reported that they were 'motivated' or 'well motivated' to learn English. Additionally, a few participants indicated that they were highly motivated to learn English. Although the number of the respondents who reported that they were only 'slightly motivated' or 'not at all motivated' constitutes more than one third of the respondents, the results still reveal an optimistic picture as most of the participants can be considered to be reasonably motivated to learn English. In the literature, some researchers claim a link between learner autonomy and motivation. For example, Littlewood (1996) considers motivation to be one of the factors involved in the development of learner autonomy. Similarly, Lee (1998) states that teachers and course directors need to create

necessary conditions to increase learners' willingness to take more responsibility for their own learning. Given the link between motivation and learner autonomy, the participants' being reasonably motivated to learn English could be a good sign for their readiness for learner autonomy. However, it is also necessary to see whether students' motivation level generates actual autonomous behaviors or not. In order to answer this question, the existing data of this study were used to explore the relationship between motivation level and actual autonomous learning practices, and a one-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant relationship ($p < .000$) between these variables. That is, highly motivated students were found to be more engaged in autonomous activities outside the class. This result confirms the link between motivation and actual autonomous behaviors. In the study conducted by Chan et al. (2002), similar results were found when the data were analyzed quantitatively. However, interestingly, further in depth qualitative analysis based on the interviews conducted with the participants revealed contradictory results. That is, students who were found to be 'well-motivated' or 'motivated' to learn English admitted that they did not have sufficient motivation to engage in autonomous activities outside the class. As the data in this study are limited to quantitative analysis, further research is required to explain these contradictory findings.

Participants' Engagement in Autonomous Activities inside and outside the Class

In terms of the autonomous language learning activities that participants actually reported carrying out inside and outside the class, the general tendency was to rarely engage in these activities. There were some outside class activities such as watching movies in English, listening to songs in English, and watching English TV programs that attained the highest percentages in the 'sometimes' or 'often'

categories of the scale. However, the activities which can be considered to be more 'study-related' were found to be rarely or never practiced by the respondents. For example, the majority of the respondents reported that they rarely or never attended self-study centers, wrote journals in English, reviewed their written work on their own or sent e-mails in English. In this respect, their actual autonomous behaviors conflict with the responses that they gave in the previous sections. Although participants gave more responsibility to themselves for the activities conducted outside the class in the first part of the readiness questionnaire, it is evident that their beliefs do not lead to real autonomous behaviors. Similarly, they rated their decision-making abilities as good/very good for outside class activities such as choosing learning activities outside the class, choosing learning objectives outside the class and choosing learning materials outside the class, but they do not seem to operationalise their beliefs into actual behaviors. These results were highly consistent with the results that emerged in the studies carried out by Kocak (2003) and Chan et al. (2002). They also found that their participants rarely engaged in the activities mentioned above. The learners' lack of engagement in outside-of-class activities might stem from the lack of motivation as discussed in the previous section, or possibly from insufficient encouragement from the teachers.

In terms of the in-class activities that the participants engaged in, a more positive profile emerged. Students reported that they sometimes or often took opportunities to speak English in class, and asked the teachers questions when they did not understand, which suggests that teachers are not the only ones speaking in the classes and that they provide opportunities for the students to speak. However, when it comes to making suggestions to the teacher, most of the participants tended to

choose the 'rarely' or 'never' categories on the scale. These results show that participants still see the teacher as the one who has knowledge and expertise, and they may consider making suggestions to the teacher to be a challenge to the teacher's authority in the class.

When the relationship was analyzed between participants' engagement in autonomous language learning activities and the type and geographical region of the high schools that they graduated from as well as their English proficiency levels, the results revealed significant correlations for both the geographical region of the high school and English proficiency level. Participants who received a high school education in the Ege (Aegean) Region were found to engage more often in autonomous language learning activities both inside and outside the class. Although it is impossible to know exactly the reason for this connection, a few possible explanations may be suggested. One reason for this could be related to motivation and opportunity. As the Aegean Region attracts many tourists, especially from English speaking countries because of its touristic nature, residents of the region might have a greater need and more opportunities to speak with native English speakers, and as a consequence, might be more likely to be intrinsically motivated to learn English. When the current data were analyzed to see the answers given by the participants having received a high school education in the Aegean region in terms of their motivation level, it was found that more than half of the respondents reported that they were motivated or well motivated to learn English. Therefore, their being motivated to learn English may cause them to practice autonomous language learning activities independently of the teacher.

English proficiency level was another factor that was found to be significantly related to the frequency of engagement in autonomous language learning activities inside and outside the class. Specifically, upper-intermediate/advanced learners were found to engage in autonomous activities significantly more than beginner/elementary and lower intermediate/intermediate students. This result is consistent with what the participants at the upper intermediate/advanced level reported in the previous parts. That is, they were also found to accept more responsibility for themselves in the learning process. This significant correlation confirms that they seem to carry out more autonomous activities in accordance with their perceptions. Another reason for upper intermediate/advanced students' more frequent engagement in autonomous activities might stem from their longer experience with language learning. The analysis of the existing data also supports this assumption. That is, a one-way ANOVA analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship between proficiency level and how long that the participants had been studying English ($p < .000$). Students with higher proficiency levels were found to have significantly longer exposure to English. This longer exposure and experience may have allowed them to develop various strategies to learn the language better, including some which may overlap with autonomous learning behaviors and activities.

The high school type that the participants graduated from was not found to be related to the participants' autonomous language learning practices inside or outside the class. This result is a little surprising because when we analyzed participants' engagement in autonomous activities in their earlier education, those who had received a high school education in Anatolian, super and private schools were found

to be exposed to more autonomous activities. In this respect, one might expect the graduates of these schools to have significantly higher results in this part related to their current engagement in autonomous activities in the university, too. However, this is not the case, and it seems that graduates of other school types, despite not having much background experience in autonomous learning practices, can bridge the gap between themselves and private school graduates once they reach university. Thus, this result may show that learners can adapt their behaviors according to the demands of the new learning environment if they are provided with enough support and guidance to be more autonomous.

Participants' Metacognitive Strategy Use

In terms of metacognitive strategy use, the average score found shows that participants sometimes employ metacognitive strategies that facilitate their learning. In the literature, some researchers state that employment of metacognitive strategies enables students to take more responsibility for their own learning as it enhances learner autonomy (R. L. Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Reinders, 2000; White, 1995). In this respect, the results in this section seem promising in that students use metacognitive strategies to a certain extent even if their metacognitive strategy use was not found to be at the high level, but at the medium level. As it is a good sign for learner autonomy readiness, it can be said that with more guidance and strategy teaching, they can be trained to have more control over their learning.

When it is analyzed whether the participants' metacognitive strategy use differed according to high school type, high school location and proficiency level, the results did not reveal any statistically significant relationship. Regarding the relationship between proficiency level and metacognitive strategy use, the findings

are consistent with those found in Kocak's study (2003), which also did not find any significant relationship between these variables. However, in the literature, there are studies which found a relationship between strategy use and proficiency level. For example, in the study conducted by Green and Oxford (1995), significant relationships were found between proficiency level and each of the six SILL categories, including metacognitive strategies. This difference between their results and those in this study may be explained on the basis of the difference between the settings. Green and Oxford describe the setting in their study as a hybrid foreign/second language environment, and all the participants, regardless of their proficiency level, are reported to have received a considerable amount of English instruction starting from first grade through high school. In this respect, researchers say that differences in their current proficiency levels are clear signs of whether they are successful or unsuccessful language learners. However, in our case in Turkey, there may be lower-proficiency students with great potential to be successful learners in general, but who have just started to learn English. If such students are in a language program in which the curriculum encourages strategy training at all levels, they may have quickly narrowed the gap between themselves and the higher proficiency students regarding their metacognitive strategy use though not yet necessarily in terms of proficiency.

In terms of the relationship between metacognitive strategy use and the type and the geographical region of the high school, the failure to find a relationship between these variables suggests that these two learning cultural variables do not have any connection with metacognitive strategy use in particular. It appears that participants' individual factors may be affecting their metacognitive strategy use

more than certain broad social or cultural variables. In this respect, those individual

factors can be investigated in further research.

Discussion of the Results Related to the Relationship between Culture of Learning

and Readiness for Learner Autonomy

In order to investigate the relationship between culture of learning and

readiness for learner autonomy overall, correlations were carried out separately

between the components of learner autonomy readiness and the respondents' culture

of learning scores, as well as between the respondents' overall learner autonomy

readiness and culture of learning scores. The results revealed statistically significant,

but weak positive correlations for all the correlations carried out. Although the

relationship between culture of learning and overall readiness for learner autonomy

was not very strong, the statistically significant relationship suggests that learners

who were exposed to greater learner autonomy in their previous learning experiences

seem to be more prepared for autonomous learning. The correlation's being

somewhat weak may suggest that culture of learning is not the only variable involved

in learner autonomy readiness, and there can be other variables interfering with the

development of learner autonomy.

Moreover, drawing on the results, it would be wrong to say that Turkish

learners are not culturally predisposed to learn autonomously. This result refutes

some general claims about "Asian" learners' cultural inclination towards passivity

and reticence, which prevents them from learning autonomously (Jones, 1995;

Pennycook, 1997). As the data here suggest, it is more likely that learners' long

experience in a learning environment in which traditional methods are used instead

of the activities that foster learner autonomy, will lead to their developing passive learning behaviors, which make it difficult for them to take on autonomous roles the minute they come to university. There may be other individual factors playing a role, but it is obvious that a broad ethnic or national definition of culture, which is described in very simplistic terms and puts all learners under one category like "Turkish" or "Asian", is not enough to explain the differences in learners' learner autonomy readiness. In this respect, this result regarding the statistically significant relationship between learner autonomy readiness and previous learning experiences (culture of learning) confirms the arguments supported by several researchers. For example, Cheng (2000) criticizes the cultural interpretations of some Asian students' reticent and passive behavior, and argues that students' previous learning experiences may conflict with the practices that aim to promote learner autonomy in the classrooms. Similarly, Gieve and Clark (2005) claim that "an ethnically based notion of culture" is not adequate to make conclusions about learners' autonomous learning behaviors.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The analysis of the data reveals important pedagogical implications that can inform future language teaching practices at the secondary and tertiary levels in Turkey. Regarding the culture of learning of the respondents, the data revealed that students rarely practice autonomous activities in their early experiences, which may stem from unsuitable methodologies being used, insufficient materials, teachers' lack of professional knowledge about the promotion of learner autonomy, and curricula which do not encourage learner autonomy. The Ministry of National Education may draw on the results of this study as impetus to provide schools with more self-access

facilities, computer assisted learning technologies, and materials designed to foster learner autonomy. Additionally, teachers should be encouraged more to participate in professional development activities, which help them take on more autonomy supportive roles in their classrooms. Setting up aligned curricula which aim to adapt primary and secondary education to the demands of learner-centered approaches may ensure the gradual development of learner autonomy in educational institutions at the primary and secondary level. In this way, learners would not be abruptly exposed to radical changes in the curricula at the tertiary level, which may cause them to resist and react negatively to classroom practices that aim to foster autonomous learning.

Regarding participants' readiness for learner autonomy, the results show that preparatory students have some role expectations, which affect their perceptions of responsibility inside and outside the class. They still largely see the teacher as an authority figure in the classroom, who should take most of the responsibilities and make most of the decisions about their learning in the classroom context. If we are to implement curricula and adhere to assessment standards that demand autonomous learning from our students, it is obvious that teachers will need to contribute by first accepting a redefinition of their roles, and then creating a learning environment in which they transfer some of their responsibilities to the students. This includes identifying the areas in which students can make their own decisions. In the literature, several researchers offer some suggestions that help learners take responsibility for their own learning. For example, Clifford (1999) states that through the implementation of learning contracts at the tertiary level, teachers change their roles from knowledge experts into that of facilitators. In learning contracts, students are given an opportunity to select the topics they would like to study from a list, so

that they are involved in 'ownership of the course content', and they feel that it is more relevant to their needs and interests. Similarly, Lee (1998) describes the implementation of a self-directed program, in which participants are asked to choose the activities and materials to be used and set their objectives again through learning contracts, all of which contribute to their learner autonomy development.

Cotterall (2000) proposes certain course design principles that aim to foster learner autonomy in the classroom by incorporating means of transferring responsibility from the teacher to the learners. In one of the principles, she argues that raising learners' awareness in identifying their own goals, specifying objectives on the basis of these goals, and identifying resources and strategies that would help them achieve their goals are of primary importance. She further argues that decisions about the materials, texts, tasks and strategies should be taken in relation to learner goals. In another principle, she suggests that teachers present various strategies to learners and help them experiment with these strategies. Such experimentation can help them discover what strategies work best for them, and to better understand what contributions these strategies can make to their learning.

Creating a collaborative classroom environment in which students are encouraged to be involved in the decision-making processes, and where they feel that their ideas are supported and respected by their peers and the teacher, is also said to have a positive effect on the promotion of learner autonomy (Benson, 1996; Clifford, 1999). In a cooperative learning environment, students do not just listen passively and take notes, but take on some teaching roles while helping their peers. In this way, their independent thinking skills are improved, and they can engage in similar tasks

by themselves independently of the teacher. Therefore, cooperative learning naturally leads to learner autonomy and independence (Duan, 2005).

In accordance with the result suggesting that there is a link between motivation and readiness for learner autonomy, it is important to make all efforts to promote motivation in language classrooms. While too numerous to discuss in great detail here, certain approaches and practices such as collaboration, communicative language teaching, careful choice of tasks and materials on the basis of learner needs and interests, group work tasks and instruction in self-motivation strategies have all been shown to increase learners' motivation in the language classroom (Adamson, 2004; Brown, 1994; Dornyei, 2001, 2003; Nunan, 1997).

Limitations of the Study

Although the regional backgrounds of the study participants were quite varied, due to some bureaucratic issues, the number of students participating in the study from the far Eastern parts of Turkey is quite limited. In this respect, the results may not be generalizable to preparatory students in these regions.

Because of a desire to collect data from as broad a range and as large a number of preparatory students as possible, the results of this study are limited to quantitative data collected from participants through questionnaires. As the data are based on self-reports of the participants, the findings should be treated with caution. In this respect, using interviews or observations in addition to questionnaires would have increased the reliability of the results.

To be able to collect data from a potentially diverse student population, students were surveyed in seven different universities. This meant that their current learning experiences were diverse, as well. Their current beliefs may, therefore, have

been slightly affected by these new and different experiences, which may possibly explain some unexpected results. For example, students with little high school exposure to learner autonomy, but reporting high readiness now, may have been affected by autonomous learning activities in their first semester of preparatory school education.

Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, some suggestions can be made for further research. Firstly, the present study was designed as a survey study, and the data were gathered from preparatory students all around Turkey. In further research, more in-depth case studies can be carried out by using several data collection procedures such as conducting interviews with students and teachers, observing classrooms or gathering data from various sources such as learner journals, portfolios and the results of needs analyses.

To investigate in greater depth the culture of learning in schools at the secondary and primary level, further research can be conducted in an ethnographic manner, which will allow a more reliable picture showing the actual practices in these educational institutions.

The current curricula at secondary and primary level and materials being used in institutions at these levels can be analyzed to investigate whether they include learner autonomy promoting practices, which then will help curriculum and material developers to make necessary adaptations that are in favor of learner autonomy. Additionally, the physical conditions of institutions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, such as opportunities for self-access facilities and computer assisted

language learning technologies, can also be analyzed in further studies to explore the extent to which they help to promote or restrict learner autonomy.

The effects of learner training on the development of learner autonomy can also be studied in a further experimental study. Additionally, whether the effects of learner training differ on the basis of individual differences such as English proficiency level, motivation and age can be investigated in educational institutions at primary, secondary and tertiary level.

As learner autonomy depends on teacher autonomy to a certain extent, further studies can analyze teachers' perceptions of learner autonomy and to what extent they support autonomy by using autonomy supportive practices at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education.

Conclusion

The present study has provided information about Turkish preparatory students' perceptions of autonomy and autonomous learning practices with a specific reference to their previous learning experiences or culture of learning. The results show that developing learner autonomy is not an easy process as it is influenced by several factors. Learners bring a set of complex beliefs, attitudes and experiences to their classrooms, some of which can contribute to the development of learner autonomy, while some act as obstacles. However, in spite of some constraints that contradict with the autonomy supportive practices, as Nunan (1996, p.13) points out, "some degree of autonomy can be fostered in learners regardless of the extent to which they are naturally predisposed to the notion". In this respect, it would be too simplistic to rely on the arguments supporting the idea that it is easy to identify a shared learning behavior which is assumed to apply to all members of a specific

culture regardless of their wide geographical and cultural setting (Cheng, 2000).

Therefore, in any attempts to promote learner autonomy, solutions should be sought

taking into consideration the situation specific factors which are unique to each

learning context.

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APPENDIX A: ÖĞRENCİ ANKETİ

Bu anket Türkiye'deki hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin İngilizce öğrenirken aldıkları sorumlulukları, kullandıkları stratejileri, ders dışındaki ve içindeki İngilizce öğrenme faaliyetlerini ve geçmiş öğrenme alışkanlıklarını saptamak için araştırma aracı olarak hazırlanmıştır. Vereceğiniz doğru cevaplar ile elde edeceğimiz bilgiler ülkemizde İngilizce eğitiminin daha verimli hale getirilmesi için yapılacak çalışmalara önemli ölçüde katkı sağlayacaktır. Verdiğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizlilik ilkeleri içerisinde ele alınacaktır.

Yardımlarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Aslı KARABIYIK
Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi

BÖLÜM I

Bu bölümde kişisel bilgi içeren bir dizi soru vardır. Lütfen sizin için doğru olan şıkkı işaretleyiniz ya da boşlukları doldurunuz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

a) Bayan   b) Erkek

2. Yaşınız: _____

3. Öğrenim gördüğünüz üniversitenin adı nedir?

_____

4. Hazırlık sınıfındaki kurunuz (seviyeniz) nedir?

_____

5. Üniversiteye başlamadan önce kaç yıl İngilizce dersi aldınız?

a) Hiç   b) 1–3 yıl   c) 4–6 yıl   d) 7 ve üzeri

6. Babanızın eğitim düzeyi nedir?

a) İlkokul   b) Ortaokul   c) Lise   d) Üniversite
e) Yüksek lisans/doktora   f) Okuryazar değil

7. Annenizin eğitim düzeyi nedir?

a) İlkokul   b) Ortaokul   c) Lise   d) Üniversite
e) Yüksek lisans/doktora   f) Okuryazar değil

8. Öğrenim gördüğünüz lisenin türü nedir?

a) Düz Lise   b) Meslek Lisesi   c) Anadolu Lisesi
d) Süper Lise   e) Özel Lise   f) Diğer _____

9. Lise öğreniminizi hangi şehirde tamamladınız? _____

BÖLÜM II

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, katilimi teşvik eder, öğrenci merkezlidir.)

Tek Otorite   **Kolaylaştırıcı**

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
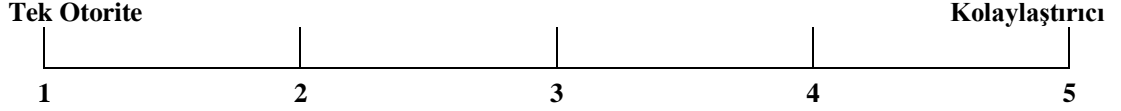
2. **Lisedeyken nasıl bir öğrenci olduğunuzu, öğrenmenizde öğretmene bağımlılık derecenizi düşünerek aşağıdaki ölçekte işaretleyiniz. (Uygun numarayı yuvarlak içine alınız.)**

(Özerk/Otonom öğrenci: Kendi öğrenmesinde sorumluluk ve kontrol sahibidir, kendi amaçlarını belirler, kendi öğrenmesini denetler, öğretmeni öğrenmede tek sorumlu 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?				

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

BÖLÜM III

A. SORUMLULUKLAR:

Aşağıda İngilizce derslerindeki sorumluluklarla ilgili ifadeler vardır. İfadeleri dikkatle okuyarak her bir sorumluluğun <u>SİZCE</u> 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 okulundaki 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?				
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?				

		Hiçbir Zaman	**Nadiren**	**Bazen**	**Sık Sık**
52.	öğretmeniniz istemeden yazılı bir çalışmayı gözden geçirdiniz?				
53.	Bireysel Çalışma Merkezine (okuma odası, video odası, dil laboratuarı 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.	İngilizceyi kullanmak için mümkün olduğunca fazla yol bulmaya çalışırım.					
59.	İngilizce yaptığım hataları fark ederim ve bu bilgiyi daha basarîli 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: STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

<u>SECTION I</u>

Please choose the appropriate option or complete the blanks.

1. Gender:

  a) Female   b) Male

2. Age: _____

3. What is the name of the university you attend?

  _____

4. At which level are you a student this term?

  _____

5. How long did you study English before you started the university?

a) Never   b) 1–3 years   c) 4–6 years   d) 7 years and more

6. What is your father's education level?

a) Primary school   b) Secondary   school   c) High school   d) University
e) Graduate studies   f) Illiterate

7. What is your mother's education level?

a) Primary   b) Secondary   c) High school   d) University
e) Graduate studies   f) Illiterate

8. What is the type of the high school in which you studied?

a) General high school   b) Technical school   c) Anatolian high school
d) Super high school   e) Private high school   f) Other _____

9. Where did you complete your high school education? _____

SECTION II

Answer the following questions considering the high school that you graduated from.

1. **Considering the general teacher profile in the high school you graduated from, how would you define the role of your teachers in class? Please circle the number appropriate for your opinion.**

(**Facilitator:** Facilitates learning, guides, listens, encourages participation, is learner-centered.)

Sole Authority   Facilitator

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
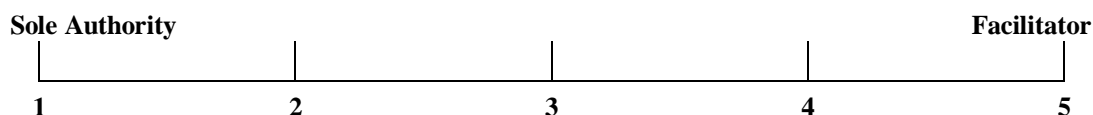
2. **How would you define your role as a learner when you were in the high school? Please circle the number appropriate for your opinion.**

(**Autonomous Learner:** Takes responsibility for his/her own learning, sets his/her learning goals, evaluates his/her own learning, does not consider the teacher to be the only decision-maker in the learning process.)

Teacher-
dependent   Autonomous

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

	Throughout your high school education,	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently
3.	How often were you asked to participate in group/pair work activities?				
4.	How often were you asked to evaluate your own work?				
5.	How often were you asked to evaluate your peers' work?				
6.	How often were you asked to choose your partners that you wanted to work with?				
7.	How often were you asked to participate in a project work?				
8.	How often did your teachers ask you to choose what activities to use in your lessons?				
9.	How often did your teachers ask you to choose what materials to use in your lessons?				
10.	How often were you asked to set your own learning goals?				
11.	How often were you asked to evaluate your course?				
12.	How often were you asked to decide what you should learn next?				
13.	How often were you asked to prepare portfolios?				

SECTION III

A. RESPONSIBILITIES: (Please put a tick in the appropriate box.)

In English lessons, whose responsibility should it be to		Completely the teacher's	Mostly the teacher's, partly mine	Half mine, half the teacher's	Mostly mine, partly the teacher's	Completely mine
14.	make sure you make progress during lessons?					
15.	make sure you make progress outside class?					
16.	stimulate your interest in learning English?					
17.	identify your weaknesses in English?					
18.	make you work harder?					
19.	decide the objectives of the English course?					
20.	decide what you should learn next?					
21.	choose what activities to use in your English lessons?					
22.	decide how long to spend on each activity?					
23.	choose what materials to use in your English lessons?					
24.	evaluate your learning?					
25.	evaluate your course?					
26.	decide what you learn outside the class?					

B. ABILITIES: (Please put a tick in the appropriate box.)

If you have the opportunity, how good do you think you would be at:		Very poor	Poor	OK	Good	Very good
27.	choosing leaning activities in class?					
28.	choosing learning activities outside class?					
29.	choosing learning objectives in the class?					
30.	choosing learning objectives outside the class?					
31.	choosing learning materials in the class?					
32.	choosing learning materials outside the class?					
33.	evaluating your learning?					
34.	evaluating your course?					
35.	identifying your weaknesses in learning English?					
36.	deciding what you should learn next in your English lessons?					

C. MOTIVATION: **(Please put a tick in the appropriate box.)**

		Not at all motivated	Slightly motivated	Motivated	Well-motivated	Highly-motivated
37.	How would you define your level of motivation to learn English?					

D. ACTIVITIES (Please put a tick in the appropriate box.)

	In the last academic term, without having been assigned to do so, how often did you	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently
38.	read grammar books on your own?				
39.	note down new words and their meanings?				
40.	send letters to your pen-friends?				
41.	read newspapers in English?				
42.	send e-mails in English?				
43.	read books or magazines in English?				
44.	watch English TV programs?				
45.	listen to English radio?				
46.	listen to English songs?				
47.	speak English with native speakers?				
48.	practice using English with friends?				
49.	watch English movies?				
50.	write a diary in English?				
51.	use the Internet in English?				
52.	review your written work on your own?				
53.	attend a self-study centre?				
54.	talk to your teacher about your work?				

	In your last academic term, in class, how often did you	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Frequently
55.	ask the teacher questions when you do not understand?				
56.	make suggestions to the teacher?				
57.	take opportunities to speak English?				

E. STRATEGIES:

	Below, you will find strategies related to learning a new language. Please read each statements and mark the response that tells how true the statement in terms of what you actually do when you are learning the new language.	(1) Never or almost never	(2) Generally not	(3) somewhat	(4) generally	(5) Always or almost always
		TRUE OF ME				
58.	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.					
59.	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.					
60.	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.					
61.	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.					
62.	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.					
63.	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.					
64.	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.					
65.	I think about my progress in learning English.					