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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE EFFECTS OF LEARNER TRAINING  
AND AWARENESS BUILDING ACTIVITIES ON LEARNERS'  
PERCEPTIONS OF RESPONSIBILITY IN LEARNING ENGLISH

MA THESIS

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Submitted by

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## ABSTRACT

The present study was implemented in order to investigate the effects of learner training and awareness building activities on learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English. In addition, it was aimed to find out whether these activities would cause any possible differences in learners' motivational level and in perceptions of responsibility with respect to gender.

The study, which adopted the pre-experimental study design, was carried out with 30 participants studying in Compulsory and Voluntary English Preparatory Programme at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The data were collected by means of quantitative and qualitative research techniques. Pre-tests and post-tests (questionnaires) given before and after the treatment which involved learner training and awareness building activities were quantitative in nature; and the follow-up interview was a qualitative technique. The data obtained from the questionnaires were analyzed and interpreted with the help of SPSS computer programme, while the data collected by the interview were evaluated qualitatively and quantitatively.

The results of both quantitative and qualitative findings of the study revealed that there was a significant increase in learners' perceptions of responsibility after the treatment. Secondly, while no statistically significant differences were detected in learners' overall motivation, qualitative findings revealed that a reasonable level of increase in their motivation occurred. Furthermore, no remarkable differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and between female and male students' motivation were reported. Finally, males' and females' perceptions of responsibility came out to be equivalent to each other both before and after the treatment.

This study concludes that learner training and awareness building activities have resulted in a significant improvement in learners' perceptions of responsibility and a moderate increase in their motivational level. In the light of these findings, this study draws attention to the importance of learner training in foreign language learning and attempts to illustrate the ways for integrating learner training into the course design. Finally, it offers some suggestions for further research.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil öğrenimine ilişkin bilinçlendirme ve eğitime etkinliklerinin, öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenimleriyle ilgili sorumluluk algıları üzerindeki etkilerini araştırmak amacıyla yürütülmüştür. Bununla birlikte, sözü edilen etkinliklerin öğrencilerin motivasyon seviyelerinde ve ayrıca cinsiyete bağlı olarak sorumluluk algılarında ve motivasyonlarında gerçekleşebilecek olası farklılıkları araştırmak amaçlanmıştır.

Deneme öncesi çalışma tasarımını uygulayan bu araştırma, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi, Zorunlu ve İsteğe Bağlı Hazırlık Programı'nda okuyan 30 öğrenci ile yürütülmüştür. Veriler nicel ve nitel araştırma yöntemleri kullanılarak elde edilmiştir. Yabancı dil öğrenimiyle ilgili bilinçlendirme ve eğitime etkinliklerini kapsayan uygulamadan önce ve sonra verilen testler (anketler) nicel, uygulama sonunda gerçekleştirilen görüşme ise nitel bir tekniktir. Anketlerden elde edilen veriler, SPSS bilgisayar programıyla analiz edilip yorumlanmış, görüşmeden sağlanan veriler ise nitel ve nicel olarak değerlendirilmiştir.

Çalışmadan elde edilen hem nicel hem de nitel bulgular, uygulama sonrasında, öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenimindeki sorumluluk algılarında önemli bir artış olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bununla birlikte, öğrencilerin toplam motivasyonunda istatistiksel olarak önemli bir fark bulunmadıysa da, nitel bulgular öğrencilerin motivasyon seviyesinde ortalama bir artış olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, iç kaynaklı ve dış kaynaklı motivasyon tipleri ve kız ve erkek öğrencilerin motivasyon seviyeleri arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Son olarak, uygulama öncesi ve sonrasında, kız ve erkek öğrencilerin sorumluluk algılarının birbirine oldukça yakın olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Bu çalışma, yabancı dil öğrenimine ilişkin bilinçlendirme ve eğitime etkinliklerinin, öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenimindeki sorumluluk algılarında önemli ve motivasyon seviyelerinde makul bir artışa sebep olduğu sonucunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Bu bulgular ışığında, çalışma, sözü edilen etkinliklerin önemini

vurgulamış ve bu etkinlikleri öğretim programına dahil etmenin yollarını önermiştir.  
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TO

*My parents, Seniye and Turgut BAYRAKTAR*

&

*My husband, ULAŞ BALKIR*

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**ABBREVIATIONS**

P	Participant
RQ	Research Question
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences (ver. 10.0)

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of the background to the study. Then, it introduces the purpose of the study and research questions. After it presents the significance of the study, assumptions and limitations of the study are presented. Finally, it describes the organization of the study.

#### **1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY**

When the literature is reviewed, there seems to be no agreement on the definition of learner autonomy although most scholars quote Holec's definition which explains autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (1981:3 cited in Aoki 1999: 142; Benson and Voller 1997: 1; Cotterall 2000: 109; Gardner 2000: 50; Lamb 2003: 1; Lee 1998: 283; Sert 2006: 2; Thanasoulas 2000: 1; Usuki 2001: 2). While Holec's definition offers an overall understanding of the concept, it does not actually reflect the other aspects of autonomy. However, when other definitions of the term are reviewed (see 2.1), various aspects of the term could be summarized in three main ways. In this respect, autonomy refers to learners' *psychological capacity* to assume responsibility for and take control of their own learning; a mode of *self-instructed study* whereby there is no teacher intervention or control over the learning process; and a learning situation where learners have *the right and freedom to make decisions* about the content and process of their own learning.



While the three points summarizing the meaning of the term are helpful in understanding in which contexts the term is used, there are actually several factors that lead to confusion and vagueness in clarifying the concept of autonomy. One of these factors is that autonomy is a construct which is difficult to measure because it is not displayed in observable behaviours (Dickinson 1993: 330). Another reason is that autonomy is not a method of learning, but a natural attribute of learning (Benson 2001: 2; Little 1990). Furthermore, autonomy is a multidimensional construct and a matter of degree and it is realized in different forms and degrees depending on learners' age, personal needs, goals and preferences, and specific aspects of learning (Benson 2001: 51).

In spite of the difficulty in describing the concept of autonomy because of the various complex features it entails as discussed above, characterizing autonomous learners is relatively easier since the relevant literature offers a variety of qualities for learners who are considered to be autonomous. According to literature, autonomous learners are characterized as those who assume responsibility for their learning; assess and evaluate progress and achievements; have basic knowledge about language learning; are able to use appropriate learning strategies, are able to make significant decisions about their learning and implement those decisions appropriately; have self-knowledge; have self-confidence in learning a language; and can manage negative affective factors, etc. (Cotterall 1995b; Dickinson 1993; Ho and Crookall 1995; Van Lier 1997).

While the concept of learner autonomy appears to have come into view in the field of language learning in the recent past, it is not possible to attribute the emergence of the concept in language learning to a single source or a specific point of time because complicated relationships exist between the advancements in different areas and periods of time. However, as several scholars suggest, the origins of the concept in education, specifically in language learning, match up with the developments in political, sociological and technological context in Europe in the late 1960s (Benson 2001; Gremmo and Riley 1995) since that was a decade of radical transformation in thought and exercise in every area of life. Besides the

conditions in developed western countries in that decade, various approaches and ideas in the areas of educational reform, psychology of learning and learner-centredness have contributed to the introduction of the concept of learner autonomy into language education (see Benson 1997; Thanasoulas 2000; Williams and Burden 2000) (see 2.2).

The review of literature on autonomy reveals that the term *responsibility* has a crucial place within the present concept. Responsibility is to do with taking charge of one's own learning and being able to cope with the consequences of every action taken by the learner (Scharle and Szabo 2000). As discussed previously, both autonomy and responsibility are concerned with learners' active involvement in the matters that are closely linked to their learning; therefore, they are two interrelated concepts. Little (1995: 175), for example, argues that accepting responsibility for one's own learning is the basis of learner autonomy. Similarly, Zehir Topkaya (2004: 40) suggests that responsibility and autonomy are "two complementary behaviours" in that "students need to accept themselves as the centre of learning, so that they could become autonomous learners". Therefore, it could be concluded that autonomy is conditional upon responsibility.

The definition of responsibility is extended by describing the characteristics of responsible learners. According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), responsible learners are those who believe that their own efforts will be significant in their progress; are aware of the benefits of working collaboratively with the teacher and peers; consciously monitor and evaluate their progress; and are willing to use every opportunity for their benefit to foster their learning. In other words, they have a sense of responsibility of their own efforts in the learning process; are aware of the fact that both success and failure are the result of their efforts; and are in charge of their own learning.

Learner autonomy, more specifically responsibility, is desirable to be developed in learners for a number of reasons. The primary goal of developing autonomy is to help learners to become better and more efficient language learners.

Developing learner autonomy is also desirable for philosophical, pedagogical and practical reasons (Cotterall 1995a). When it is justified on philosophical grounds, the view that learners have the right to make choices concerning their own learning comes to foreground. From the pedagogical perspective, learners who are involved in the matters related to their own learning experience will feel more secure in their learning. Finally, on the practical basis, the time and opportunities allocated to formal teaching at schools is limited. Thus, in order to be successful in learning a language and continue seeking the ways for life-long learning, learners should be autonomous, self-initiative in and responsible for their learning (Cotterall 1995a).

Attempts to foster learner autonomy in language learning have adopted different approaches; yet in most cases, a combination of several approaches seems to be optimal (Benson 2001). The present study adopted learner-based approaches to the development of autonomy. In these approaches, direct production of behavioural and psychological changes in the learner is emphasized (Benson 2001). In other words, the main focus is on learner development which Sheerin (1997: 59-60) defines as “cognitive and affective development involving increasing awareness of oneself as a learner and an increasing willingness and ability to manage one’s own learning”.

Learner-based approaches to the development of autonomy are usually put into practice under the term of *learner training*. The practice of learner training has been shaped by the findings derived from the studies on language learning strategies, good language learner, cognitive psychology and so on. Learner training involves two main components: *raising learners’ awareness* and *helping them acquire a set of skills* for more effective learning (Hedge 2000). In other words, typical learner training programmes aim at enhancing learners’ metacognition. The term *metacognition*, which is defined as “an awareness of one’s own mental processes and an ability to reflect on how one learns, in other words, knowing about one’s knowing”, is an indispensable part of learner training programmes (Williams and Burden 2000: 148).

Most researchers who have conducted learner training studies agree on the conditions how to design them. Firstly, learners should be assisted to gain a sense of awareness of themselves as learners. Then, they should be aware of the idea that they have the biggest responsibility for their own learning. Next, a supportive environment which combines the principles of setting goals, developing language learning strategies, undertaking self-assessment, building an awareness of learning styles, encouraging self-confidence and motivation, raising metacognitive awareness, cooperating with the teacher and peers, and reflecting on one's progress should be provided (Cotterall 1999; Dickinson 1993; Esch 1997; Finch 1998; Gower, Philips and Walter 1985; Koda-Dallow and Hobbs 2005; Lee 1998; Nunan 2002; Sheerin 1997; Victori and Lockhart 1995; Wenden 1998b; Yang 1998).

The general conclusions that the researchers have drawn from learner training studies usually include the statements like the following ones: Being an autonomous learner takes time and it is not something automatically flourishes. However, being exposed to learner training sessions, and given chances to make choices, students' perceptions of being responsible and self-directed learners develop quickly. Learning how to learn is not an end in itself, but a beginning (Bertoldi, Kollar and Ricard 1988:165; Cotterall 2000; Lee 1998; Wenden 1996).

In conclusion, learner training is a valuable practice which is likely to encourage learners to become more active, successful, responsible and autonomous in their learning endeavour gradually.

## **1.2 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The main aim of the study is to explore the effects of learner training and awareness building activities on learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English. Additionally, it is intended to find out whether these activities will result in

any possible meaningful differences in learners' motivational level and perceptions of responsibility in relation to gender.

This study, therefore, aims to find answers to the following research questions:

**RQ 1:** What are the perceptions of responsibility of students in English preparatory classes?

**RQ 2:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility with regard to gender?

**RQ 3:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learning training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 4:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility after learner training and awareness building sessions in relation to gender?

**RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference in learners' motivational level after learner training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 6:** How do learners evaluate learner training and awareness building sessions?

### **1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

Since the recent trends in educational psychology are in favour of training individuals how to learn, how to continue their life-long education, and how to be ideal citizens of a democratic society, developing learner autonomy in language learning appears to be a significant endeavour that needs to be accomplished. It is also known that effective learning takes place when learners actively involve in and assume responsibility for their own learning. In this respect, it sounds quite reasonable and desirable to foster learner autonomy as it entails both one's active and responsible involvement in the learning process. However, learners do not always become autonomous individuals on their own; or they are not often aware of most of the points that will help them learn a language more effectively. Furthermore, it is

assumed that taking on responsibility for one's own learning is not innate (Holec 1980 cited in Tan and Chan 1997). For this reason, foreign language teachers have another important duty of building an awareness of the facts related to the development of responsibility in language learners, and helping and guiding them in learning how to learn as well as teaching them the content of the target language. Following the previous rationale, this study intends to find out whether a systematically planned learner training programme will bring about a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility, which is an essential component of learner autonomy, in learning English.

In addition, the review of literature reveals that the studies aiming to promote learner autonomy are mostly derived from teacher-based approaches in Turkey (see Özdere 2005; Sert 2006; Yıldırım 2005). However, there is a scarcity of studies adopting learner-based approaches to foster autonomy. Therefore, this study might guide further learner-based, more specifically learner training studies, in Turkey.

The findings of this study can motivate foreign language teachers to foster learner autonomy in their classes and influence course designers to incorporate the elements that might lead to the development of learner responsibility and autonomy in course development. The results of this study might also contribute to the research implemented in this field and serve future researchers as a basis for further research related to the promotion of responsibility in foreign language learning settings. Furthermore, the results of this study can shed light on the organization of foreign language teacher education and in-service teacher training with an emphasis on the development of learner autonomy through designing and implementing effective learner training programmes. Finally, the findings of the study can contribute to both theoretical and practical development of the concept of responsibility as an essential attribute of effective and autonomous learning.

#### **1.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

A group of English preparatory students at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University participated in this study which was carried out for over five weeks in the fall semester of 2005-2006 school year. With the purpose of collecting data, two questionnaires were developed by the researcher and also interviews were implemented. In this respect, the findings of this study are limited to the size of the sample group, the length of the study, and instruments developed. For this reason, the results of the study cannot be generalized for all learners of English and settings where English is taught as a foreign language.

#### **1.5 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY**

The study has the following assumptions:

First of all, it is assumed that all the participants took part in the study willingly and they were honest and frank when answering the questions in the questionnaires and the interview.

Secondly, the fact that they are coming from different social classes and cultural backgrounds is not considered very important.

It is also assumed that there are not many intervening factors that might affect the results and mislead the researcher.

## **1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS**

This thesis is composed of six chapters. Chapter One is an introduction and it presents the background of the study. The purpose of the study and research questions are presented as well. Furthermore, the significance, assumptions and limitations of the study and the description of the organization of the whole thesis are included in this chapter.

Chapter Two establishes a theoretical framework for learner autonomy and responsibility. It reviews the literature on definitions of learner autonomy and responsibility; development of learner autonomy in language learning; relationship between autonomy and responsibility, and between motivation and autonomy.

Chapter Three presents the rationale for developing learner autonomy in language learning, approaches to the development of learner autonomy, and details about learner training and awareness building in promoting learner autonomy. The chapter ends with a review of several studies concerning the promotion of learner autonomy in language education.

Chapter Four describes the methodology of the study by referring to the research questions and design of the study. Furthermore, the pilot study and main study are described in detail.

In Chapter Five, the findings of the study are reported accordingly in depth. Interpretations of the findings are complemented with tables and figures.

Chapter Six is a summary of the whole study. It discusses the findings, draws some conclusions, and underlines important implications in the light of these conclusions. It also presents several suggestions for further research.



## **1.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter reviewed the background to the study. It introduced the purpose of the study and presented research questions. It emphasized the significance of the study and highlighted the limitations and assumptions. Finally, the organization of the thesis was outlined.

**CHAPTER TWO**  
**THE DEFINITION AND HISTORY OF LEARNER AUTONOMY**  
**IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

**2.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter, which mainly focuses on theoretical aspects of learner autonomy, begins with a detailed review on the definition and description of the concept. Next, several controversial issues related to the concept of autonomy are discussed, and the characteristics of autonomous learners are described. Then, the historical development of learner autonomy is reviewed. Furthermore, the concept of responsibility as an essential dimension of learner autonomy and the central element of this study is discussed in terms of its relation to and place in autonomy. Finally, the relationship between autonomy and motivation is explored.

**2.1 DEFINING AND DESCRIBING AUTONOMY**

Inspection of literature reveals that the definition of ‘autonomy’ does not seem to be based on a general consensus among the authors who are interested in the field of learner autonomy. One of the reasons for this disagreement is that it is a construct which is difficult to measure, observe or identify the characteristics that it encompasses (Benson 2001; Benson and Voller 1997; Little 1990). Moreover, autonomy is a construct which is displayed in different ways and to different degrees by different learners (Cotterall 1995b: 195). Another reason for the discussions on the definition and description of autonomy is the existence of different versions of autonomy that result in the differences in ways of describing and exercising it (Benson and Voller 1997).

In spite of all the discussions on the nature of autonomy and its definition, a large number of authors and researchers often quote Holec's definition which explains autonomy as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (1981: 3 cited in Aoki 1999: 142; Benson and Voller 1997: 1; Cotterall 2000: 109; Gardner 2000: 50; Lamb 2004: 1; Lee 1998: 283; Sert 2006: 2; Thanasoulas 2004: 1; Usuki 2001: 2). In his definition, learners' *ability* to manage their own learning appears to be one of the main facets of autonomy.

While Holec's definition is considered as the basic one by a number of authors, it points to only one aspect of autonomy, which comes out as the 'ability' to take charge of one's own learning. However, the definitions suggested by other authors reveal different aspects of autonomy. For instance, one of these definitions offered by Benson (2001: 47) explains autonomy as "the *capacity* to take control of one's own learning". Another oft-cited definition of autonomy which involves similarities with Benson's and Holec's, but which is a more extended one, has been proposed by Little (1991: 4 cited in Benson 2001: 49, Dickinson 1995: 167; McCarthy 1998: 1; Thanasoulas 2004: 2). According to him, autonomy is "essentially a matter of *learner's psychological relation* to the process and content of learning...a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making, and independent action". In this sense, autonomy is not a method of teaching or "it is not something done to learners" but something which learners can only do for themselves (Little 1990; Thanasoulas 2004: 2). Usuki (2001: 2) exploits the term in a similar manner: learner autonomy is not to do with "giving the learning environment, but it is the students' *motivation* to make their own environment for their learning". Thus, three aspects of autonomy, 'capacity' to take control of one's own learning, 'learners' internal attitude' towards learning, and learners' 'motivation' to make learning of their own come out as distinct characteristics of autonomy besides the 'ability' to take charge of one's own learning.

In other definitions of autonomy, the terms *responsibility* and *attitude* come to foreground as two key components that make up autonomy. Dickinson (1987: 11), for example, defines autonomy as "the situation in which the learner is totally

responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions”. Dickinson (1995: 167) also offers another definition by which the concept of responsibility is highlighted in the development of autonomy. According to him, autonomy refers to “an attitude towards learning in which the learner is prepared to take, or does take, responsibility for his own learning”.

In another definition of the term, *independent learning* becomes the focal point of autonomy. Cotterall’s (2000: 109) definition explains autonomy as “involving students’ capacity to use their learning independently of teachers”. According to her, autonomy is also to do with “the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to use a set of tactics for taking control of their learning” (Cotterall 1995b: 195). That is to say; learners’ ability to use these tactics reveals the degree of their autonomy. Among these tactics, which are displayed in varying extents by different learners, are setting goals, choosing materials and tasks, planning, monitoring and evaluating language learning process.

Scharle and Szabo (2000) point to two other aspects of autonomy: *freedom* and *right* to make choices besides the ability to handle one’s own affairs. More specifically, autonomy refers to “the freedom and ability to manage one’s own affairs, which entails the right to make decisions as well” (Scharle and Szabo 2000: 4). With respect to learning, their definition could be interpreted as the freedom and ability to manage one’s own learning as well as having right to make choices.

In contrast to Scharle and Szabo (2000), Kenny (1993: 431) argues that autonomy does not simply mean having the ability or freedom to make choices but it also entails “*exploration* of self-concept and the *realization* of personal and group potential”. In other words, autonomy is related to the discovery of “inner self” which is brought to “outer expression” that makes it possible to grow one’s potential. The conversion of inner self into outer self allows learners reflect on their beliefs, thoughts, perceptions and problems. This, in turn, allows them to be the producers of

knowledge rather than the consumers who choose among the ready-made materials, sources or activities. In his own terms (Kenny 1993: 440):

Autonomy is not just a matter of permitting choice in learning situations, or making pupils responsible for the activities they undertake, but of allowing and encouraging learners, through processes deliberately set up for the purpose, to begin to express who they are, what they think, and what they would like to do, in terms of work they initiate and define for themselves. This is holistic learning and it transcends subject disciplines.

In this explanation, central tenets of humanism such as self-actualization, personal growth and development, and also the importance of reflection are embedded. Therefore, it could be stated that autonomy is also concerned with learners' feelings and emotions and their need for personal growth as well as success in learning.

Three more facets of autonomy, *technical ability*, *psychological capacity* and *control* should also be taken into consideration when describing its nature. These aspects of learner autonomy are emphasised in Benson's (1997: 25) three main definitions of autonomy in language learning:

- autonomy as the act of learning on one's own and the technical ability to do;
- autonomy as the integral psychological capacity to self-direct one's own learning;
- autonomy as control over the content and processes of one's own learning.

These definitions are based on three different versions of autonomy as proposed by Benson (1997). These versions are named as technical, psychological and political which will be discussed in detail in the following parts.

After a review of a number of definitions of autonomy in the literature, the different aspects of autonomy stated in the previous parts could be brought together in order to come up with a neater understanding of the concept. Autonomy is about:

- the *ability* to take charge of one's own learning (Holec 1981: 3);
- the *capacity* to take control of one's own learning (Benson 2001: 47);
- learner's *psychological relation* to the process and content of learning...a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action (Little 1991: 4);
- the students' *motivation* to make their own environment for their learning (Usuki 2001: 2);
- involving students' capacity to use their *learning independently* of teachers (Cotterall 2000: 109);
- the extent to which learners demonstrate the ability to *use a set of tactics* for taking control of their learning (Cotterall 1995b: 195);
- the *freedom* and ability to manage one's own learning, which entails the *right* to make decisions as well (Scharle and Szabo 2004: 4);
- *exploration* of self-concept and the *realization* of personal and group potential (Kenny 1993: 431); and
- *control* over the content and processes of one's own learning (Benson 1997: 25).

These different definitions could be summarised in three main ways in which autonomy refers to:

- learners' psychological capacity to assume responsibility for and take control of their own learning,
- a mode of self-instructed study whereby there is no teacher intervention or control over the learning process,
- a learning situation where learners have the right and freedom to make decisions about the content and processes of their own learning.

For a broader understanding and the clarification of the concept of autonomy, Benson and Voller (1997: 1) suggest five different ways that the term 'autonomy' has been used:

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

These points reflect the differences of the term ‘autonomy’ used in various discourses. In addition, these five ways point to the different versions of autonomy and differences in the ways of implementing them (Benson and Voller 1997). These versions also match up with the three definitions suggested by Benson (1997: 25) as mentioned in the previous parts. The first definition is related to the *technical* version of autonomy within which the concept implies the act of learning a language independently of a teacher or an educational institution. The second definition corresponds to the *psychological* version which considers autonomy as a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities – by which learners are expected to assume more responsibility for their own learning. The last definition is based on the *political* version of autonomy which characterizes the notion as the “control over the processes and content of learning” (Benson 1997: 19). In the light of this classification, it could be suggested that it is possible to differentiate between various definitions of autonomy in terms of different versions that they correspond to.

Similar to three different versions of autonomy proposed by Benson (1997), there are three broad views of autonomy in language learning suggested by Sinclair (1999). According to her, the first view of autonomy is concerned with letting learners exercise a degree of independence. The second view considers autonomy as “a capacity for making informed choices about one’s learning”; while the third view regards autonomy as “a question of learners’ rights, or freedom from constraint” (Sinclair 1999: 310-311). In the light of these different views and versions of autonomy, it is easier to interpret and understand different definitions of the term more clearly.

While it is possible to minimize the confusion about the definition and description of autonomy and come to a more shared understanding of the term through the classification of the versions of autonomy and exploration of different views on it, there still remain other factors which lead to difficulty in describing autonomy more precisely. One of these factors is that autonomy is a construct which is difficult to measure because it is not displayed in observable behaviours (Dickinson 1993: 330). Another reason is that autonomy is not a method of learning,

but a natural attribute of learning (Benson 2001: 2; Little 1990). Thus, it is an internal capacity of the learner and for this reason it is not easy to describe the concept explicitly. Furthermore, autonomy is a multidimensional construct and a matter of degree and it is realized in different forms and degrees depending on learners' age, personal needs, goals and preferences, and also specific aspects of learning (Benson 2001: 51). Finally, autonomy is context-specific. That is; "an individual may be autonomous in one area while dependent in another" (Murray 1999: 305). As a result, it becomes quite hard to qualify learners as either autonomous or dependent in terms of concrete observable characteristics.

While it is sensible to define and describe autonomy in terms of what it entails, it is also necessary to discuss what autonomy is *not* so that some of the misconceptions could be overcome about the nature of autonomy to some extent. Little (1990: 7), for instance, proposes a list which summarises and clarifies the nature of autonomy by explaining what it is *not*

- Autonomy is **not** a synonym for self-instruction; in other words, autonomy is **not** limited to learning without a teacher.
- In the classroom context, autonomy does **not** entail an abdication of responsibility on the part of the teacher; it is **not** a matter of letting learners get on with things as best they can.
- On the other hand, autonomy is **not** something that teachers do to learners; that is, it is **not** a teaching method.
- Autonomy is **not** a single, easily described behaviour.
- Autonomy is **not** a steady state achieved by learners.

One of the distinguishing characteristics of autonomy is, then, the possibility to exercise it even in a classroom context as well as in self-instruction. However, when autonomy is exercised in a classroom context, the teacher is not expected to transmit whole responsibility to the learner but to help and guide them in getting the best out of their learning. The view that autonomy is not a teaching method emphasises the fact that learner autonomy is not to do with "giving the learning environment, but it is the students' motivation to make their own environment for their learning" (Usuki 2001: 2). Another point that comes to foreground again is the



difficulty in describing autonomous behaviour as autonomy does not entail a single behaviour or it is not a stable state attained by learners.

Another primary reason to account for the disagreement on the definition and description of autonomy in the literature is that there are a number of terms that have been used synonymously or interchangeably with the concept (Thanasoulas 2004). Among these terms are self-instruction, self-direction, semi-autonomy, self-access learning and self-access materials, individualized instruction and so on. These terms are distinguished by Dickinson (1987) (see Figure 1).

<b>AUTONOMY AND RELATED TERMS</b>
<b>Autonomy</b> → the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions
<b>Semi-autonomy</b> → the stage at which learners are preparing for autonomy
<b>Self-instruction</b> → the situations in which learners are working without the direct control of the teacher.
<b>Self-direction</b> → a particular attitude towards learning where the learner accepts responsibility for all the decisions concerned with his learning but does not necessarily undertake the implementation of those decisions
<b>Individualized instruction</b> → a learning process adapted to a particular individual, taking this individual's characteristics into consideration
<b>Self-access materials</b> → materials appropriate to and available for self-instruction
<b>Self-access learning</b> → self-instruction using these materials

**Figure 1: Definition of autonomy and related terms (Taken from Dickinson 1987: 11)**

Two of these terms, self-direction and autonomy, are especially distinguished by Dickinson (1987: 13). The former refers to learners' taking on responsibility for the management of their own learning while the latter is recognized as carrying out all of these tasks related to management of learning by learners, without requiring any help from the teacher. In other words, self-direction is to do with the capacity and autonomy refers to the ability to perform the actions that this capacity involves. However, when these two terms are used in this study, this distinction is not pursued strictly.

As stated previously, autonomy is a construct which is difficult to measure since it is not explicitly manifested in observable behaviours (Dickinson 1993). However, in order to research a construct such as autonomy, it should be described in terms of observable behaviours. Having made the definition of autonomy as “the capacity to take control of one’s own learning”, Benson (2001: 47) argues that the construct of ‘control’ is more suitable to investigation than the constructs of ‘charge’ and ‘responsibility’. For this reason, control should be the key determiner in defining and describing the concept of autonomy. He proposes three important levels of learner control in language learning: learning management, cognitive processes and learning content which are highly interdependent (Benson 2001: 50):

These levels are clearly interdependent. Effective learning management depends upon the control of the cognitive processes involved in learning, while control of cognitive processes necessarily has consequences for the self-management of learning. Autonomy also implies that self-management and control over cognitive processes should involve decisions concerning the content of learning.

Holec’s definition of learner autonomy as taking charge of one’s own learning holds the level of *learning management*. Control over learning management includes the use of language learning strategies. Among the different taxonomies of language learning strategies found in the literature, metacognitive, social and affective strategies appear to be the most appropriate ones for the construct of autonomy because metacognitive strategies are to do with the learners’ self-management skills; “social strategies represent actions taken in relation to others; and affective strategies describe the actions taken by the learners in relation to the self” (Benson 2001: 82).

Little’s definition adds a *cognitive* aspect to the nature of autonomous learning in that “the learner will develop a particular kind of psychological relation to the process and content of his learning” (1991: 3). Control over cognitive processes of learning has something to do with the psychology of autonomous learning. This

level of control involves the cognitive processes of directing attention, reflection, and building metacognitive knowledge.

Benson (2001) puts forward a third aspect, the situational aspect, to the nature of autonomous learning. *Situational* aspect implies the learner control over the content of learning. It is assumed that learners should have the right to determine their own learning goals and also the learning content.

The fourth aspect of autonomous learning is the *social* aspect which suggests that control over learning might include collective and interactive decision-making rather than the learner's own preferences and choices (Benson 2001).

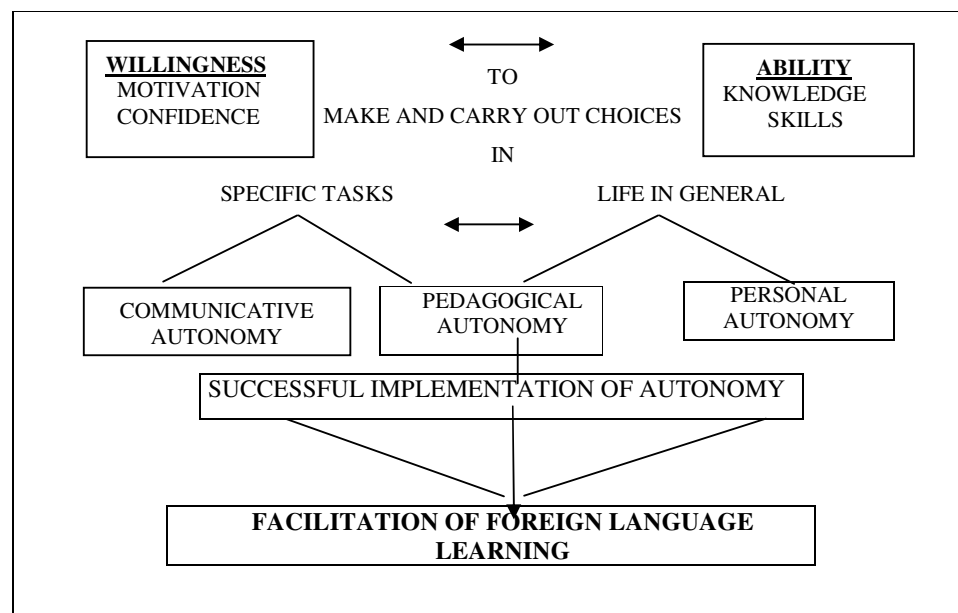
As it is apparent in the preceding paragraphs, when attempting to define and describe autonomy, different levels of learner control should also be taken into consideration so that a broader understanding of autonomy could be achieved. Four main levels of learner control, learning management, cognitive processes, control over learning content and interactive decision-making, as pointed out by Benson (2001), serve as the basic guidelines in realizing what control over learning involves, which is suggested as the most suitable construct to investigation.

Along with different versions of autonomy, which are stated as technical, psychological and political by Benson (1997), there are also different components and domains of the concept (see Figure 2). According to Littlewood (1996), for example, *ability* and *willingness* are two principal components composing this capacity. These components themselves are divided into two. Ability involves knowledge and skills; and willingness is based on motivation and confidence. All of these components are connected to one another. Therefore, a person can achieve acting in an autonomous way providing all of these components exist together (Littlewood 1996: 428).

Littlewood (1996) also suggests three highly interdependent domains of autonomy by which it becomes possible to develop autonomy in and through foreign

language learning: autonomy as *communicators*, autonomy as *learners* and autonomy as *persons* (see Figure 2). Each domain has different levels at which the choices are made and carried out.

Similar to Littlewood, Little (1995: 176) proposes two distinct dimensions of autonomy: *pedagogical* autonomy and *communicative* autonomy (see Figure 2). The former seems to be similar to Littlewood's dimension of 'autonomy as learners' in which the aim is to produce autonomous learners and the latter to 'autonomy as communicators' which concerns the autonomous use of target language for the aim of communication. These two domains are closely linked and highly interdependent and their effective integration ensures successful implementation of autonomy. Consequently, as learners' confidence in using target language increases through these successful practices of autonomy, second language acquisition is fostered since having confidence is a prerequisite to effective communication. For Little (1995), this is the rationale behind the attempt to foster autonomy among language learners.



**Figure 2: Components and domains of autonomy in foreign language learning (based on Little 1995: 176; Littlewood 1996: 430)**

To sum up, it turns out to be quite difficult to define and describe learner autonomy in a clear-cut and concrete manner because perception and implementation of the concept exhibit variation and differences depending on various aspects, versions, dimensions, components of autonomy and different contexts that it is used as discussed in detail in the previous parts. This complex nature of the concept of autonomy needs to be taken into account if it is to be perceived precisely.

### **2.1.1 ISSUES OF DEBATE**

When the literature is surveyed, there appears to be a large body of ongoing debates about the theory and exercise of autonomy. These discussions center around issues such as whether it is a universally adaptable concept or a dominant Western-European value (see Chanock 2003; Ho and Crookall 1995; Jones 1995; Sert 2006; Usuki 2001); whether it is an attitude towards learning totally independent of teachers (see Cotterall 2000; Little 1990) or it is possible to implement it even in traditional classrooms where the teacher plays an important role in the learning process (see Little 1990); whether it refers to learning in isolation or it entails an interdependent, interactive or collaborative aspect (see Benson 2001; Dickinson 1987; Esch 1997; Kohonen 1992 in Benson 2001; Lee 1998); or whether it is usually suitable only for adults and higher levels of proficiency or its exercise is feasible for all ranges of ages and levels and so on (see Gremmo and Riley 1995; Dickinson 1987, 1993).

One of the widespread debates about the theory of autonomy is whether the present concept is a cultural specific or a universally adaptable notion to language education. While there is the common view that “the concept of autonomy is laden with cultural values, particularly those of the West” (Jones 1995: 228), many authors argue that it could also be exercised to some extent in language education regardless of the culture providing that an environment for introducing and fostering autonomy is created accordingly to that specific culture (Chanock 2004; Crabbe 1996; Ho and

Crookall 1995; Sert 2006; Usuki 2001). Crabbe (1996 cited in Usuki 2001: 6), for example, points out that “taking charge of learning is a characteristic of human mind, that we all have the capacity to develop autonomy and although that capacity might not be the same for everyone”. At this point, it can be suggested that “different cultures and learning contexts require different approaches to promote learner autonomy” (Sinclair 1997 quoted in Usuki 2001: 7).

Similarly, Usuki (2001: 7) points out that “learner autonomy must be a universal characteristic of human beings, and should be promoted for all learners as one of the important goals of language education”. Sert (2006: 4) also points out that “both eastern and western educational systems recognize the importance of more autonomous learning, yet stand perhaps at different points in its historical implementation”. Further claims indicate that in different learning contexts, even in Confucian-heritage cultures, where silence is considered to be gold, thus passivity is reinforced, there are ways to adapt and promote learner autonomy (Chanock 2004; Usuki 2001). It is also a surprising fact that most of the studies, research and publications about autonomy and self-directed learning have been done in Eastern-Asian countries such as China, Korea, Thailand and Japan which are assumed to be unsuitable cultures for the exercise of autonomy.

On the other hand, Riley (1988) elaborates on the ethnocentricity of autonomy. For him, learners’ cultural backgrounds might display variations in the implementation of autonomous and self-directed learning. Some cultures predispose against the idea of autonomy, while some others seem more suitable for the concept and exercise of autonomy. He argues, however, there is the danger of categorizing different cultures and societies according to their attitudes towards autonomous language learning. Nevertheless, the fact that there might be cultural variation in attitudes to learning and autonomy should be taken into consideration and a tentative analysis of learners’ cultural expectations should be integrated into course planning and implementation (Riley 1988; Tudor 2001: 154).

Another common discussion is that autonomy refers to learning in isolation. The reason accounted for this idea is the rise of the trend of individualization which has appeared as a result of studies emphasising the individual differences among learners and also the proliferation of educational technologies, especially personal computers, which has led to the misunderstanding about the real meaning of freedom and independence. However, many scholars support the idea that autonomous learning requires collective and cooperative work as well as working independently (Benson 2001; Dickinson 1987; Esch 1997; Kohonen 1992 in Benson 2001; Wallis 2005). Dickinson (1987) also maintains the view that autonomy requires a great deal of cooperation and collaboration among learners since language learning takes place in a social environment where the participants are involved in active communication. This point has also been highlighted by Kohonen (1992 quoted in Benson 2001: 14):

Personal decisions are necessarily made with respect to social and moral norms, traditions and expectations. Autonomy thus includes the notion of interdependence, which is being responsible for one's own conduct in the social context: being able to cooperate with others and solve conflicts in constructive ways.

As the quotation above describes the point very clearly, interdependent and social aspect is of utmost importance in autonomous language learning.

Another ongoing discussion is that whether the implementation of autonomy is suitable for children as well as adults. Gremmo and Riley (1995) argue that implementation of autonomous learning with young learners is viable because it is supported by sound evidence obtained from studies done by secondary school teachers in Norway. These studies proved that the children who were exposed to learning to learn approach appeared to be as successful as those that were taught in teacher-led classrooms. Also their learning competence came out to be higher (1995: 155). Similarly, Dickinson (1987: 15, 1993: 331) advocates that preparing children for self-directed learning is both necessary and possible, and also autonomy applies all levels and ages of learning. While the view that training of learners for autonomous learning could and should start at a young age seems to be ideal,

another fact that individuals need to be cognitively mature enough to be able to take control of their learning should also be kept in mind.

The question of whether self-directed learning could be implemented with adults of low educational level has been discussed for a long time. Gremmo and Riley (1995: 156) have found out an answer to that question through examining some examples of self-directed learning schemes conducted in different contexts. One of these programmes was implemented in Australia with migrant workers coming from low educational backgrounds. The students enrolled in that program were exposed to learning to learn approach. The results demonstrated that those learners appeared to be successful and also their self-confidence increased while their feelings of frustration and failure decreased.

After a review of issues of debate about the theory and implementation of autonomy, the following conclusions could be drawn. Firstly, autonomy has long been accepted as an ultimate goal of education and a natural characteristic of all human beings. Therefore, even in cultures whereby the implementation of autonomy seems to be unsuitable, autonomy could and should be promoted in language learning through preparing the most available and appropriate environment. Secondly, there is now much more agreement on the view that autonomy entails a cooperative and social aspect of learning rather than learning in isolation since language learning takes places in a social environment. Finally, there is sound evidence obtained from various studies that implementation of autonomy is both possible and necessary with learners having different backgrounds. Yet, the cognitive maturity level of learners needs to be taken into account when planning an autonomous learning or a learner training program as it will not be possible if learners are not ready or able to do so.



### 2.1.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF AUTONOMOUS LEARNERS

The review of literature on learner autonomy offers a detailed description of characteristics of autonomous learners. Unlike the disagreement on the definition of the concept, there is surprisingly a shared understanding of the characteristics of autonomous learners.

Dickinson (1987: 9), for instance, defines an autonomous learner as the “one who is totally responsible for making and implementing all of the decisions concerned with his own learning”. Similarly, Littlewood’s (1996: 428) definition suggests that an autonomous learner is the “one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions”. In other words, autonomous learners could be defined as those who have a responsible and independent attitude towards their learning with an awareness of making and implementing informed choices concerned with their own learning.

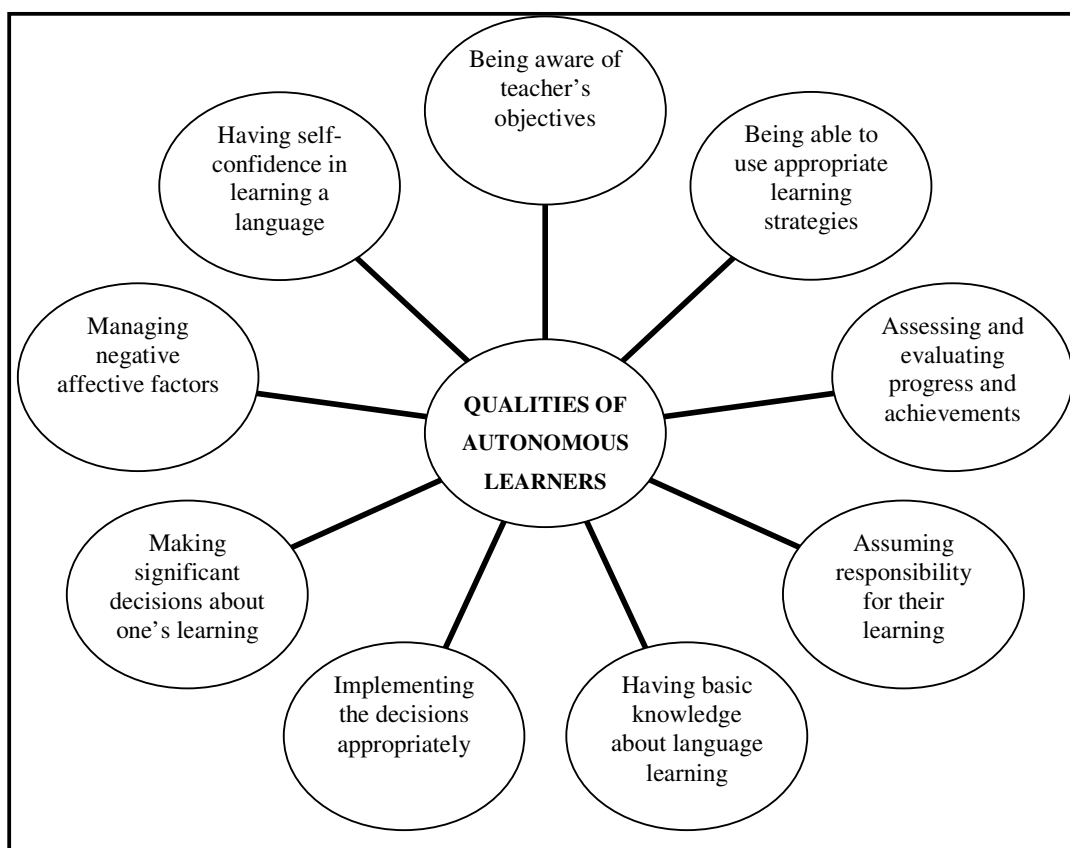
In more specific terms, autonomous learners are characterized as having a capacity for detachment, responsibility, making choices, critical reflection and decision-making and also the ability to define their own learning goals and contents (Dickinson 1995:167). Ho and Crookall (1995: 236) provide a similar list of features that characterize autonomous learners. One of these features is self-knowledge which entails “knowing what to learn and why”. Self-knowledge consists of skills such as “choosing instructional materials; setting learning objectives and prioritizing them; determining when and how long to work on each objective; assessing progress and achievements; evaluating the learning programme” (Ho and Crookall 1995: 236) (see Figure 3).

Another feature describing the nature of autonomous learners is their ability to manage negative affective factors such as stress and anxiety that seem to hinder learning. Having basic knowledge about the nature of language and language learning process is another important characteristic of autonomous learners.

Furthermore, autonomous learners are those who know how to motivate and discipline themselves (Ho and Crookall 1995: 236).

Although Dickinson (1993: 330-331) perceives autonomy as an attitude to language learning that may not necessarily have many external observable features, he suggests that autonomous learners could be characterized in terms of their attitude.

The most common qualities of autonomous learners are shown in Figure 3:



**Figure 3: Qualities of autonomous learners (Based on Cotterall 1995b; Dickinson 1993; Ho and Crookall 1995; Van Lier 1997)**

According to Cotterall (1995b: 201), it is a commonly held view in the literature that there is a positive relationship between learner confidence and success in language learning and “confidence is a defining characteristic of autonomous

learners” as well. Another characteristic of autonomous learners, as suggested by Cotterall (1995b: 202), is their awareness of “the role of cognitive and affective variables in language learning, of how language works and of how strategies influence learning”. Autonomous learners are also identified as those who do not rely only on teacher’s feedback but also assess their own progress and performance. Self-monitoring seems to be the most distinguishable characteristic of autonomous learners. To sum up, autonomous learners are those who have self-confidence in learning a language; who have a general awareness of and knowledge about language learning process and learning; and who find it worthy to assess and evaluate their own progress rather than relying only on teacher’s feedback (Cotterall 1995b).

Following the preceding discussions, then, it is possible to sum up the characteristics of autonomous learners as follows. Autonomous learners are qualified as those who take an *active role* in and who are *in control* of their own learning. They have also a sense of *awareness and basic knowledge* about different components and phases of language learning process as well as a *conscious attitude* towards their own learning progress. More specifically, autonomous learners have the ability and capacity to *make all kind of decisions* and *take appropriate actions* regarding their own learning such as deciding what, how, when, how long and where to learn, *evaluating their own progress* and dealing with the consequences of their own behaviours and actions. Actually, *responsibility* appears to be the underlying component of autonomy and a prerequisite to all of the features of autonomous learners mentioned in the previous statements since it is so apparent that only responsible learners will have a tendency to make decisions and take appropriate actions concerning their own learning.

## **2.2 DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNER AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

While the concept of learner autonomy appears to have come into view in the field of language learning in the recent past, it has truly existed as the seed of development and democratization of civilizations throughout the history. However, the roots of the concept in education, specifically in language learning, correspond to the developments in sociological, political and sociological context in Europe in the late 1960s, and educational reform, psychology of learning and learner-centredness. In the following parts, these developments and their effects on the growth of the concept of learner autonomy will be discussed in turn.

### **2.2.1 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LEARNER AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING**

In most of the readings on the origins and historical background of autonomy, there is an emphasis on the difficulty in stating a certain point of time or particular factors which have contributed to the development of the concept. For example, Gremmo and Riley (1995) point out that it is difficult to address the emergence of theory and practice of autonomy in language learning to a single source or a specific point of time because complex relationships with the developments in sociological, psychological, philosophical and political areas have contributed to the development of autonomy both as a concept and a valuable practice in language education.

One of the important factors contributed to the growth of the concept and practice of autonomy in language learning is the developments in sociological context in Europe in the late 1960s (Benson 2001). One sociological factor contributed to the emergence of the concept is the rise in the production of consumer goods and services in developed Western countries which induced a new understanding of human rights. This tendency led to the improvement of quality of

life and growth of respect for the individuals (Benson 2001). Similarly, Gremmo and Riley (1995) describe that period as an ideological shift away from consumerism and materialism towards an emphasis on the meaning and value of personal experience, quality of life, personal freedom and minority rights. The evolution of this movement influenced the appearance of adult self-directed learning, “which insisted on the need to develop the individual’s freedom by developing those abilities which will enable him to act more responsibly in running the affairs of the society in which he lives” (Benson 2001:8). As one of the significant consequences of these changes in sociological context in Europe, the Council of Europe’s Modern Languages Project was set up in 1978 and the first and main focus of this project was the migrant workers’ language learning needs. Autonomous and self-directed learning were central components in the framework of the council (Gremmo and Riley 1995).

Another factor that has played an important role in the development of autonomy in language learning is technological developments. The increase in the easier availability of a variety of technological tools such as the computer, the tape-recorder, the TV, fax and e-mail, the video and tape-recorder, the internet, the photocopier provided valuable opportunities for the practice of self-directed learning and the establishment of self-access centres, which has been considered as a valuable option to promote learner autonomy in language learning. Those centres have been founded with the idea that access to language learning materials would enable learners to be self-directed in their learning (Benson 2001; Gremmo and Riley 1995).

Similarly, in the political area, the rise of internationalism especially after the Second World War has significantly influenced the spread of the concept of autonomy in language learning (Gremmo and Riley 1995). As a result of the establishment of international organizations such as United Nations and European Union, and multinational corporations, foreign language learning requirements have considerably increased. The demand for learning languages for special purposes such as tourism, medicine, industry and technology has resulted in the implementation of more adjustable language learning schemes which were learner-centred and self-directed.

Another source of the emergence and growth of the concept of autonomy, for Gremmo and Riley (1995), is wider access to education in many countries that has led to the growth of student population in universities. In order to manage the large number of students, self-directed learning programmes with a focus on counselling and resource centre have been set up. These programmes have provided learners with the choice about what, when and where to study foreign languages.

The concept of autonomy in language education has also been influenced by the emergence of the need to satisfy especially adult learners' diverse learning needs and preferences in ways such as distance learning and open learning (Benson 2001). Those innovative ways of learning have largely been affected by the technological advancements that have helped learners free from institutional instruction and reduce their dependence on a teacher to acquire the required knowledge or skills. As Benson (2001:19) points out, "the successful learner is increasingly seen as a person who is able to construct knowledge directly from experience of the world, rather than one who responds well to instruction".

To sum up, developments and changes in sociological, political and technological context in developed Western countries in the late 1960s have underpinned the emergence of the concept of learner autonomy in language learning. However, it would be misleading to suggest that these factors and periods of time stated above strictly and solely explain the emergence of the concept. Therefore, several more factors such as educational reform, psychology of learning and learner-centredness should be discussed in order to come up with a broader understanding of how learner autonomy has entered the field of language learning.

### **2.2.2 EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

The fact that the prevailing trends in general education are immediately reflected in language education is also the case with the evolution of the concept of

learner autonomy. In this section, a brief discussion about the thoughts of leading figures in educational reform and their implications will be presented.

Among the prominent figures in educational reform, Jean-Jacques Rousseau made significant contributions to the development of the concept of autonomy and especially to the idea of responsibility as a key attribute of autonomy in learning (Benson 2001). In his proposal of a model of education, he pointed out that the most effective learning occurs when children are allowed to learn whatever they want and need to learn, and whenever they want to learn it rather than transmitting knowledge from teacher to learner in forms of abstract subject matters. What is more crucial is that learners should be responsible for their own actions and naturally of the consequences their actions bring about (Benson 2001).

John Dewey, another leading educational reformist, also contributed to the development of the concept in a similar way to Rousseau by indicating the importance of satisfying learners' needs and allowing them to solve their present problems through problem-solving method and collaborative work so that they could gain internal discipline which implied the reduction of teacher authority (Williams and Burden 2000). Dewey's thoughts emphasising that the most important function of schools is to prepare individuals for the proper functioning of a democratic society are of great importance in the betterment of education, consequently of society. In this respect, learner autonomy is considered to be quite significant in educating democratic individuals, which is possible through "training learners for responsibility and then for autonomy" (Zehir Topkaya 2004: 40).

Finally, Paolo Freire's thoughts have been quite influential in the evolution of the concept of autonomy since he attached great importance to responsibility as a fundamental human need, which is a view strongly shared by Rousseau. However, the main contribution of Freirean education theory to the theory of autonomy "lies mainly in its emphasis on the need to address issues of power and control in the classroom within broader social and political context" (Benson 2001: 29).

As stated previously, the ideas of those educational reformists contributed to the development of the concept and exercise of learner autonomy in general education and subsequently in language learning with the focus on learners' responsibility for and active involvement in their own learning, and also the control and power issues addressing learners.

### **2.2.3 PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING**

In the field of applied linguistics, it is a propensity to elaborate on the theoretical bases of the matters at issue in terms of theories of knowledge or philosophies of learning in which they root in. Therefore, the concept of learner autonomy, which has a complicated and intense theoretical side, should be explained in its relation to dominant approaches to knowledge and learning and language learning such as positivism, constructivism, critical theory, social interactionism and humanism and their relations to three versions of autonomy, technical, psychological and political as described in the preceding parts (Benson 1997; Thanasoulas 2000; Williams and Burden 2000).

Positivism, which was the dominant philosophy of learning and knowledge in the twentieth century, is based on the assumption that "knowledge reflects objective reality" (see Thanasoulas 2000: 3). In addition, to consider a piece of knowledge to be scientific and reflecting objective reality, it should be empirical and could be seen and/or measured (see Williams and Burden 2000: 8). In this sense, learning, according to positivist thought, constitutes merely "the transmission of knowledge from one individual to another" (see Benson 1997: 20). This view of learning is congruent with the continuance and improvement of the traditional classroom where teachers are only seen as the suppliers of knowledge, and learners are presumed to be "containers(s) to be filled with the knowledge held by the teachers" (Benson 1997: 20; Thanasoulas 2000: 3).



Though the basic tenets of positivism seem to predispose against the idea of learner autonomy, according to Benson (1997), among the three versions of autonomy, technical version, which is defined as the act of learning a language independently of a teacher or an educational institution, appears to be corresponding to positivist approaches to language learning. The reason why Benson calls this version of autonomy is technical is that it is to do with the technical skills that the learners will need to have in order to manage their learning outside the classroom. Consequently, according to technical version, autonomy is concerned with the independent study of language beyond the classroom but having equipped with the technical skills of managing one's own learning and this version of autonomy has close connections with two broad areas of study called learner strategies and learner training.

In contrast to positivism, constructivist approaches to learning lend support to the view that “rather than internalising or discovering objective knowledge, individuals reorganise and restructure their experience” (Thanasoulas 2000: 39). In other words, the central tenets of constructivist approaches to learning suggest that it is actually the learner who goes about learning by reconstructing the knowledge in a manner based on personal meaning and experience. The main emphasis is on the personal meaning which is derived from individuals' own experiences and understanding of their own worlds. In this sense, knowledge is viewed as a relative and subjective reality rather than an objective one. Constructivist conceptions of language presume that “language does not reflect reality; rather...it constitutes the means by which subjective realities are constructed” (Benson 1997: 21). In other words, each learner creates his or her own version of the target language. Consequently, learners are assumed to be in the center of the learning process and active in this reconstruction process of the target language that they are studying (Brown 1994; Thanasoulas 2000; Williams and Burden 2000). Therefore, they are in a condition to take on most of the responsibility for their own learning.

Constructivist approaches of learning correspond to psychological version of autonomy which is defined as “a capacity – a construct of attitudes and abilities –

which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning” (Benson 1997: 19). Accordingly, abilities and attitudes have an important place in psychological autonomy. Engagement and authentic interaction with the target language community, self-directed learning and self-access are also the essential steps towards the development of autonomy in the framework of psychological autonomy. The concept of learner autonomy appears to be affected most by constructivist approaches of learning as it is evident in most of the definitions of learner autonomy (see Benson 1997, 2001; Cotterall 1995b; Holec 1981; Little 1991; Kenny 1993; Usuki 2001).

Critical theory, an approach within the studies of humanities, social sciences and language, posits a common view with the constructivism in that “knowledge is constructed rather than acquired”; in addition, “knowledge is not neutral reflection of objective reality, but rather consists of competing ideological versions of that reality expressing the interests of different social groups” (Benson 1997: 22). Accordingly, critical approaches to education and learning focus on the issues of power and control; and learning is also considered as “a process of engagement and with social context which entails the possibility of political action and social change” (Benson 1997: 22). Similarly, Thanasoulas (2000: 4) states that “as learners become aware of the social context in which their learning is embedded and the constraints the latter implies, they gradually become independent”. Therefore, according to critical theory, language cannot be thought without the social and political context in which it is used; because of this, language learning entails both learning about the language and its social contexts. As it is apparent, critical theory matches up with the political version of autonomy since a social and political side is emphasized within it.

Social interactionism (constructivism) is another important school of thought that needs to be considered with regard to different views on learning and language learning. Similar to constructivism, social interactionism supports the view that learning is the result of a reconstruction process of knowledge based on individuals’ personal meaning and experiences and also it is a problem solving process. In addition, it claims that learning does not occur in isolation from the context that it is

embedded. Instead, learning takes place in interaction with other components like the learners, the teacher, the task and the social context that make up the learning situation (Williams and Burden 2000). Vygotsky, one of the leading proponents of social interactionism, proposes that “learning begins from the starting point of the child’s existing knowledge and experience and develops through social interaction” (Benson 2001: 39). With regard to language learning, Williams and Burden (2000: 39) maintain the view that “we learn a language to interact meaningfully with other people”. Thus, the communicative approach to language teaching is supported by social interactionism. With respect to the development of autonomy, main principles of social interactionism such as the importance of collaboration and cooperation between the teacher and the learners and among learners are emphasised both in the theory and practice of autonomy (see Benson 2001; Dickinson 1987; Esch 1997; Kohonen 1992 in Benson 2001).

Finally, humanistic approaches to education are based on the premise that “human beings have a natural potential for learning” and actual learning takes place when the subject matter is relevant to the learner’s personality and life and when the learner actively involves in the learning process (Rogers 1969 cited in Williams and Burden 2000: 35). There is also strong emphasis on the fact that learning is not restricted to a particular phase of an individual’s life-span, rather learning and personal development is a life-long process. Additionally, since “education is viewed as involving the whole person, the emotions and feelings”; it is not to do with transmission of knowledge from one person to another as opposed to positivism (Williams and Burden 2000: 33).

Humanistic psychology has also had considerable influence on the development of the concept of autonomy. The pioneers of this school of thought, such as Carl Rogers, emphasised that an effective learning experience should be like learners’ taking responsibility for their own learning and seeking knowledge in a way based on personal needs and meaning rather than searching for knowledge through an external source (see Williams and Burden 2000). In humanistic psychology, human beings are considered to have a natural tendency to self-actualize and “strive

for health, individual identity and integrity, and autonomy” (Rogers 1969, 1983 cited in Benson 2001: 31-32). Consequently, this premise has underpinned the development of the concept of autonomy of which one of the main principles is to do with learners taking on the responsibility for their own learning, thereby becoming self-directed and autonomous in their approach to learning.

Though these divisions among the philosophies of knowledge, approaches to learning and versions of autonomy are useful in exploring the relationships among each other, Benson (1997) warns against the risk of over-simplification of these classifications in that there are no clear cut boundaries among them. For this reason, it is also possible for different approaches and theories to merge at some points. Nevertheless, these divisions between the theories of knowledge and approaches to learning are of significant value in explaining their effects on the development of the concept of autonomy.

#### **2.2.4 LEARNER-CENTREDNESS**

The notion of learner-centredness, which has been influential in the field of language teaching since the 1980s (Benson and Voller 1997; Tudor 2001), has emerged as a result of the desire to satisfy individual learner needs and make learners involve actively in the learning process. Therefore, in a learner-centred classroom, learner is considered to be the most important participant of a learning situation.

According to Tudor (2001: 4), learner-centred approach should not be seen as a separate school of thought; instead it is a trend empowering humanistic language teaching, which entails the five ‘overlapping components’ of feelings, social relations, responsibility, intellect and self-actualization.

Learner-centredness “is characterized by a movement away from language teaching as the transmission of a body of knowledge (the language) towards

language learning as the active production of knowledge” (Benson and Voller 1997: 7). Learners have been regarded as the central part of the learning process by this notion. Consequently, the learning process is more emphasized than the teaching process. As learner-centredness has become a dominant trend in language education, a range of learner-centred approaches have begun to emerge, all of which aim at developing autonomy and independence in language learning. Among these approaches are “the learner-centred curriculum, the negotiated syllabus, learner training and strategy training, the project-based syllabus, experiential and collaborative learning, learner based teaching, and so on” (Benson and Voller 1997: 7). Thus, learner-centred approaches lend support to the development of autonomy through the premise that learners are active participants in their own learning.

Nunan (1999: 12) similarly puts it that learner-centredness is “a matter of educating learners so that they can gradually assume greater responsibility for their own learning” rather than “an all-or-nothing concept”. This description of the term displays an overt relationship between learner-centredness and autonomy.

To conclude, the notion of learner-centredness with its focus on individualization, and learner’s central place and active involvement in learning process has had considerable effects on the evolution of the concept of autonomy in language education. The concepts of learner autonomy, learner-centredness, and also learner training are closely related areas of language teaching. The tenets and/or goals of each concept are aligned with one another; in other words, they serve one common end, which is learners’ active, independent and responsible participation in learning process, and their long-term success in language learning.

## **2.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AUTONOMY AND RESPONSIBILITY**

As one of the main objectives of this study is to investigate learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English, the concept of responsibility needs to be clarified with respect to its definition and relation to learner autonomy.

### **2.3.1 DEFINING RESPONSIBILITY**

While it is possible to encounter a large body of research and theoretical examination on the concept and exercise of learner autonomy in language teaching in the literature, there is not so much work on responsibility as a psychological attribute of autonomous learners. However, there is a relative amount of explanations and discussions on the nature of the term and its relation to autonomy.

A distinction between autonomy and responsibility has been made by Scharle and Szabo (2000:4): *autonomy* refers to “the freedom and ability to manage one’s own affairs, which entails the right to make decisions as well” and *responsibility* to “being in charge of something, but with the implication that one has to deal with the consequences of one’s own actions”. With respect to learning, this definition of *autonomy* could be interpreted as the freedom and ability to manage one’s own learning as well as having right to make choices, and *responsibility* as taking charge of one’s own learning and being able to cope with the consequences of every action one takes. As it is clear in these explanations, both autonomy and responsibility are concerned with learners’ active involvement in the matters that are closely linked to their learning; therefore, they are two interrelated concepts.

In Holec’s (1981 cited in Usuki 2001: 2) definition of autonomy as “learners’ taking responsibility for their own learning”, responsibility means learners’ awareness of their role as a learner in any learning situation; that is, “it is

the learners' internal attitude towards themselves as a learner" (Usuki 2001: 2). As it is apparent in many definitions of autonomy such as the one above, responsibility is a crucial element of autonomy.

According to Scharle and Szabo (2000: 3), responsible learners could be defined as those "who accept the idea that their own efforts are crucial to progress in learning, and behave accordingly". This definition of responsible learners is extended by describing the characteristics of responsible learners (Scharle and Szabo 2000).

*Responsible learners* are those who:

- believe that their own efforts will be significant in their progress;
- are aware of the benefits of working collaboratively with the teacher and peers;
- consciously monitor and evaluate their progress;
- are willing to use every opportunity for their benefit to facilitate their learning;
- have a sense of responsibility of their own efforts in the learning process;
- are aware of the fact that both success and failure are the result of their efforts;
- and are in charge of their own learning.

Apparently, both responsibility and autonomy and their characteristics could be defined in quite similar terms, since the former seems to constitute the core of the latter. As a result, taking on responsibility for one's own learning is a step taken towards becoming an autonomous learner.

### **2.3.2 PLACE OF RESPONSIBILITY IN AUTONOMY**

After the literature on learner autonomy is reviewed, it could be inferred that responsibility plays a central role in autonomy. As a matter of fact, most of the

definitions and discussions on autonomy include or emphasize the significance of responsibility as its foremost element.

In Rousseau's model of education, for example, it is asserted that "learners are responsible for their own actions and learn by enjoying and suffering their consequences" (Benson 2001: 24). Another significant educational reformist, Paulo Freire, similarly maintains that responsibility is "a fundamental human need" and "this responsibility is acquired through reflection on experience and the transformation of social reality" (Benson 2001: 28-29). The views that responsibility is a basic human need and learners should assume responsibility for their own learning form the basis of learner autonomy.

According to Dickinson (1987: 9), responsibility is a prerequisite to autonomous learning. A language course whose goal is to promote autonomy requires learners to assume increasing responsibility for their learning. Thus, they could make decisions, take necessary actions and deal with the consequences of these actions concerning their learning. Similarly, for Little (1995: 175), accepting responsibility for one's own learning is the basis of learner autonomy.

For Zehir Topkaya (2004: 40), responsibility and autonomy are actually "two complementary behaviours" in that "students need to accept themselves as the centre of learning, so that they could become autonomous learners". Therefore, it could be concluded that autonomy is conditional upon responsibility.

Similar to other views discussed above, Scharle and Szabo (2000) also draw attention to the importance of responsibility as a precondition for the development of autonomy and effective learning:

in order for learners to be actively involved in the learning process, they first need to realize and accept that success in learning depends as much on the student as on the teacher. That is, they share responsibility for the outcome. In other words, success in learning very much depends on learners having a responsible attitude."



While the common view acknowledges that responsibility is to do with being independent and in charge of one's own learning, Chanock (2004) comments on responsibility and autonomy from quite a different perspective. According to her, autonomy might also necessitate being dependent on others in different circumstances: "in any new situation, it is responsible to depend upon others who know more than you do, so that you can learn how to operate in the new context" (Chanock 2004: 4). Thus, learners requiring help from others (teachers, peers or more knowledgeable people) when they encounter with problems or questions; or when they just want to get feedback regarding their progress, they can be said to be accepting responsibility for their learning through taking the most available route in order to achieve their goals. For this reason, autonomy should let learners "choose between dependence and independence as he (or she) perceives the need" if it has come to be used as right and freedom in making choices (Candy 1988: 73 cited in Chanock 2004: 4). To sum up, it is also responsible to be dependent on others, if the goals are to be achieved.

In conclusion, though the terms responsibility and autonomy might be defined slightly differently, they are actually two interrelated behaviours that complement each other. As most scholars agree, responsibility is a prerequisite to the development of autonomy. Therefore, learners should first become responsible so that they could become autonomous.

## **2.4 AUTONOMY AND MOTIVATION**

In an attempt to describe learner autonomy with regard to its relationship with different constructs or factors, motivation probably comes out to be the most distinguishing one among others. Being a multifaceted psychological construct, the concept of motivation is difficult to define and describe like autonomy.

Although it is hard to provide an exact definition for motivation, Williams and Burden (2000: 120) offer the following neat definition in the framework of social constructivism. According to them, motivation could be articulated as:

- a state of cognitive and emotional arousal,
- which leads to a conscious decision to act, and
- which gives rise to a period of sustained intellectual and/or physical effort,
- in order to attain a previously set goal (or goals)

It is manifest that occurrence of motivation is affected by a number of different factors which can be internal or external to the learner. What is also apparent in the definition above is that sustaining effort is as significant as initiating motivation (Williams and Burden 2000). Therefore, when attempting to increase learners' motivation in learning a foreign language, different aspects or stages of motivation stated in the definition above should be taken into account.

In the literature on motivation, the concept has been classified in different ways. The most well-known classification of motivation has been made in cognitive terms as whether it is internal or external to the learner. Mynard (1999: 1) quotes Deci's (1980) helpful distinction between two types of motivation:

The distinction between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation is frequently made on the basis whether there is an externally mediated reward or constraint present in the situation. When people receive a reward such as money, or praise, or the avoidance of punishment for doing an activity, they are considered to be extrinsically motivated. If there is no apparent external reward, they are said to be intrinsically motivated. In the latter case, the reward is supposed to be in the activity itself.

In other words, intrinsically motivated people accomplish a task for its own sake whereas extrinsically motivated people do an activity because of an interest external to the activity (Dickinson 1995: 169).

There is a general assumption among many scholars that intrinsically motivated learners will reach more effective learning outcomes and attain mastery in

a foreign language (Deci and Ryan 1992 cited in Mynard 1999: 2; Dickinson 1995; Mynard 1999; Williams and Burden 2000). Intrinsic motivation might be facilitated through self-determination which implies that “the locus of causality for behaviour is internal to the learner” which refers to attributions that learners make in relation to the consequences of their actions, specifically to their failures and successes (Dickinson 1995: 169). This assumption can directly be linked to the theory of autonomy of which one of the basic principles is that learners are expected to cope with consequences of their own choices and actions. The link between autonomy and motivation is expressed in the following way by Dickinson (1995: 173-4):

There is substantial evidence from cognitive motivational studies that learning success and 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.

The preceding quotation points to a meaningful relationship between learner autonomy and motivation. Furthermore, it implies that learners' independent, active and responsible involvement in their learning and their enhanced motivation result in better and more effective learning (Dickinson 1995).

In contrast to common belief that there is a close link between autonomy and motivation, Salehi (2005) found out that the relationship between learner autonomy and motivation is not clear since the findings of his study appeared to be both accepting and rejecting the null hypothesis that there is not a meaningful relationship between these two variables. However, a single study is not sufficient alone to propose that the connection between two constructs is weak. For this reason, further studies need to be carried out in order to come to more generalizable results. Yet, Salehi's (2005: 5) study contributes to the theory on motivation by indicating that there is a high correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Therefore, it is stated that these two distinct types of motivation are not actually mutually exclusive.

To sum up, the link between learner autonomy and motivation is usually considered to be high. However, this assumption is not always supported. This fact is not really surprising since both autonomy and motivation are constructs which are influenced by a number of variables such as learners' age, cultural and educational background, gender, cognitive maturity level and so on that might lead to unpredicted results.

## **2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter started with the definition and description of the concept of learner autonomy. Secondly, some common issues of debate with respect to the concept and practice of learner autonomy were discussed. Next, different influences on the development of learner autonomy in language learning were described. Then, the definition of responsibility and its place in autonomy were presented. Finally, the chapter included a brief discussion about the relationship between autonomy and motivation.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **DEVELOPING LEARNER AUTONOMY**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter begins with the discussion on why learner autonomy should be developed in language education. After approaches to the development of autonomy are explored, some theoretical and practical considerations about learner training and awareness building as one of the key practices to promote learner autonomy are reviewed. In addition, main components of learner training such as determining strengths and weaknesses, learner strategies, learning styles, goal-setting, the roles of learners and teachers, and self-assessment are discussed. Finally, a review of several studies related to the learner autonomy and learner training is provided.

#### **3.1 RATIONALE FOR DEVELOPING LEARNER AUTONOMY**

Most scholars agree on the importance and necessity of developing learner autonomy in language classrooms and consider it as the ultimate goal of education. Developing autonomy seems to be quite rational because there are several sound justifications made by different authors and researchers. The rationale for developing learner autonomy has been based on philosophical or ideological, pedagogical or psychological, practical or economical grounds. Some other good reasons have also been suggested in terms of learning efficiency.

The ideological or philosophical argument is derived from the opinion that individuals are free to make and carry out their own choices in every area of life. It further asserts that a healthy and happy society is formed by free individuals (Cotterall 1995a; Crabbe 1993). According to Benson (2001: 46), personal autonomy

is the essential foundation of human rights so it has to be protected. In educational terms, this idea could be interpreted as learners should have the right to make and implement choices concerning their learning. Therefore, one of the eventual goals of educational institutions should be to provide learners with the opportunities to develop their autonomy. There are also wider educational goals among the aims of developing autonomy. For example, learner autonomy is considered to be the route to developing and maintaining democratic values of a society. Dickinson (1987: 27-28), for instance, states that “a democratic society protects its democratic ideals through an educational process leading to independent individuals able to think for themselves”. Similarly, Zehir Topkaya (2004: 39) argues that democracy education could be created through “encouraging students to assume responsibility for their learning, and helping them become autonomous”. As a result, fostering learner autonomy and responsibility gains much more significance at this point since it is regarded as the basis of democracy education.

The psychological or pedagogical argument draws support from the work in cognitive psychology which centres around the assumption that taking charge of one’s own learning brings about more meaningful and effective learning outcomes (Crabbe 1993). In addition, learners who are involved in the matters related to their own learning experiences will feel more secure in their learning (Cotterall 1995a). Dickinson (1995) also argues that developing autonomy in language learning as well as in general education is desirable because there is convincing evidence that learners who assume responsibility for and actively involve in decision-making concerning their own learning, and who take an independent attitude to learning are more effective learners. In short, developing learner autonomy leads to more effective learning through learners’ taking responsibility for their own learning and assuming an active role in the learning process.

Justifications made for fostering learner autonomy on practical or economical perspective are based on the fact that individuals should be able to fulfil their own learning needs because the society cannot provide all the sources and opportunities to meet each individual’s learning needs (Crabbe 1993). Cotterall

(1995a) also maintains that the time allocated to formal teaching in educational institutions is very limited comparing to one's life-span. Hence, in order to be successful in learning a foreign language and continue life-long learning, learners should be autonomous and self-initiative in their learning. Similarly, Dickinson (1987) puts it that developing autonomy is a necessity for life-long education. In an ever-changing society, it is inevitable to continue one's education after formal-schooling. For this reason, individuals must be autonomous in seeking and reaching information they need. For Dickinson (1987), self-instruction is also desirable for a number of reasons. Firstly, learners might not have opportunities to attend a course to learn a language for various reasons. Therefore, the most appropriate alternative is to choose self-instruction. Secondly, self-instruction could cater for individual differences among learners. Self-instruction is also advantageous in order to improve learning proficiency through developing and using all kinds of strategies facilitating learning (Dickinson 1987).

Developing learner autonomy is also considered to be important in terms of several assumptions. Firstly, it is presumed that there is a potential relationship between autonomy and motivation in that autonomy enhances motivation and as a result this leads to growth in learning effectiveness (Dickinson 1995). Secondly, according to Little (1995: 176), the most important reason for developing autonomy in language learning is the fact that autonomy enhances the autonomous use of target language in communication, which in turn leads to efficient learning. Similarly, Cotterall (1995b) suggests that learner independence and successful language learning have been considered to be interrelated in the literature. Because of the reasons mentioned here, it turns out to be worthy attempting to develop learner autonomy.

To conclude, since justifications made on different grounds seem to be quite reasonable, the development of learner autonomy deserves to be paid attention. Following the rationale for developing learner autonomy discussed above, then it could be stated that the principles of autonomous learning should be incorporated into all learning programmes including content and curriculum design and learners

should be made aware of all the points concerning learning process. The famous saying “you cannot teach a man anything; you can only help him find it in himself” by Galileo offers an overall justification for the development of learner autonomy.

### **3.2 APPROACHES TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF LEARNER AUTONOMY**

There are several different approaches to the development of autonomy. These approaches have been developed as a result of the differences in the methods, modes and aims involved in various programmes designed for developing autonomy. Benson (2001:111) makes a useful classification of these practices related to the promotion of autonomy under six broad headings and Wenden (1995) adds the seventh heading to this classification:

#### ***Resource-based approaches***

Resource-based approaches emphasize independent interaction with learning materials. These approaches are often associated with self-access, self-instruction and distant learning. Self-access centres provide learners with the independent use of language learning materials and resources through their own preferences and choices. Among these materials and resources in a self-access centre are mostly technological tools such as audio, video and computers and also a wide range of printed materials. In a self-access centre, learners could study alone, in groups or with a counsellor and they may choose any materials that they want to use (Benson 2001).

While the use of self-access centres that enable learners with opportunities to manage their own learning seems to be approved as an essential practice in nurturing autonomy (Jones 1995), the view that possession of these opportunities does not necessarily result in greater learner autonomy or improvement of language proficiency is shared by several authors (Benson and Voller 1997; Littlewood 1997; Wallis 2005). In other words, using self-access centres does not ensure the promotion



of learner autonomy and independence unless learners are not provided with a rich variety of activities and materials, skills, strategies and knowledge in order to make the most of these centres and materials.

A small-scale study conducted by Wallis (2005) aimed to investigate what activities students engage in a self-access centre and also the underlying beliefs of their activities. The results of the study indicated that students' choice of activities and materials to learn independently in the self-access centre depends on their perceived weaknesses and the things they believe that are important. It was also reported that what the students do in their classrooms seemed to be more important than or as important as their independent learning. Most of them also considered that teachers' role is relatively important. The researcher suggested that this was a sign of learners' dependence on teacher's correction and feedback. Therefore, the use of self-access centres should be backed up by some type of learner training so that learners get an awareness of the importance studying in a self-access center and skills to make use of the facilities in those centres.

### ***Technology-based approaches***

Technology-based approaches emphasize independent interaction with educational technologies. These approaches are mainly related to independent use of technological devices for the purpose of promoting autonomy and improving language learning. Computer-assisted language learning and the use of internet are two ways that could be used for the purposes stated above. According to Benson (2001: 140), the effectiveness of technology-based approaches depends on "the ways in which technologies are made available to learners and the kinds of interaction that take place around them". More specifically, technological tools can promote autonomy, if they offer authentic and open-ended language input, and if the design of the tools is based on the principles of learner autonomy such as learner choice, independence, learner's active involvement, etc.

One successful example of technology-based approaches has been provided by Murray (1999). In his study, he draws attention to a technological tool that makes

it possible for learners to study the target language at their own pace and level independently. The learners participated in Murray's research project worked on an interactive videodisc program which enabled them to interact with models of target language and culture and engage in daily activities in a simulated environment. The results of the study revealed that learners who worked with this inter-active video program were satisfied with their work and their motivation increased because they reported that they could work at their own pace and they did not get anxious when they made a mistake. In other words, they found themselves more autonomous, more motivated and less anxious.

### ***Learner-based approaches***

Learner-based approaches emphasize the direct production of behavioural and psychological changes in the learner. In this case, the emphasis is on learner development which Sheerin (1997: 59-60) defines as "cognitive and affective development involving increasing awareness of oneself as a learner and an increasing willingness and ability to manage one's own learning". *Learner training* is one of the key practices of these approaches to the development of learner autonomy and it usually includes the training based on the studies on language learning strategies, good language learner, cognitive psychology and so on. Effectiveness of these models depends on the extent to which they are successful at developing learner control both inside and outside the classroom.

A study to exemplify learner-based approaches to promote learner autonomy was carried out by Esch (1997). In his study, a learner training programme which was based on the principles of peer-training and reflection of experience was conducted in order to encourage students to become more aware of language learning process and skills and strategies for more effective learning. The results of the study showed that learners' ability to take charge of their own learning could be supported effectively in an institutional setting through regular meetings where peer-training and reflection of experience take place.

### ***Classroom-based approaches***

Classroom-based approaches emphasize learner control over the planning and evaluation of classroom learning. These approaches favour active and responsible involvement of learners in decision-making processes regarding the day-to-day management of their learning; and assigning learners a degree of freedom and control over the content and planning of the learning programme within a collaborative and supportive classroom environment (Benson 2001: 161). Self-assessment gains importance in fostering autonomy since it is directly linked to self-monitoring of learning and it allows the learner to reflect on learning goals and progress. The effectiveness of these approaches depends on the flexibility of the curriculum and also on the scope of decision-making (Benson 2001). On the other hand, learners' level of cognitive maturity, readiness and willingness for autonomous learning, their motivational level and goals are also important factors that should be taken into account when attempting to implement classroom-based approaches.

A study conducted by Lamb (1997) to illustrate classroom-based approaches to the development of autonomy has been reviewed by Benson (2001: 153- 4):

Lamb (1997) reported on an initiative in compulsory modern language classes in an English comprehensive school to encourage self-management in learning. Although general learning goals were made explicit in units of work, learners selected the order in which they worked on subgoals and selected their own tasks for language practice from a bank of resources. Lamb reported a majority preference for independent study over teacher-directed work, increased motivation and improved examination results.

### ***Curriculum-based approaches***

Curriculum-based approaches extend the idea of learner control to the curriculum as a whole. The main concern of these approaches is the development of process syllabus which enables learners negotiate among each other and with the teacher and fully participate in the decision-making processes in order to create their own curriculum.

In these approaches, learners are given freedom at the beginning of learning and they are also expected to exercise a degree of responsibility. These approaches are also holistic in that they place “equal emphasis on the development of self-management skills, and control over cognitive and content aspects of learning” (Benson 2001: 170). The effectiveness of these approaches depends on the structures which enable the learner to make informed choices in developing their capacity to take control of their learning. However, as it is the case in classroom-based approaches, giving learners the right and choice to plan the whole curriculum is not sufficient alone to promote learner autonomy. Some factors such as learners’ readiness for exercising control, motivation, awareness of their goals and cognitive maturity to make decisions at the curriculum level as a whole need to be considered carefully to find out whether the learners are capable of creating their own curriculum and taking on such a crucial responsibility.

One of the studies which aimed to encourage learners to take responsibility for decision making at the curriculum level was conducted in Denmark by Dam (1995 cited in Benson 2001: 166):

[The model] takes advantage of relatively loose national curriculum guidelines that allow individual teachers to transfer to the learners the responsibility for decisions about the ways in which broad curriculum objectives and public examination requirements are met. The model is also long term and developmental... The model is (thus) based on reflection and negotiated curriculum management... [Their model] is now well established and has been judged successful in terms of student performance over a number of years.

### ***Teacher-based approaches***

Teacher-based approaches emphasize the role of teacher, teacher education and teachers’ professional development in fostering learner autonomy. Language teachers have a big responsibility both in creating the conditions which will enable learners acquire the target language and in building an encouraging environment in which learners are supported to be autonomous and independent in their learning.

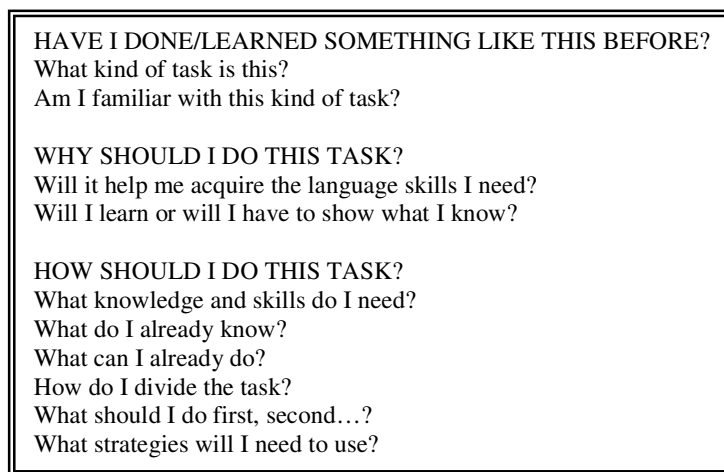
In this respect, the concept of teacher autonomy, which is closely related to the concept of learner autonomy, comes into view. Many scholars agree on the assumption that the development of learner autonomy is quite dependent on teacher autonomy (Crabbe 1993; Little 1995; Thanasoulas 2000; Usuki 2002). At this point, teacher education gains much significance in training future teachers equipped with awareness, values and skills to realize the ideas mentioned here. The effectiveness of these approaches is highly associated with the extent to which the teacher is committed to the idea of autonomy and her professional skills (Benson 2001).

A study conducted by Logan and Moore (2004) aimed at raising teachers' awareness of the importance of learner training and also the ways of implementing it. A group of foreign language teachers were involved in the study and they redefined their roles in learner training through having discussions and reflecting on their experience. One of the most important conclusions revealed at the end of the study was that teachers should reflect on their learning experiences and attitudes to learning. This is an important study that draws attention to the role of teachers in promoting learner autonomy and place of reflection in becoming more aware of oneself's beliefs and attitudes.

### **Knowledge-based approach**

Wenden (1995) proposes another approach to the development of autonomous learning: (task) knowledge-based approach. It specifically refers to learner training which aims at helping learners acquire the task knowledge (i.e. knowledge of a task's purpose, a task's demands and of the kind of the task) which is considered to be a pre-condition for self-regulation encompassing the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring and evaluating (Wenden 1995: 188). However, as she argues, being self-regulated or using the cognitive strategies is not adequate to be an autonomous learner. Learners also must "base the management of learning on their knowledge of the language process, specifically as it relates to the task that is focus of their learning" (Wenden 1995: 190). They should be guided in answering

the questions which reflect a learner's perspective on task demands (see Figure 4) in order to cope with the task requirements.



**Figure 4: A learner's perspective on task demands  
 (Taken from Wenden 1995: 191)**

The significance of knowledge-based approaches stems from the assumption that if learners could learn to appraise a language learning task effectively, then they are likely to do the task in an efficient way and this will, in turn, lead to greater learner autonomy. With respect to the implementation of knowledge-based learner training, Wenden (1995) emphasizes the necessity of integrating task knowledge and self-direction into the whole course. This entails a careful and thorough organization of a single lesson or the whole course.

As it has been discussed so far, approaches to the promotion of learner autonomy are various and each approach seems to be promising in its own right provided that a systematic and cautious planning of a programme adopting a particular approach is based on sound principles of autonomy. Furthermore, in most cases, these approaches are interdependent and the development of learner autonomy is highly dependent on the combination of different approaches (Benson 2001).

### 3.3 LEARNER TRAINING AND AWARENESS BUILDING IN PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY

With the increasing importance of learner-centred approaches in language education, the interest in the process rather than the product of learning has increased. Consequently, the themes of learning how to learn and learner development have been of central concern to the researchers and practitioners in the field. A similar theme, learner training, has come out as a result of these concerns and the attempts for promoting learner autonomy and implementation of learner-centred approaches. With regard to the approaches to the development of learner autonomy, learner training appears to be one of the essential practices of learner-based approaches.

The relevant literature on learner autonomy provides some definitions for the term of learner training. According to Dickinson (1988: 49), for example, learner training refers to:

training [learners] in all those self-instructional processes, strategies, and activities which may be used in autonomous learning or in a conventional classroom; and instruction aimed to heighten the learner's awareness of language and the process of language learning.

Hedge (1993: 92) defines the term with quite similar terms:

[Learner training] is a set of procedures or activities which raise learners' awareness of what is involved in the process of learning a second language, which encourage learners to become more involved in and responsible for their own learning, and which help learners to develop and strengthen their strategies for language learning.

What is emphasized in the definitions above is that learner training actually involves two main components: *raising learners' awareness* and *helping them acquire a set of skills* for more fruitful learning. Hedge (2000: 85) explains this point quite clearly. For her, the core of learner training is "a change in perception about what language learning involves" and "a range of techniques with which learners enhance

their learning”. More specifically, learner training encompasses all the options ranging from training of specific skills and strategies (techniques for improving learning) to more general concerns such as self-regulation of learning and raising learners’ awareness of language learning process (perception of language learning process) with the purpose of encouraging learners to assume more responsibility for their learning and to become autonomous eventually.

As mentioned before, *awareness raising* is one vital element in learner training since it brings learners to a state of consciousness through which they can get a proper understanding of themselves as individuals and learners, and also what foreign language learning involves. In other words, they can perceive where they stand in this process and get to know themselves better. Thereby, they can make decisions and put them into action properly in order to enhance their learning. Learners could be assisted to get an increasing awareness of the language and the process of learning by encouraging them to reflect on their language learning process and experiences. In this way, they may not only be more aware of themselves and the process of learning, but also gain a sense of responsibility toward their learning (Cotterall 2000).

Learner training is desirable as it has important goals to achieve. According to Ellis and Sinclair (1997: 2), for instance, learner training aims to:

- help learners consider the factors that affect their learning and discover the learning strategies that suit them best so that they may become more efficient learners and take on more responsibility for their own learning.
- provide learners with the alternatives from which to make informed choices about what, how, why, when and where to learn.

As it is clear, learner training is related to the attempt to enhance efficient learning and promote learner autonomy. Tan and Chan (1997) highlight the importance of learner training for learners to be successful in self-instruction through acquiring skills to manage their own learning. Similarly, McCarthy (1996) argues that learner training and learner autonomy exist in a kind of relationship



which can be beneficial when it is dynamic. To sum up, helping learners take on more responsibility for their learning through enabling them to acquire the ability and awareness to do so is one broad goal of learner training.

Learner training and learning how to learn are also desirable in terms of life-long education, social adaptation and self-sufficiency. Rogers expresses that point very successfully (1969 quoted in Dickinson 1987: 34):

The only man who is educated is the man who has learned how to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realized that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of seeking knowledge gives a basis for security.

One clear implication in Rogers's words is that learning how to learn is the basis of effective education in that individuals can acquire knowledge and learn to adapt to the societies in which they live provided that they know how to learn. Similarly, for Williams and Burden (2000: 147), "education is a life-long process, one purpose of which is to equip learners to cope in a changing world". Wenden (1998a: 5) also points out that "learner training should enable learners to become effective agents of change within their educational context". Therefore, learners should be provided with the skills and strategies, namely with the ability to manage their own affairs in an ever-changing world. In the case of foreign language education, this could be realized through learner training.

In brief, learner training is a set of procedures and activities which aim to enable learners to learn how to learn and assume greater responsibility for their own learning so that they could become more effective in their learning, and also in their life-long education. In the long term, learner training is supposed to allow individuals to know how to change and adapt to a changing world and also become responsible members of the societies of which they ensure healthy functioning.

### 3.3.1 IMPLEMENTATION OF LEARNER TRAINING

Although most practitioners and researchers are in agreement on the necessity of the implementation of learner training, there is also some disagreement on how this should be realized.

Wenden (1998a), for example, points out that there are two main methods for implementing learner training: indirect methods and direct methods. *Indirect methods* use inductive or discovery learning through which “learners reflect upon past learning experiences or acquired knowledge in order to seek insight into their approach to learning and their beliefs” (Wenden 1998a: 16-7). Indirect methods mainly involve awareness raising activities which aim to help learners “develop, articulate, and reflect on their own understanding of language learning by discussing and sharing language learning experiences and views” (Dickinson 1995 quoted in Wenden 1998a: 18). In order to enable learners to get a heightened awareness, they should be encouraged to reflect on their language learning processes and experiences (Cotterall 2000). At this point, reflection appears to be an essential way to raise one’s awareness.

A learner training programme using indirect methods might include “goal-setting activities, discussion of the language learning process, modelling of strategies, task practice, and reflection on experience” (Cotterall 2000: 116). According to Cotterall (2000), each of these principles contributes to transfer of responsibility from teacher to learner. Similarly, Dickinson (1993) proposes a framework called G.O.A.L by which learners’ awareness could be enhanced. This acronym stands for goal specification, objective setting, action and looking back (Dickinson 1993: 334).

Likewise, Wenden (1998b: 531) suggests that awareness building includes the steps of “elicitation of learners’ metacognitive knowledge and beliefs, articulation of what has come to awareness, confrontation with alternative views, reflection on the appropriateness of revising, and expanding one’s knowledge”.

The common elements in these frameworks of awareness raising schedules are setting goals and objectives, having discussions on metacognitive knowledge and reflecting on past experience. As it is clear, learners are not directly taught the skills and strategies in these methods, rather they are let to discover them on their own.

*Direct methods* for implementing learner training, on the other hand, involve deductive and didactic learning activities. These activities are mainly implemented for cognitive strategy instruction (Wenden 1998a: 19). The instruction is in the form of explicit and informed teaching of cognitive strategies. Direct methods also involve self-regulation of and practising strategy use. Direct and indirect methods are usually used in combination in most of the learner training programmes and textbooks designed for learner training and many practitioners also support the use of different methods in combination (Benson 2001; Logan and Moore 2004; McCarthy 1996; Wenden 1998a).

There is also another distinction between the terms of ‘blind training’ and ‘informed training’ on learner training in the literature (Wenden 1987b). In the case of *blind training*, learners are instructed or induced to perform certain strategies but they are not guided to perceive the use or purpose of the task. On the contrary, *informed training* is to do with helping learners understand the rationale for performing or learning a skill or strategy. In Wenden’s (1987b: 160) terms, blind training puts emphasis on *something* but informed training on *learning to learn*. Discussions on the priority of these two types of training favour informed training because training is likely to be more effective as learners get the chance to know the rationale underlining certain skills and strategies (Benson 2001; Ellis and Sinclair 1997; Logan and Moore 2004; Wenden 1987b: 160). While this proposition might be valid for those learners whose cognitive ability lets them to perceive the rationale for performing or acquiring a certain skill or strategy, it might not be true for those who are not cognitively mature enough to do so because of several reasons such as age, educational background, etc.

There are also some discussions on the manner of implementation of learner training. Wenden (1998a) classifies three approaches in this respect. The first

approach is to do with separating learner training from language training. In this case, learners are trained in separate sessions from language training and they are expected to incorporate what they learn about language learning to the language courses they take. The second approach supports the incorporation of learner training with the learning task. This usually takes the form of strategy instruction during language instruction. The third approach is concerned with incorporating learner training on the level design. That is, learner training should be incorporated into the whole curriculum (Cotterall 2000). According to Wenden (1987b: 161), “the more integrated the learner training, the more effective it should be” because in such cases learners could “perceive the relevance of the task, enhance comprehension and facilitate retention”.

There is another approach to the implementation of learner training. Crabbe (1993) distinguishes between two types of domains of learning: public domain and private domain. The former relates to regular classroom practices and the latter is concerned with “learners’ personal learning activities” (Crabbe 1993:445). It is the private domain which is considered to be the most important one for learners because a significant part of learning is supposed to occur in this domain. This implies that teachers should make connections for independent work so that learners could acquire the skills of autonomous learning. This can be achieved through making learners know the purpose and the use of doing an activity and learn the skills and strategies in order to achieve learning tasks. In short, learners should be trained through being made aware of all the points concerning the learning process and transferring them to their personal learning.

A similar approach to training learners in public domain has been developed by Allwright (1988), who argues for the *minimalist* approach to learner training by suggesting in-class learner training. For him, every bit of whole-class instruction could be turned into an opportunity for learners to develop their autonomy. There are three reasons for the possibility of the development of individualization and autonomy in whole-class instruction. First, classroom language learning is idiosyncratic in nature because things taken away from each lesson differ from learner to learner. In other

words, instruction becomes individualized. Second, classroom lessons are co-productive in nature. In classroom discourse, it is not uncommon to witness learners' contribution to the lesson by asking questions, asking for clarification or in any other ways. In this way, they individualize learning and cause other learners to individualize their learning at the same time. Third, all learners' errors or questions "can be looked upon as moves that have the potential effect of individualizing instruction ... and as autonomous moves to achieve that effect" (Crabbe 1988: 37). Consequently, according to this approach, even a single lesson of language instruction could be turned into some sort of learner training.

Discussions on the approaches to the implementation of learner training are various as discussed above. Yet, there is not ample research evidence indicating the superiority of one approach to another. When deciding which approach to adjust for the implementation of learner training, some factors such as needs, objectives, time constraints of a specific language course, learners, school climate and attitudes of all other third parties should be considered carefully.

### **3.3.2 CONTENT OF LEARNER TRAINING**

There are also different ideas on what a learner training program should cover as well as how it should be implemented. Nevertheless, many authors focus on the importance of inclusion of *metacognition* in learner training. According to Logan and Moore (2003: 1), for example, learner training should include one important area; namely "raising learner awareness of how languages are learned" which is known to be as metacognition. Williams and Burden (2000: 148) describe metacognition as "an awareness of one's own mental processes and an ability to reflect on how one learns, in other words, knowing about one's knowing". Similarly, according to Dickinson (1987: 34), metacognition is concerned with:

developing knowledge about language learning processes, and about oneself as a learner; secondly planning learning; and thirdly of discovering and then using appropriate and preferred strategies to achieve the objectives specified by the plans.

More precisely, metacognition means “being aware – or becoming aware – of one’s own learning processes and strategies” (Dickinson 1988: 50). As these definitions suggest, metacognition appears to be a central component of learning process and a prerequisite to learn how to learn effectively.

Metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies are two terms that are used in close connection with metacognition. Yet, they are actually two distinct parts of metacognition. Wenden (1998b: 515) uses *metacognitive knowledge* to refer to learners’ acquired knowledge and beliefs about learning, which is presumed to “influence their approach to learning and expectations they hold about the outcome of their efforts”. Victori and Lockhart (1995: 223), similarly, define metacognitive knowledge as “general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning and about the nature of language learning and teaching”. To sum up, metacognitive knowledge refers to learners’ knowledge, beliefs and expectations about language learning and also the perceptions of themselves as learners.

*Metacognitive strategies*, on the other hand, are general skills that learners employ in planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning. The process of using these three metacognitive strategies is termed as ‘self-regulation’ in cognitive psychology and ‘self-direction’ in the area of adult education and learner autonomy (Wenden 1998b: 519). The two areas of metacognition, namely metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies, have a reciprocal and interrelated relationship (Williams and Burden 2000: 156).

Metacognitive knowledge, also categorized in itself, entails three types of knowledge: person knowledge, task knowledge and strategic knowledge (Flavell 1979, 1981 cited in Victori and Lockhart 1995; Wenden 1998). *Person knowledge*

concerns “general knowledge learners have acquired about human factors that facilitate or inhibit learning” (Wenden 1998b: 518). More specifically, person knowledge includes cognitive and affective variables such as intelligence, aptitude, age, motivation and attitudes influencing language learning; their perceptions of knowledge about their specific area of language proficiency; also how they perceive themselves and others as learners; finally their achievement beliefs (Wenden 1998b). *Task knowledge* refers to “knowledge about the task of language learning, its difficulty and their role in the whole endeavour” (Victori and Lockhart 1995: 225). The third category, *strategic knowledge*, implies “general knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful and specific knowledge about when and how to use them” (Wenden 1998b: 519). For Victori and Lockhart (1995), learner training programmes aiming to achieve learners’ autonomy have mostly involved cognitive strategy training. However, other aspects of learning such as attitudes towards autonomy and target language, beliefs and expectations about language learning and teaching, goals, learning styles and self-evaluation which are considered to be metacognitive knowledge have been disregarded (Victori and Lockhart 1995). In order for a learner training programme to be successful, it should cover all the aspects related to three types of metacognitive knowledge mentioned above.

As discussed previously, developing metacognitive knowledge is an important part of learner training programmes for many researchers and practitioners. Wenden (1998b: 520), for example, believes that it should definitely be included in learner training programmes because:

It [metacognitive knowledge] enhances learning outcomes, facilitating recall, the comprehension of written texts, the completion of new types of learning tasks; it improves the rate of progress in learning tasks, and the quality and speed of learners’ cognitive engagement... Metacognitive knowledge (also) influences planning, evaluating and monitoring in the self-regulation of learning.

Similarly, Benson (2001) argues that building learners’ awareness of metacognition is essential. According to him, when learners construct their own

systems of knowledge, it is probable that contradictions will happen in trying to add new knowledge to their existing construct systems. In this case, learning could be more difficult and resistance is likely to occur. This situation might be handled through assisting individuals “to become more aware of their existing personal systems and gradually to assume more control of their psychological processes. In education, this means helping learners to become more aware of their own learning processes” (Benson 2001: 37). As it is obvious, raising learners’ awareness of metacognition appears to be quite important in learning training.

Some other scholars also focus on the significance of enhancing metacognition. Benson and Lor (1999), for example, discuss the importance of investigating learners’ beliefs about self, language learning and learning situation in that beliefs influence learners’ approach to studying languages, which in turn, affect their success in language learning. According to them, teachers need to identify what their learners’ beliefs are concerning language learning process. They also need to know if their beliefs are functional or dysfunctional. If their beliefs are dysfunctional, teachers should find a way to modify them. According to Benson and Lor (1999: 471), “in order to modify beliefs, the learners must also modify the underlying conceptions on which they are based and pay attention to the context in which they function”. In this respect, both identifying learner beliefs and trying to modify dysfunctional beliefs should be the basic concerns of learner training programmes.

Cotterall (1999) also strongly supports the necessity of investigating learner beliefs which she believes is the core of the attributes that affect language learning. According to her, there is convincing evidence supporting the assumption that if learners believe that they can learn languages well; they are likely to be successful (Cotterall 1999: 494). Therefore, Cotterall (1999: 510-511) believes that teachers have an important duty in language learning process in investigating their learners’ beliefs and encouraging them to believe that they can do well in learning languages:



Teachers need to allocate class time and attention to raising awareness of monitoring and evaluating strategies as well as to provide learners with opportunities to practise using these metacognitive strategies... Teachers also need to explore learners' beliefs about their ability as language learners and take action where they discover that learners lack confidence.

To conclude, teachers have a crucial task of building learners' awareness of metacognitive knowledge and strategies so that learners could gain functional beliefs about and attitudes towards themselves as learners and also the language learning process.

Learner training seems to be desirable to be implemented in language learning mainly because of its relation to the promotion of learner autonomy, effective learning and also its importance in life-long education. In addition, it bears significance in the attempts to adapt to an ever-changing society and world since the success in all of these areas depends on learning how to learn. Though there are different approaches and methods for implementing learner training, their choice depends on learners' age, cognitive level and communicative needs, time constraints, goals of the language course, etc. There is much agreement on what a learner training programme should include. For many scholars, metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies as well as cognitive strategies should be covered in learner training. Furthermore, raising learners' awareness of language learning process is an essential part of a learner training programme. As mentioned before, learner training is a step taken towards the promotion of learner autonomy and its success lies in careful investigation of the needs, goals of the target group and analysis of learning situation and making systematic planning and organization based on these factors.

As the preceding discussions reveal, learner training is considered to be an essential practice to promote learner autonomy. However, a number of the studies on the matter in question have revealed that becoming an autonomous learner is a complex and a long-term process, and different learners get different things from training; therefore, it is possible for each student to achieve a different degree of autonomy (Toogood 2005). It is also impossible to expect sudden changes in learners' perceptions of autonomous learning and responsibility (Wenden 1998b). As

Bertoldi, Kollar and Ricard (1988: 165) also state “a student does not become an autonomous learner over a night”; actually “learning how to learn is not an end itself, but a beginning”. Therefore, implementing a learner training programme is just the outset of learning how to learn, and in the long term it can provide learners with valuable skills to be an autonomous learner.

### **3.3.3 MAIN STEPS IN LEARNER TRAINING**

Up to here, the importance, implementation and content of learner training have been discussed. In the following sections, main steps of a learner training programme will be described.

#### **3.3.3.1 DETERMINING STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN LEARNING ENGLISH**

Awareness of one’s strengths and weaknesses in learning a foreign language is an essential feature of learner autonomy and a fundamental step in most of the learner training studies (Mynard 2006: 14). Determining strengths and weaknesses and taking action to overcome the difficulties in a particular area of language study is also called ‘self-monitoring’, which is a metacognitive strategy.

Determining strengths and weaknesses is a technique for helping learners reflect on their learning (Hedge 2000: 87). It allows teachers to get helpful ideas about their students’ level and also encourages learners to reflect on their successes and failures; and consequently they are expected to take appropriate actions to improve their learning. However, what needs to be kept in mind is that students should be directed to “make realistic appraisal of their strengths and weaknesses” (Hedge 2000: 89) so that they have an accurate perception of their performance.

There are several ways to bring students to a level of consciousness of their learning performance so that they can realistically evaluate themselves. One of them is to use questionnaires or inventories which allow learners to think about their strong or weak points in a particular skill or an area of language study. Asking students to keep a personal recording of their learning is just another useful technique that could be used to raise learners' awareness of and to identify their strengths and weaknesses in language learning. Self-assessment can also help learners determine their own strengths and weaknesses and encourage them to plan what they need to do in order to improve their learning (Harris 1997: 13).

To conclude, having an awareness of weaknesses and strengths in learning a foreign language is an essential feature of an autonomous and responsible learner. Learner training activities that allow learners to reflect on their learning performance are one way to build an awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses and take possible appropriate actions.

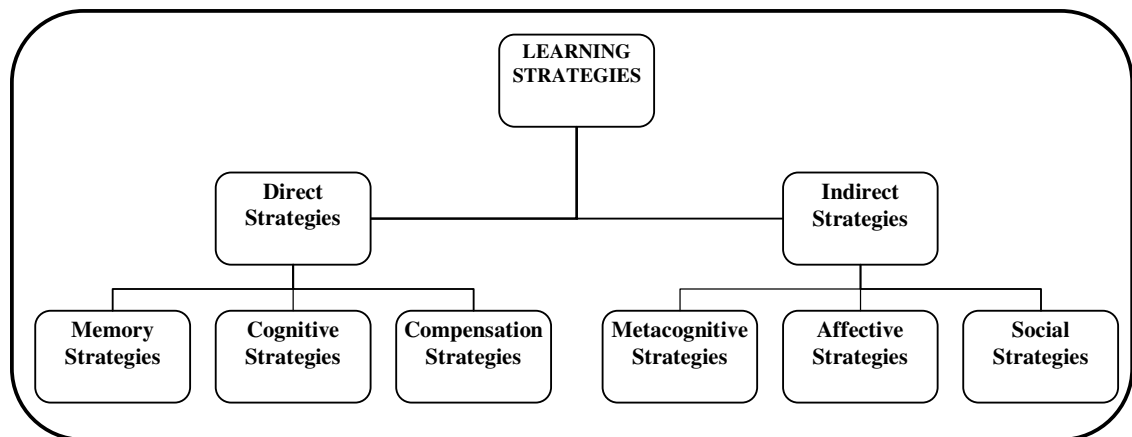
### **3.3.3.2 LEARNER STRATEGIES**

Language learning strategies have occupied a large part of research into effective and autonomous language learning in recent years.

Although strategies play a very important role in foreign language education and research, there seems to be no consensus on the definition of the term. Oxford (1990), for instance, provides two definitions for learning strategies. The first definition is a technical one and it is stated as "learning strategies are operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information" (Oxford 1990: 8). By the second and the broader definition, learning strategies are defined as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford: 1990: 8). With another definition, offered by

Brown (2001: 210), strategies are described as “specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operations for achieving a particular end, or planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information”. Nunan (1999: 171) also defines strategies as “the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language. According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990: 1), learning strategies refer to “special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information”. Even though these definitions appear to be differing from one another, actually they include a common implication that strategies are utilized by the learner to aid and facilitate learning.

The categorization of learner strategies also seems to be varying from one source to another (see Hedge 1993; O’Malley and Chamot 1990; Oxford 1990; Rubin 1987; Wenden 1987). According to Rubin (1987), for instance, strategies could be classified into three as ‘learning strategies’, ‘communication strategies’ and ‘social strategies’. There are also other different classifications of strategies in the literature to date. However, Oxford’s (1990) classification (see Figure 5) and inventory of language learning strategies have been widely cited and utilized in most of the strategy training studies and learner training programmes.



**Figure 5: Oxford’s taxonomy of language learning strategies (Oxford 1990: 16)**

Oxford (1990: 14) suggests that “direct and indirect strategies support each other, or that the six strategy groups interact with and help each other”. These six

strategy groups are also classified into nineteen strategy sets which in turn are subdivided into a total of sixty-two strategies. However, as mentioned before, there is no consensus on the categorization and the exact number of strategies. Nevertheless, the increasing importance of language learning strategies both in theory and practice encourage researchers and practitioners to help students first become aware of and then learn to employ the strategies effectively to aid their learning.

Despite the fact that the definition and categorization of language learning strategies vary, there is agreement on their significance in language education since they have several features that serve more than one aim. Oxford (1990: 9) summarizes key features of language learning strategies in the following way:

***Language learning strategies:***

- contribute to the main goal, communicative competence;
- allow learners to become more self-directed;
- expand the role of teachers;
- are problem-oriented;
- are specific actions taken by the learner;
- involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive;
- support learning both directly and indirectly;
- are not always observable;
- can be taught;
- are flexible;
- are influenced by a variety of factors.

As these features clearly indicate, language learning strategies are of great importance and worth to be employed by language learners.

Actually, these strategies are identified and categorized through careful examinations of ‘good language learner’ studies (Brown 2001; Hedge 2000; O’Malley and Chamot 1990; Richards and Renandya 2002). Therefore, the primary goal of strategies is to promote effective learning; thereby, to contribute to communicative competence. Another significant feature of strategies which needs to be mentioned in terms of the development of learner autonomy is that they aid learners to be more self-directed (Wenden 1987). For this reason, language learning strategies have mostly been an integral part of self-directed learning and learner

training programmes. Furthermore, the fact that they can be taught allows learners to be trained so that they can become aware of and employ the strategies effectively. Finally, research into learning strategies has indicated that effective use of learner strategies lets learners to become more self-reliant in their learning and in that way, learners could be trained for taking more responsibility for their learning (Hedge 1993).

One of the key characteristics of strategies reveals that learning strategies are influenced by a variety of factors such as “motivation, career/academic specialization, sex, cultural background, nature of the task, age and stage of learning” (Oxford 2002: 127). Learning style also affects the choice of strategies because learners often employ strategies that reflect their preferred learning style. Therefore, one’s awareness of learning style is essential in both approaching a learning task and choosing a strategy (Oxford 2002).

Actually, it is not difficult to predict that language learning strategies have existed for long and all the learners use the strategies consciously or unconsciously because there has always been the need to learn and use a foreign language. However, the results of research into strategies suggest that having knowledge of strategies is essential because “the greater awareness you have of what you are doing, if you are conscious of the processes underlying learning that you are involved in, then learning will be more effective” (Nunan 1999: 171-2). For this reason, strategy training should be explicit and be incorporated into every single part of the course so that the students could apply their knowledge of strategies into their learning easily (Nunan 1999). Similarly, as Oxford (1990) states, learners need to be made aware of different strategies; why and when certain strategies are more useful; and how to apply them in new situations. However, the factors affecting the strategy use such as age, stage of learning, cognitive level, cultural background of learners need to be considered when determining how to implement strategy training.

To sum up, having conscious knowledge about learning strategies\_ as long as learners are able to do so\_ are of great importance to language learning since it

prepares the background of effective strategy use for learners for more efficient and autonomous learning.

### 3.3.3.3 LEARNING STYLES

It is now commonly acknowledged that no individual is the same as others; individuals learn differently; and each individual has unique characteristics and abilities. This understanding of learner diversity has drawn educators' interest to learning styles which allow them to realize how individuals learn differently.

Styles could be defined as “consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual” (Brown 1994: 104). When styles are related to learning, they are defined as “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment” (Keefe 1979 quoted in Brown 1994: 105; Ellis 1994: 499).

While there seems to be different categorizations of learning styles in the literature, they tend to be classified on the basis of three different areas. Some styles are related to *cognition* such as left/right-brain orientation, ambiguity tolerance, and field sensitivity and some to *personality* such as intro/extroversion, self-esteem, anxiety and risk-taking (Brown 1994 and 2001). Another important classification is based on learners' preferences for receiving input. There are four basic types of these *perceptual* learning modalities: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile (Ellis 1994). It is also possible to encounter different learning styles in the literature. However, it could be observed that they are usually different terms used to name similar concepts.

An understanding of the fact that individuals have different learning styles is essential in language learning process and autonomous learning. As Jones (1998) points out, making students aware of their own learning styles is in line with the

endeavor to promote self-directed learning and learner autonomy because of the fact learning styles are important determiners in choosing and employing strategies, and explaining why and how individuals learn differently. As a result, learners' awareness of their learning styles can help them get to know themselves better and approach the language learning process more consciously.

#### **3.3.3.4 GOAL SETTING**

Goal-setting has frequently been referred as one of the main issues concerning learner-centred instruction and autonomous learning. It is now widely accepted that goal-setting is a significant part of effective language instruction where learners are expected to take control of their learning.

While the terms *goals* and *objectives* are considered to have equivalent meanings, actually the former is concerned with “long-term aims referring to the outcome of many months or even years” while the latter refers to “short-term aims for hours, days, or weeks” (Oxford 1990: 157). Determining both objectives and goals is important for some reasons. Oxford (1990: 157) points out that “goals and objectives are expressions of students' aims for language learning; students without aims are like boats without rudders; they do not know where they are going, so they might never get there”. Therefore, learners need to specify and set objectives and goals so that they know where they want to get.

Goal-setting is an integral part of learner training since it is likely to encourage learners to perceive that they are in control of their learning. Likewise Oxford (1990), Williams and Burden (2000: 74) suggest that goal-setting plays an important role in language learning because “individuals need to be able to plan how they will achieve them; an absence of goals can lead to aimlessness and a lack of any sense of direction”. However, in a traditional language classroom, it is often the teachers who set goals for the students and decide how they will be achieved instead



of encouraging and guiding learners to set their own goals and discuss the ways how to achieve them. Therefore, in a learner or strategy training programme, it is essential to help students set their own objectives and goals, and to ask them to check whether they have achieved them.

Goal-setting is also related to motivation. Williams and Burden (2000: 131) note down that “in making decisions to engage in an activity, setting appropriate goals becomes an important part of motivated behaviour so that the decision can be carried out and the required effort sustained”. Then, it can be concluded that aims of goal-setting are two-fold: one is to allow learners to have the sense that they are in control of their learning; thereby supporting them to become more self-directed. Secondly, goal-setting is likely to increase learners’ motivation to learn (Harmer 2001; Nunan 1999). Therefore, goal-setting is an essential part of learner training and an ideal language course; and learners should be constantly encouraged and assisted to set their own realistic goals and make plans how to achieve them.

Similar to Williams and Burden (2000), Koda-Dallow and Hobbs (2005) point out that goal-setting in language learning appears to be an essential metacognitive strategy promoting learner autonomy. If the goals are “specific, measurable and challenging, and not unrealistic or outside student’s capacity”, they prove to be more achievable (Koda-Dallow and Hobbs 2005: 2). Setting goals can result in an increased sense of self-control or commitment, and as a result in better performance. This in turn leads to greater self-satisfaction when the goals are achieved. This is also a sign of high motivation (Cotterall 2004; Koda-Dallow and Hobbs 2005: 2).

There is also some research evidence supporting the importance of goal-setting in language learning. Koda-Dallow and Hobbs (2005), for instance, conducted a study on the relationship between personal goal-setting and autonomy in language learning. The interventions included pre- and post- goal-setting questionnaires, the evaluation of goal-setting as a learning strategy by the treatment group and interviews with selected participants. It was aimed to determine whether

goal-setting had an impact on participants' perceptions of responsibility they assume for their own learning of a foreign language (Japanese). The analysis of the descriptive data showed no statistically significant difference between control and treatment groups indicating that goal-setting led to an increase in participants' perceptions of responsibility for their own language learning. However, the qualitative data collected by means of interviews showed that goal-setting resulted in the promotion of autonomy (Koda-Dallow 2005: 1).

As both empirical and theoretical data indicate, it is quite reasonable to include goal-setting activities in learner training programmes and language courses since learners' increased motivation and active self-directed involvement are two ultimate aims of effective language instruction.

### **3.3.3.5 ROLES OF LEARNERS AND TEACHERS**

One of the prevailing beliefs that the review of literature on learner autonomy and learner training reveals is that both learners and teachers need to have clear perceptions of their roles with respect to the learning situation (Toogood 2005; Wenden 1998b). There is also the idea that learners and teachers are the co-producers of learning; thus, they are supposed to take on equal responsibility for this co-production or co-responsibility (Little 1995; Wenden 1998b).

Although both learner and teacher roles are of equal importance to attempts to promote learner autonomy through learner training, there is more discussion on the roles of teachers than of learners in the literature. This is probably because of the responsibility assigned to teachers to help and guide learners to become more autonomous and self-directed learners. However, learners are as responsible as teachers in developing their autonomy. Wenden (1998b), for instance, suggests several radical changes in learners' roles in learner training. In her review of

literature, she summarizes the main roles that the learners are expected to have (1998b: 21):

They [learners] will now be expected to share the burden of learning; to take charge of their learning; to play a crucial role in decision-making about curricula and goals; to learn on their own from experience; to take over management tasks. They can no longer be passive and dependent on the teacher; they must learn to take on an active role and become independently involved in their language learning.

The roles cited above are actually common characteristics of autonomous and responsible learners discussed in the preceding chapter. Therefore, a change in learners' perceptions of their roles is a prerequisite to the promotion of autonomy. In this respect, sessions of raising learners' awareness of their own roles and the teachers' need to be certainly included in learner training programmes.

With the evolution of the concepts of autonomy and independence in language learning, the role of the teacher has gained much more importance but it has also opened to discussion (Oxford 1990). For some, the role of the teacher is under threat because the development of learner autonomy will result in the decrease of teacher's power. However, some argue that development of learner autonomy implies the equal distribution of responsibility among learners and teachers and that does not necessarily mean that the teacher will become less powerful or the cultural and social values attached to teachers will be disparaged. On the contrary, teachers have now been assigned a more important and challenging task of promoting learner autonomy (Benson and Voller 1997; Mynard 2006). Similarly, Benson (2001: 170) points out that "in all approaches to the implementation of autonomy, the attitudes, skills and dedication of the teacher are key factors" and the abdication of teacher's responsibility in doing so is out of question. Sharing parallel views with the ones discussed above, Ho and Crookall (1995) state that teachers have an important task of helping learners redefine their roles as learners and also the teachers' roles, and bringing learners to a state where they accept responsibility for their own learning. This could be done through building an encouraging environment which requires

learners and teachers to share equal responsibility for learning (Ho and Crookall 1995: 236).

In the related literature, there is also the assumption that perception of learner and teacher roles might influence the development of autonomy either positively or negatively. For Brookes and Grundy (1988: 1), approaches to learner autonomy depend on the perception of teacher and learner roles perceived by different societies. That is, if teachers are perceived as transmitters of knowledge and learners as passive recipients of this knowledge, then it is probable to encounter a resistance towards the development of autonomy in that context. On the contrary, if teachers are perceived as facilitators of learning and learners as active constructors of knowledge in a particular society, then it is more likely that autonomy could be supported in such an environment. Therefore, learners and teachers should replace their misconceptions of their roles with the new ones required for autonomous and learner-centred learning.

According to Voller (1997), the roles of teachers in autonomous learning are concerned with two main types of support: technical and psycho-social. The main features of these two types of support are demonstrated in the following figure:

<u>The key features of technical support</u>	<u>The key features of psycho-social support</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• helping learners to plan and carry out their independent language learning</li> <li>• helping learners to evaluate themselves</li> <li>• helping learners to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to implement the above</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• the personal qualities of the facilitator (being caring, supportive, patient, tolerant, empathic, open, non-judgemental)</li> <li>• a capacity for motivating learners</li> <li>• an ability to raise learners' awareness</li> </ul>

**Figure 6: Key features of technical and psycho-social support expected to be given by the teachers in autonomous learning  
(Taken from Voller 1997 quoted in Benson 2001: 172)**

The items stated in Figure 6 imply that teachers are expected to take on an important role in both creating and also maintaining the environment necessary for

the development of autonomy by means of the ability to implement the course and dedication to the idea of autonomy.

It is obvious, then, that implementing autonomous learning requires a transfer of teacher roles from traditional to modern. While it is possible to find different classifications of teacher roles in the literature, Cotterall (1995b: 197) offers two basic classifications: 'teacher as an authority figure' and 'teacher as facilitator'. She argues that learner beliefs about teacher role as 'an authority figure' can hinder learners' transition from teacher-controlled instruction to self-directed learning. Another role assigned to teachers is 'teacher as counsellor' who provides learners with learner training; raises learners' self-awareness as language learners and their awareness of goals and choices and of language itself (Cotterall 1995b; Tudor 1993). Apparently, an effective learner training programme should include awareness building sessions about the roles of teachers as well as learners so that a supportive environment could be formed for the promotion of autonomy.

One thing which is clear, then, is the necessity for a change in the perceptions of teacher roles. According to Yang (1998), the reason behind this change is the shift from teacher-centred learning to learner-centred approaches in language learning. As the learner-centred approaches focus on the importance of helping learners how to learn so that they can become self-directed learners, teachers have now been assigned a number of roles such as helper, facilitator, monitor, consultant, advisor, coordinator, prompter, tutor, resource, idea person, guide and co-communicator (see Harmer 2001; Oxford 1990: 10; Yang 1998: 128). These roles usually tend to change when the activity or the stage of activity changes (Harmer 2001). Nevertheless, the underlying mission assigned to the teachers by learner-centred approaches is to raise learners' awareness of language and language learning process, styles and strategies, and of their weaknesses and strengths; thereby encouraging the development of learner autonomy.

A study on learner training in relation to teachers' perceptions of their roles and learner training was conducted by Logan and Moore (2004). In their study, a

group of foreign language teachers were involved in a programme designed for raising teachers' awareness of the importance of learner training and also the ways of implementing it. One of the important results of the study was that teachers redefined their roles in learner training. Three different roles were outlined at the end of the study by the participant teachers (Logan and Moore 2004: 4):

1. *Providers*: teaching learners the skills they need to teach themselves,
2. *Facilitators*: enabling learners to talk about and experiment with learning strategies but not actually teaching them anything new,
3. *Explainers*: explaining the processes involved in learning in and out of class and the reasons behind strategies teachers taught in class.

Teachers perceived these roles occurring in a combination rather than identifying them separately. One of the most important discussions revealed at the end of the study is that teachers should reflect on their learning experiences and attitudes to learning because this is assumed to be a prerequisite for learner training to be successful.

As discussed earlier, teachers play an important role in promoting learner autonomy. Little (1995) makes it clear that it is the teachers' duty to make students aware of the co-productive nature of learning process and encourage them to accept equal responsibility for this co-production. While teacher's role is that important in developing autonomy among learners, it is equally vital for them to have a sense or awareness of developing their own autonomy as teachers. As learners construct new knowledge through their own personal experiences or the meaning of the world, teachers similarly bring their own personal meanings and experience of the world into the learning environment in which they are involved; i.e. what they do in the classroom reflect their own personality, beliefs about learning and the degree of responsibility they accept for teaching. Therefore, the development of autonomy among language learners is conditional upon teacher autonomy. At this point, Little (1995) draws on some implications for teacher education. If development of learner autonomy depends so much on teacher autonomy, then trainee teachers should be

equipped with the knowledge of the importance of learner autonomy and with the skills to foster autonomy in learners (Little 1995: 178

To sum up, autonomous learning entails redefinition of learner and teacher roles with the implication of both of the parties' equal responsibility in learning.

### **3.3.3.6 SELF-ASSESSMENT**

The ever-increasing necessity for employing learner- and process-centred approaches and self-directed learning in language education has led to the need to use alternative forms of assessment which will be in accordance with these approaches. Self-assessment which is a central part of autonomous learning schemes aiming to promote learners' autonomy in language learning (Harris 1997; Williams and Burden 2000) is one of the key forms of alternative assessment methods.

Self-assessment, which is a particular metacognitive strategy (Oxford 1990; Hedge 2000), can be utilized for two main purposes in language education. Firstly, it is used as a testing device for evaluation purposes. Secondly, it is used for learning purposes (Todd 2002). The second use of self-assessment is closely related to the development of learner autonomy. Actually, it is a step taken toward learner autonomy (Penafiora 2002) which should be developed in every learner ultimately because it enables learners to think about and reflect on their learning. This in turn leads them to take appropriate actions to improve their learning (Gremmo and Riley 1995). Gardner (2000: 49) also expresses the use or aims of self-assessment similarly: "self-assessment is an important tool in the toolkit of autonomous learners; it can be used both as a testing device leading to accreditation and as a device for personal self-monitoring". In accordance with the preceding discussions, Harris (1997: 12) also points out that "self-assessment produces learners who are more active and focused, and better placed to assess their own progress in terms of communication". To summarize, self-assessment is a valuable device which

encourages learners both to evaluate their own progress and to be more active and self-directed in their learning.

There are also several other purposes for using self-assessment as an informal assessment tool. The following list covers these purposes (see Brown 2001; Harmer 2001; Harris and McCann's 1994; Todd 2002). Self-assessment:

- increases students' awareness of language, effective ways of learning and their own performance and needs;
- allows students to directly involve in the process of learning;
- increases motivation and goal orientation in learning because of self-involvement in the learning process;
- provides teachers with useful information that can be used in revising and improving their instructional plans and practices,
- enables us to assess some affective aspects of language teaching such as effort, motivation, beliefs and attitudes,
- provides teachers with information about students' expectations and needs, their problems and worries, how they feel about their progress, what they think about their course in general,
- encourages autonomy.

As these purposes indicate, it seems to be worthwhile to integrate self-assessment into the learning process.

Literature on learner autonomy in language education reveals a general agreement on the importance of self-assessment as an integral part of autonomous learning (Gardner 2000; Tudor 1996). Gardner (2000: 51), for instance, suggests a list demonstrating the benefits of self-assessment including individualization, reflection, motivation, evaluation, monitoring, support, accreditation and justification. These benefits address not only learners but also teachers and institutions. According to Gardner (2000), self-assessment also leads to a change in the roles of teachers and learners. Learners are assumed to undertake more responsibility for their learning through assessing and evaluating themselves. Teachers, on the other hand, have greater responsibility than their traditional roles in assessment because they are expected to raise learners' awareness of the importance of self-assessment and also to assist learners to assess themselves through designing and producing materials to carry out self-assessments.



Some of the proven tools of self-assessment are diaries, checklists, portfolios, learner contracts, journals, questionnaires and classroom survey activities (Oxford 1990; Harris and McCann 1994). They allow learners not only to evaluate their progress but also to get an awareness of their feelings (Oxford 1990: 162).

To conclude, self-assessment is an indispensable and valuable part of learner training programmes because it allows learners to evaluate and assess their own learning; thereby encourage them to be more self-directed.

### **3.3.4 STUDIES ON LEARNER AUTONOMY**

In this part, the review of several research studies which have investigated various areas of learner autonomy will be presented in relation to the different approaches to the development of autonomy described in section 3.2. However, since most of the studies accessed by the researcher investigated the learners and teachers in terms of their perceptions of or attitudes towards different aspects of autonomous learning, the studies will be reviewed under the titles of learner-based and teacher-based approaches.

#### **3.3.4.1 STUDIES ADOPTING LEARNER-BASED APPROACHES**

This part involves the studies pursuing a learner-based approach to the development of learner autonomy. As discussed previously, learner training, which is a common practice of learner-based approaches, is usually concerned with enabling learners to acquire techniques for improving their learning and heightening their awareness of language learning process. The overall aim of learner training studies is to contribute to learners' both cognitive and affective development. The studies

reviewed in the following parts are mostly related to this aim and also the improvement of metacognition.

One of those studies was conducted by Cotterall (1999) in which she investigated the language learner beliefs of a group of students based on the results of one of her former studies which revealed that “learners’ beliefs reflect their readiness for assuming greater responsibility” (1999: 496). This study is quite useful to the teachers of foreign languages in that they can determine group norms and beliefs among their students and get to know them closely so that they will take necessary actions to facilitate more effective learning. Suggestions offered by Cotterall (1999: 510-511) as a result of this study could be itemized as follows:

- Teachers need to allocate class time and attention to raising awareness of monitoring and evaluating strategies, as well as to provide learners with opportunities to practise using these metacognitive strategies;
- Teachers also need to explore learners’ beliefs about their ability as language learners and take action where they discover that learners lack confidence;
- Teachers who have access to their learners’ beliefs may choose to reinforce or to challenge certain beliefs.

Another study adopting learner-based approaches was carried out by Finch (1998). This study was conducted with a group of tertiary-level Korean students with the purpose of introducing the idea of self-direction. From the beginning of the study, students were asked to fill in a very structured ‘Learner Journal’ which included a self-assessment sheet by which the students were expected to evaluate their progress and a ‘learning contract’ focusing on their expectations of teacher and learner roles and also the process of language learning. Following the ‘Weekly Evaluation’ and introducing the idea of an ongoing study plan, the students were administered various questionnaires all pointing to different aspects of learner autonomy. Among these questionnaires were ‘a measure of autonomy and self-direction, beliefs about language learning, student needs in language learning, strategy for language learning (SILL), student perceptions about language learning, learning strategies for oral communication, language learning attitudes survey and learning style inventory’. The

results of the study revealed that despite most of the students did not complete the tasks in the journal; they appeared to be ready and open to self-direction and reflective learning. In addition, this study also drew attention to the need that learners should be first trained about how to learn, self-assessment and reflection so that more effective results could be obtained from such studies.

Esch (1997) conducted another learner training study in which intermediate level learners with similar language learning needs and problems were selected through a letter and a questionnaire. Then, learning conversations were held in each workshop where learners gather together and reflect on their experience in the target language (French). From the outset of the study, every aspect of the workshop was self-selected by the participants such as the syllabus, duration of the workshop and so on. The role of the advisor was only to observe and record what was happening in the session. The results of the study revealed that “supporting learners’ ability to take charge of their own learning can be done successfully in an institutional setting by means of regular meetings” where peer-training and reflection of experience take place (Esch 1997: 164). According to him, organizing learner training courses on sound principles is likely to help students become more aware of language learning process and skills and strategies to learn languages. One basic principle in organizing learner training courses is the inclusion of peer training by which learners share their language learning experiences and progress in scheduled sessions.

Victori and Lockhart (1995) carried out a self-directed language learning programme in a division of a college in Spain. The first step of the programme was to collect preliminary information about students’ linguistic proficiency, linguistic needs and a profile of feeling, motivation, cognitive style, beliefs and assumptions about language learning. After analyzing the data, the students were directed to counselling sessions where they found the opportunity to reflect on language learning process. Contact classes and self-access centres were also available for each learner. Counselling sessions continued meanwhile. In the end it was observed that learners’ awareness and knowledge of language learning related concerns were built up. Furthermore, they displayed a noticeable progress in the use of self-access resources.

To specify the outcomes of the programme, learners appeared to indicate more tolerance of ambiguity in language learning, increased motivation and improved self-esteem as a language learner. In general, it was observed that learners' metacognition enhanced to a considerable extent.

Nunan's (2002: 134) small-scaled action research project sought to "experiment with ways of making the students more active participants in their language learning". Sixty first-year undergraduate students at the University of Hong Kong took part in the study. Over a 12-week period, students were asked to fill out a guided journal in which they reflected upon their language learning experiences. The programme included self-access learning, cooperative learning, learning beyond the classroom, and learner strategy training. While students were carrying out these tasks, they were also expected to complete and hand in their guided journals. Students' responses to the guided sentence starters indicated a significant difference pointing to their growing awareness and sensitivity to language learning related concerns through the end of the study. Nunan (2002: 143) observes that "strategy training, plus systematic provision of opportunities for learners to reflect on the learning process, did lead to greater sensitivity to the learning process over time". It is also suggested that language learning classrooms should place emphasis on both teaching language content and building awareness about the learning process as well.

The study conducted by Koda-Dallow and Hobbs (2005) aimed to find out whether personal goal-setting had a positive effect on learner autonomy; more specifically on participants' perceptions of responsibility they assume for their own learning of a foreign language. In their study, both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were utilized. The analyses of the descriptive data revealed no statistically significant difference between control and treatment groups indicating that goal-setting led to an increase in participants' perceptions of responsibility for their own language learning. However, the qualitative data indicated that some participants seemed to link an increased sense of responsibility with goal-setting and most of them evaluated goal-setting positively.

Matsumo's (1996) study aimed to investigate learners' perceptions of retrospective self-reporting. A total of 108 nineteen-year-old female second-year students majoring in English at a college in Japan participated in the study in three different classes. Diary-keeping, questionnaires, and interviews were three types of retrospective self-reporting tasks assigned to three groups of participants. After the completion of the assigned task, the participants were given questionnaires to report on the task. The analyses of the questionnaires indicated that all of the students who completed diary-keeping tasks responded positively to the statement in the first part. The second group also evaluated the questionnaires and classroom discussion positively. However, the third group did not react as positively as the other groups to their task (interview on learner beliefs with group discussions). This suggested that written personal reports came out to be more concentrated and stimulating than oral public reports. Yet, two tasks (questionnaires and interviews) seemed to enable learners to become aware of alternative ways of learning, beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions along their own. Therefore, the researcher suggests that a combination of different types of retrospection will result in optimal results; thereby leading to the promotion of autonomy through reflective learning (Matsumo 1996: 148).

Lee (1998: 282) states that "learning to be self-directed involves taking responsibility for the objectives of learning, self-monitoring, self-assessing, and taking an active role in learning". With these principles in mind, he designed a self-directed program for tertiary students in Hong Kong. Individual sessions and interviews with students and peer meetings were held at certain intervals of the programme. At the end of the programme, the analysis of the qualitative data revealed that more enthusiastic students seemed to have more positive gains or to benefit more from the programme than less enthusiastic students did. This difference could be explained in terms of learners' beliefs, expectations, assumptions and motivation level they attain. The research suggests that "self-directed learning does not guarantee success but may pave the way for students' development of autonomy" (Lee 1998: 287). He reminds, on the other hand, that implementation of effective self-directed learning depends on systematic and explicit learner training activities

incorporated into language instruction, teacher counselling, genuine choice, and collaborative learning.

Another study as an example of learner-based approaches aiming to “help language learners understand learning strategies and expand their own self-direction in learning” was implemented by Yang (1998: 133). In this learner training study, participants were asked to prepare their language learning proposals (which included clarifying their objectives and planning their language study), keep a weekly diary to reflect on their experiences of the project, and evaluate their learning at the end of the semester. The results of the study revealed significant gains in terms of participants’ increased awareness of language learning process and improved use of strategies, and enhanced overall autonomy in language learning. The study also indicated that “teachers have a very important role in helping learners understand language strategies and expand their own self-direction in learning” by facilitating “the structure, process, beliefs and strategies” required for learner autonomy to be realized (Yang 1998: 133).

#### **3.3.4.1 STUDIES ADOPTING TEACHER-BASED APPROACHES**

Studies adopting teacher-based approaches derive support from the opinion that teachers should be aware of and open to the idea of learner autonomy so that they could facilitate the implementation of such a programme in their classrooms. In this respect, foreign language teacher education bears much more importance in training autonomous future language teachers. The following paragraphs describe several studies about teacher-based approaches.

Sert (2006) conducted a study so as to investigate English language learning autonomy among EFL students in a Turkish university. 57 first year students in the ELT program participated as the subject group of this study. Both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered. The results of the study indicated that while all of

the students seemed to have a self-perception of some improvement, the majority did not appear to have the perceptions or features of autonomous language learners, such as being aware of needs, setting goals, and determining strengths and weaknesses as learners. Similarly, the analysis of quantitative data revealed that students' ability for reflection and self-assessment needed to be improved. Sert (2006) concludes that since teachers take a significant part in attempts to promote learner autonomy, it would be appropriate to take all the precautions to cause to a change in their beliefs and attitudes towards autonomous learning so that they can improve their own self-governing capacity and contribute to their future students' autonomy.

A recent study in a Turkish university conducted by Yıldırım (2005) aimed to find out ELT learners' perceptions and behaviour with regard to learner autonomy both as learners of English and as future English teachers. It was also intended to seek whether ELT education brings about any changes in learners' perceptions of autonomy. For this reason, one group of first year and one group of fourth year ELT students were selected as the subjects of the study in Anadolu University with the purpose of making a comparison between their perceptions. Questionnaires and interviews were used as the data collecting instruments of the study. The results showed that participants as learners of English appeared to be ready for autonomous learning in some areas while they needed to be guided and backed up in other aspects of learning. As future teachers of English, they had positive attitudes towards learner autonomy. Another result of the study was that there were no notable differences between first and fourth year students' perceptions of learner autonomy.

Özdere's (2005) study intended to discover English instructors' attitudes towards learner autonomy. 72 English instructors working in six different state-supported provincial universities in Turkey participated in this study. The main data collecting instrument of the study was a questionnaire including Likert-scale statements. In addition, 10 participants were interviewed. The results indicated that participants' attitudes towards learner autonomy varied from neutral to mildly positive depending on the facilities and opportunities provided by their universities for their instructional environments. In addition, it was emphasized that the

promotion of learner autonomy in those universities could be backed up through in-service training and systematic adaptations in the curricula (Özdere 2005).

### **3.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter presented the rationale for developing learner autonomy and approaches to the promotion of autonomy. Next, both theoretical and practical concerns regarding learner training and awareness building were discussed. Then, key steps of learner training such as determining strengths and weaknesses, learner strategies, learning styles, goal-setting, the roles of learners and teachers, and self-assessment were reviewed. Finally, some of the research studies on learner autonomy were presented.



## **4.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter mainly describes the methodology pursued in this study in detail. Firstly, the design of the study is described with respect to a brief overview of approaches to educational research and data collecting instruments adopted in this study. Then, the research questions of the study are introduced. Next, the pilot study and the construction of the instruments are described in depth. Finally, a detailed description of the methodology used in the main study is presented.

### **4.1 DESIGN OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The term ‘research’ mainly implies any type of scientific and systematic inquiry designed to uncover or shed light on unknown facts. A more thorough definition suggests that “research is a process of formulating questions, problems or hypotheses; collecting data or evidence relevant to these questions/problems/hypotheses; and analyzing or interpreting these data” (Nunan 1992: 2-3). Based on this definition, Nunan (1992: 3) puts it that there are three main components of research: 1) a question, problem or hypothesis, 2) data, 3) analysis and interpretation of data. Therefore, any type of inquiry should involve these three key elements in order to be qualified as research.

When implementing a research study, particular approaches or paradigms are pursued in the design, data collection, and analysis and interpretation stages. While it is possible to find various classifications of approaches to educational research in the literature, the most common classification is based on the qualitative/quantitative distinction (Bell 1993; Nunan 1992). According to Bell (1993: 5-6), *qualitative* researchers are “more concerned to understand individuals’ perceptions of the

world”, whereas researchers adopting the *quantitative* paradigm “collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts to another”. Each approach has both its advantages and disadvantages. However, what is important is to decide on the most convenient approach or method which is line with the context, nature and objectives of the research study. In most cases, a combination of quantitative and qualitative research methodologies is used so as to obtain more balanced, reliable and valid data (Bell 1993: 6).

This study followed both quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The quantitative part of the study comprised the *experimental model* which is utilized in order to find out causal relationships between variables that are carefully manipulated by the researcher in a controlled environment in the framework of research objectives with the purpose of collecting relevant data to explain those relationships (Karasar 2005).

Experimental studies are usually classified into three: pre-experimental, quasi-experimental and true-experimental (Nunan 1992). In this study, the *pre-experimental model*, which involves one group pre-test post-test research design, was adopted (Karasar 2005). Although it is assumed that the pre-experimental model has weak internal validity, it is possible to improve it and to reach more reliable and sound conclusions through carefully developing pre- and post-treatment tests and collecting qualitative data (Nunan 1992).

The pre-experimental research design of this study could be specified as follows: Only one group participated in the study and that group was administered a pre-test prior to the treatment, which was the independent variable (learner training and awareness building activities), of the study. Following the treatment, a post-test was administered again to find out if the independent variable caused any significant changes in participants’ perceptions of responsibility and in their motivational level in learning English.

One of the primary data collecting instruments of this study is *questionnaire*, which is a popular technique for a number of reasons. Firstly, “collecting certain

types of information quickly and relatively cheaply” is possible through questionnaires (Bell 1993: 76). Secondly, the data collected via questionnaires tend to be “more amenable to quantification” than the data gathered through other qualitative data collection techniques (Nunan 1992: 143). In spite of the advantages of questionnaires, developing good, valid and reliable questionnaires is a highly challenging endeavour (Bell 1993; Nunan 1992). Therefore, one has to be aware of a number of points when constructing questionnaires. For example, utmost attention should be paid to the wording of the questionnaire items. The items should not be leading, complex, confusing, ambiguous, offensive, presuming, hypothetical or culturally biased. Appearance and layout of the questionnaire also should be promising in terms of face validity (Bell 1993). One of the ways of ensuring the conditions above is to check the objectives of the study and try to produce items achieving those adjectives. Secondly, the questionnaire should be checked by people who are experts in the related area. Furthermore, the questionnaire should be piloted prior to the main study. It should be administered to a similar sample to the selected sample so that the researcher can foresee the possible problems while implementing the main study (Bell 1993).

With the purpose of collecting qualitative data from the study, *interviews* were conducted with selected participants. The main benefits of the interview are its flexibility and adaptability (Bell 1993; Karasar 2005; Nunan 1992). In addition, interviews could provide deeper information and feedback about the interviewee’s opinions and feelings because “the way in which a response is made (the tone of voice, facial expression, hesitation, etc.) can provide information that written response would conceal” (Bell 1993: 91). However, there are also a few drawbacks of interviews. For example, interviews are quite expensive and time-consuming (Karasar 2005). Additionally, subjectivity and bias are two common dangers inherent in this technique (Bell 1993; Nunan 1992). The researchers have to be very careful again in selecting topics, writing questions and piloting the interview (Bell 1993). Determining the time, duration and place of the interview is also very important. Furthermore, the researcher should inform the interviewees about the purpose and

the objectives of the study; and also the anonymity and confidentiality of the records should be promised (Bell 1993; Nunan 1992).

Interviews are usually classified into three according to continuum of formality: structured, semi-structured and unstructured (Bell 1993; Karasar 2005; Nunan 1992). Semi-structured interviews are preferred by many researchers because of their flexibility that the interviewer enjoys. Besides, the interviewees benefit from a certain degree of power and control in expressing their feelings and opinions in responding to the questions (Nunan 1992: 150). Another advantage of semi-structured interviews is that since the framework is set up beforehand, the analysis of the data is simplified (Bell 1993). Because of the advantages discussed above, semi-structured interview was preferred in this study.

The present study, which is composed of one pilot study and one main study, primarily aims to investigate the effects of learner training and awareness building activities on learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English. In addition, it intends to find out whether these activities would lead to any significant changes in learners' motivational level in learning English. Finally, any possible meaningful differences between female and male subjects' perceptions of responsibility and motivational level in learning English before and after learner training and awareness building activities are aimed to be explored.

Prior to the main study, a pilot study was undertaken in order to identify any possible problems regarding the questionnaire items on motivation and responsibility, which would be administered as pre-test and post-test instruments in the main study. After necessary alterations were done, the final versions of the questionnaires were formed. The qualitative data, on the other hand, were collected through semi-structured interviews. Subsequent to the last learner training session, a group of students were invited to be interviewed to in order to find out their perceptions and opinions concerning the learner training and awareness building sessions they participated in.

The data obtained through both quantitative and qualitative procedures were analyzed in order to find answers to the following research questions of the study:

**RQ 1:** What are the perceptions of responsibility of students in English preparatory classes?

**RQ 2:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility with regard to gender?

**RQ 3:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learning training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 4:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility after learner training and awareness building sessions in relation to gender?

**RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference in learners' motivational level after learner training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 6:** How do learners evaluate learner training and awareness building sessions?

## **4.2 PILOT STUDY**

The main purpose of the implementation of the pilot study was to identify possible problems related to the items on the questionnaires developed by the researcher to be used as pre-test and post-test instruments in the main study. Another important reason was to carry out several statistical procedures in order to find out the values about the reliability of the instruments. Furthermore, it was aimed to test the validity of the instruments through examining any possible problems about the wording, layout and comprehension of the items during the administration of the questionnaires.

In the following section, a brief account of this study will be given together with a description of the subjects and setting, instruments, procedures and analysis.

#### 4.2.1 SUBJECTS AND SETTING

The subjects of the pilot study were the students enrolled in Voluntary and Compulsory English Preparatory Programme at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University in the fall term of 2005-2006 academic year. The questionnaires were administered to 60 students from two intact groups. The respondents' age ranged from 18 to 21. All of the participants were native speakers of Turkish with elementary level of English. 34 of the participants were male and 26 were female (see Table 1).

**Table 1: Distribution of the participants in the questionnaire piloting study**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Female</b>	26	43,3
<b>Male</b>	34	56,7
<b>Total</b>	60	100

Two Voluntary and Compulsory English Preparatory English classes at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University were chosen for the implementation of the pilot study. The main reason for the conduction of the pilot study with these groups was their convenience to the researcher in that as the researcher worked as an English instructor in the same institution at the time of the research, arranging the appropriate time and environment for the administration of the questionnaires was easier. Furthermore, the main study was going to be carried out with a group of students enrolled in the same programme with similar range of age, distribution of gender, level of English and the same English teacher. Therefore, the sample chosen for the pilot study was thought to represent the main sample group.

## **4.2.2 INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES**

In order to investigate the research questions stated previously, the researcher developed two instruments: *questionnaire on responsibility* and *questionnaire on motivation*. Each instrument was developed by adapting related items from different sources. Also, some of the items were constructed in the light of theoretical aspects of learner autonomy and motivation as reviewed in the second chapter. After deciding which statements to include in each questionnaire, the statements were translated from English into Turkish. Back-translation of the statements was undertaken by two English instructors. The close ended items were then typed in a five-point Likert scale format. Next, three experts at the department of ELT at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University were requested to check and evaluate the questionnaires in terms of face and content validity, wording and the clarity of the items. Finally, necessary alterations were done on the questionnaires in the light of the experts' suggestions and comments. Consequently, the final versions of the questionnaires were developed to be used in the pilot study. In the following sections, a detailed description of each questionnaire will be presented.

### **4.2.2.1 QUESTIONNAIRE ON RESPONSIBILITY**

The questionnaire on responsibility was constructed on a five-point Likert scale involving the options of (1) very appropriate to me, (2) appropriate to me, (3) I have no idea, (4) not appropriate to me, (5) not appropriate to me at all (see Appendices 1 and 2).

The questionnaire on responsibility was developed through the revision and adaptation of relevant items from several sources. Some of the items were adapted from the questionnaire which Mynard (1999) used in her study and some items from Scharle and Szabo's (2000: 19-20) questionnaire on responsible attitudes. The remaining items were generated in the light of literature review on characteristics of

autonomous and responsible learners. The first version of the questionnaire consisted of 38 items in total.

In order to determine the possible dimensions of responsibility, factor analysis was conducted on SPSS (ver. 10.0). When the factor loadings were examined, ten dimensions of responsibility were found out. However, it was found difficult to come up with a categorization in terms of naming these factors since it was noticed that all of these dimensions were related to metacognitive knowledge (awareness) and metacognitive strategies which are the two subordinate parts of *metacognition*. As a result, it was decided to use this instrument with only one dimension.

#### 4.2.2.2 QUESTIONNAIRE ON MOTIVATION

The questionnaire on motivation, which involved 34 close-ended items originally, is built on a five-point Likert scale having the options of (1) I strongly agree, (2) I agree, (3) I am not sure, (4) I disagree, (5) I strongly disagree. Most of the items were taken and adapted from Mynard's (1999) questionnaire and Demir's (2004) Attitude-Motivation Scale, though some of the items from two different sources were found quite overlapping. The remaining items were generated in the light of different types or dimensions of motivation by the researcher. However, the data collected from the pilot study led to the necessity to eliminate some of the items in order to get a more reliable and valid instrument (see 4.2.4). In the end, it was decided to use the questionnaire on motivation with 19 items which are divided into two dimensions as extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation (see Figure 7).

<i>Extrinsic</i> <b>Dimensions of motivation</b>	<b>Item Numbers</b>
	8. I will need to know English in the future.
	9. It will be important for me to know English in the future.



	10. The main reason I learn English because I have to. 11. I need to learn English for my future career. 14. I want only to survive the English lesson. 16. It is not worth learning English because it takes a long time. 17. If I had the choice I'd give up learning English.
<i>Intrinsic motivation</i>	1. I like English. 2. I would like to visit an English-speaking country. 3. I would like to be able to speak English 4. I enjoy English lessons 5. I find English interesting. 6. I want to do well in English class. 7. I would like to meet English-speaking people. 12. When I learn new things in English, I feel satisfied. 13. I'd like to learn English even if I didn't have to. 15. I find learning English enjoyable. 18. Learning English is important for my personal development. 19. It makes me happy to think that I learn English.

**Figure 7: Dimensions of motivation and corresponding questionnaire items**

#### 4.2.2.3 PROCEDURES

Before the respondents were distributed the copies of questionnaires, they were first informed about the purpose of the study. They were also reminded that they did not need to write their names on the sheets as the data collected from their questionnaires would be kept confidential and used only for this research study and that their honesty was appreciated. However, they were asked to specify their gender as it was related to one of the research questions. Then, they were asked whether they wanted to take part in the study. All of them agreed to complete the questionnaires. Next, they were instructed how to respond to the items and reminded not to leave any items unanswered. The researcher also asked the participants to feel free to ask for clarification with regard to the comprehension of the items. The questionnaires were administered to two different classes and in two separate sessions on the same day in the first week of November 2005. The completion of the questionnaires took approximately 30 minutes for each group of the participants.

### 4.2.3 ANALYSIS

After the administration of both questionnaires in the pilot study, it was checked whether all of the items were responded by the participants and it was found that none of the items were left unanswered. Next, the data collected from the questionnaires were entered onto the computer and analyzed with SPSS. Then, three statistical procedures were employed: Cronbach-alpha test for reliability values, Tukey's test of additivity and Hotelling's T-square test for the appropriateness of instruments.

First, statistical analysis of the data from the *questionnaire on responsibility* was carried out. Cronbach-alpha value for this questionnaire was found to be  $\alpha = ,86$  (see Table 2). According to literature, this value indicates that the instrument is highly reliable (Şencan 2005).

**Table 2: Alpha values for the questionnaire on responsibility**

Cronbach-alpha	Standardized item alpha
,86	,86

The second procedure was Tukey's test of additivity. It was found that the items of the questionnaire on responsibility could be totalled-up ( $F = -,1727 / p < .000$ ). The third statistical procedure, Hotelling's T-squared test, indicated that the method for the study was appropriate to collect data ( $F = 35,6102 / p < .000$ ).

The same procedures were implemented for the *questionnaire on motivation*. The results of the statistical analysis indicated that some of the items needed to be eliminated in order to increase the reliability values of the instrument. As a result, 15 of the items were removed from the questionnaire on motivation (see Figure 8).

Then, the remaining 19 items were analyzed statistically in two parts: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Cronbach-alpha value of 12 items belonging to *intrinsic motivation* was found highly reliable ( $\alpha = ,86$ ) for data collection (see Table 3). The second statistical procedure, Tukey's test of additivity, showed that the items related to intrinsic motivation of this instrument were addable ( $F = 3,84 / p < .000$ ). These items were also found appropriate according to Hotelling's T-squared test ( $F = 11,6263 / p < .000$ ).

**Table 3: Alpha values for the questionnaire on motivation**

Motivation	Cronbach-alpha	Standardized item alpha
Intrinsic	,86	,87
Extrinsic	,59	,73

The same procedures were also conducted for 7 items of *extrinsic motivation* on the questionnaire on motivation. Firstly, Cronbach-alpha value of these items was found to be, 59, which is accepted to be moderate according to the literature (Şencan 2005) (see Table 3). Next, another statistical procedure, Tukey's test of additivity, indicated that the items related to extrinsic motivation were addable ( $F = 2,2612 / p < .000$ ). Finally, the results of Hotelling's T-squared test showed that these items were appropriate for the method of the study ( $F = 19,4368 / p < .000$ ).

#### 4.2.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MAIN STUDY

Piloting of the questionnaire on responsibility indicated that some of the items were rather overlapping. For this reason, six of the items were eliminated from the questionnaire (see Figure 8). As a result, the final version of the questionnaire on responsibility used in the main study consists of 32 items.

Item No	Eliminated items
1	The reason why I am good at English is because I have good teachers.
8	Learning English is important to me.
9	I would like my teacher to explain every point to us.

23	I know what I should do to be good at English.
27	My success in English is mainly up to my teacher.
34	When I have problems in English I usually know what I can do about it.

**Figure 8: Eliminated items from the questionnaire on responsibility in the pilot study**

The statistical analysis of the data gathered from the questionnaire on motivation revealed that the reliability values of this instrument should have been increased. Therefore, 15 of the items were eliminated in order to ensure that the instrument is reliable to collect data (see Figure 9).

Item No	Eliminated items
2	Learning English is important to me.
4	I do not need to learn English.
5	I want to be good at English.
7	My parents encourage me to learn English.
10	I find English boring.
13	I am pleased with my English studies.
16	My parents think that English will be very useful for me.
21	I want to study in an English-speaking country.
22	My parents think that learning English is important for me.
24	English is acceptable in every part of the world.
27	If I make a big effort, I will be good at English.
29	If I learn to speak, other people will respect me more.
30	I feel relaxed in English lessons.
31	However hard I try, I will never do well in English.
32	My parents provide me with every opportunity to learn English well.

**Figure 9: Eliminated items from the questionnaire on motivation in the pilot study**

### 4.3 MAIN STUDY

Subsequent to the pilot study and after the necessary adjustments were done on the questionnaires, main study started to be carried out.

#### 4.3.1 SUBJECTS AND SETTING

The main study was conducted in Compulsory and Voluntary English Preparatory Programme at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The students enrolled in this programme were going to study in different departments such as ‘Tourism and Hotel Management’, ‘Fine Arts’, ‘Drama’, ‘Physics’, ‘Public Relations and Advertising’, ‘Foreign Trade and European Union’ and ‘Accounting’ after two-semester-long general English course. The main reason for the conduction of the study in this setting was its convenience to the researcher since she worked in the same institution at the time of the research. Thus, arranging the appropriate time and conditions for the implementation of the study was easier.

The study began on 24<sup>th</sup> November and ended on 28<sup>th</sup> December covering a period of five weeks during the fall semester of 2005-2006 academic year.

The study was implemented with 30 subjects from one intact group. 17 of the subjects were female and 13 were male (see Table 4). Their age ranged from 18 to 22. All of the subjects were native speakers of Turkish with elementary level of English. 28 of the subjects were compulsory and 2 were voluntary programme students.

**Table 4: Distribution of the participants in the main study**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Female</b>	17	56,7
<b>Male</b>	13	43,3
<b>Total</b>	30	100

As for the interview part of the study, 9 participants out of 30 were chosen to be interviewed on the basis their voluntariness. 6 of the interviewees were female and 3 were male (see Table 5).

**Table 5: Distribution of the participants of the interview in the main study**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Female</b>	6	67
<b>Male</b>	3	33
<b>Total</b>	9	100

### **4.3.2 INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES**

The main study was carried out in two main phases. The first phase involved a pre-experimental study; and in the second phase interviews were conducted. In this way, it was aimed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data so that more valid and reliable conclusions could be drawn from this research study. These phases will be described in detail in the following sections.

#### **4.3.2.1 PRE-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY**

Prior to the study, the participants were informed about the purpose, content, length, time, language and procedures of the study. Then, they were asked whether they were willing to participate in the study and all of them agreed to take part in the study.

On the first day of the study, the questionnaires on responsibility and motivation were administered to the participants as the pre-test instruments of the pre-experimental study. Before letting the participants to complete the questionnaires, they were informed again about the purpose of the study. Then, they were instructed how to complete the questionnaires, and warned to specify their gender and not to leave any items to unanswered. In addition, they were made sure that the data obtained from the questionnaires would only be used for the objectives

of this study and kept confidential. Next, the questionnaires were handed out to the participants and they were completed in about thirty minutes.

After the application of the questionnaires, learner training and awareness building sessions started to be carried out as the treatment part of the pre-experimental study. Each session focusing on a different topic about foreign language learning lasted approximately 50 minutes. Six sessions were held in participants' own classrooms after regular class hours over five weeks. Participants' mother tongue, Turkish, was used during the sessions since the general aim of the study was to find out their perceptions rather than the progress in their language acquisition. In addition, learners did not seem to be confident enough to speak in English about complicated matters as their level was just elementary at the time of the research.

A typical learner training session started with greeting and establishing rapport and continued with lead-in and main activities related to the topic. Then, participants reflected on their experience from the session by answering these two questions: 1) What have I learned from this learner training session? 2) How and where can I use what I have learned? (see Appendix 11). The aim of this step was to increase participants' awareness about the topic and also make them personalize the content. At the end of the session, the researcher (the teacher) and the participants reviewed what they covered in the session.

In addition to learner training and awareness building sessions, the participants were asked to keep a weekly report named 'My English Diary' during the study. The aim of this diary-keeping activity was to support the sessions through learners' regular reflection on their weekly language learning experience so that their awareness of language learning process would be heightened. In addition, diary-keeping is assumed to promote learner autonomy by encouraging learners to take responsibility for their learning (Nunan 1992). These reports, which the participants were required to fill in outside the class during a school week, involved questions concerning issues such as what they learned, the usefulness of classroom activities,

their performance in the class, their studies with homework assignments, the problems they encountered and their suggestions to solve these problems, and also what they learned (see Appendix 12). The forms containing the questions mentioned above completed by the participants were collected at the beginning of each week by the researcher.

The pre-experimental design of the study is summarized and the topic of each session is presented in the following figure:

Pre-treatment	<b>TREATMENT</b> (Learner training and awareness building activities)						Post-treatment
	1 <sup>st</sup> session	2 <sup>nd</sup> session	3 <sup>rd</sup> session	4 <sup>th</sup> session	5 <sup>th</sup> session	6 <sup>th</sup> session	
I. Questionnaire on responsibility II. Questionnaire on motivation	Features of good language learners	I. What kind of a learner am I?  II. Determining strengths and weaknesses	Needs analysis and goal setting	I. Learning styles  II. Language learning strategies	I. Teacher and learner roles  II. Self-assessment	Group and whole class activities on foreign language learning experience and process	I. Questionnaire on responsibility II. Questionnaire on motivation
	Diary	Diary	Diary	Diary	Diary	Diary	

**Figure 10: The pre-experimental design of the study**

The topic of the *first session* was the features of good language learners. The aim was to build an awareness of the characteristics of good language learners so that they could gain insights into what and how to do to be successful in learning English. Other details of this session are described in Appendix 5.

The *second session* focused on two different topics: ‘what kind of a learner am I?’ and determining strengths and weaknesses in learning English. The aim of the first topic was to help learners develop an awareness of self as an individual and a learner. With this purpose, scenarios of three different types of students were prepared by the researcher (see Appendix 6.1). The participants first analyzed those students’ personality types in pairs and then reflected on their own personality both



as an individual and as a learner. By the second topic, it was intended to broaden students' perceptions upon their strengths and weaknesses in learning English (see Appendix 6 for the detailed plan of the session).

In the *third session*, different activities on needs analysis and goal-setting were held by which it was aimed to allow learners to think about and become aware of their needs in learning English, and also to encourage them to determine their objectives and goals and think about the ways to achieve them. A questionnaire on needs analysis and goal-setting were completed by the learners to achieve these aims (see Appendix 7.1). The detailed plan of session 3 is presented in Appendix 7.

The topic of the *fourth session* was learning styles and language learning strategies by which it was planned to develop an awareness of learning styles and language learning strategies on the part of the learners and allow them to find out their own styles and strategies. With these aims in mind, one scale on learning styles (see Appendix 8.1) and one on language learning strategies (see Appendix 8.2) were used to be completed by the participants (see Appendix 8 for other details).

In the *fifth session*, teacher and learner roles, and self-assessment were discussed for the purpose of encouraging learners to build an awareness of these important aspects of learner autonomy and responsibility. Other details of this session are described in Appendix 9.

In the *sixth session*, general concerns about foreign language learning experience and process were examined. A questionnaire to survey past foreign language learning experience was adapted from Scharle and Szabo (2000: 17) and used in the session (see Appendix 10.1). This session is described more thoroughly in Appendix 10.

At the end of the last session, the questionnaires involving open-ended questions about different aspects of the learner training and awareness building sessions and foreign language learning process were given to the participants to be

completed (see Appendix 13). It was aimed to allow participants to evaluate the sessions in which they took part.

On the last day of the pre-experimental study, following the last session, the questionnaires on responsibility and motivation were administered as post-treatment instruments after necessary explanations were made by the researcher. The participants filled in the questionnaires in approximately 30 minutes as they did in the first application. Then, the participants were informed that the study had ended and the researcher thanked them for having taken part in the study.

#### **4.3.2.2 INTERVIEW**

The second phase of the main study involved the semi-structured interviews by which it was intended to collect qualitative data. The interviews were conducted on the last day of the study with nine participants. A suitable quiet office room was arranged and a tape recorder was provided for recording the interviews beforehand. It was made sure that the recorder was functioning properly. The participants, who volunteered to be interviewed, were invited to the office in turn and each one was informed about the purpose, duration and conditions of the interview. In addition, their permission was asked for tape-recording their interviews and they were told that the recordings would be kept confidential and anonymous. All of them agreed to be tape-recorded during the interviews. The interviews took 5-10 minutes and were tape-recorded with the interviewees' permission. The interviewer asked questions to the participants from general to specific (see Appendix 14). The questions were paraphrased for clarification when the interviewees seemed to miss the point. The interviewees were required to explain, exemplify or expand on their answers when necessary. The interviewer thanked the respondents for their participation in the interview. Later on, the interviews were transcribed by the researcher.

#### **4.3.3 PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS**

The data obtained from the pre-experimental study were entered onto the computer and analyzed with several statistical procedures like descriptive statistics, Paired Samples T-test and Independent Samples T-test on SPSS (ver. 10.0).

The data collected from the interviews were evaluated both qualitatively and quantitatively, the findings were presented, and necessary interpretations were provided.

#### **4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter described the methodology of the study. It began with the description of the study design including a brief overview of approaches to educational research and data collecting instruments followed in this study. Then, the purpose of the study and research questions were introduced. Next, the description of pilot study and the details of the instruments were provided. Finally, the methodology used in the main study was described thoroughly.

## **FINDINGS**

### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents and interprets the findings obtained through both quantitative and qualitative research techniques. The statistical and qualitative findings will be reported in relation to the each research question of the study.

### **5.1 FINDINGS OF THE MAIN STUDY**

The main aim of the study is to explore language learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English with regard to learner training and awareness building activities. Additionally, it is intended to find out differences in learners' motivational level and in perceptions of responsibility in terms of gender.

The methodology of the main study was described in depth in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the data collected by means of pre-experimental study will be analyzed and interpreted via statistical procedures on SPSS (ver. 10.0) for the first five research questions of the study, and for the last research question, transcriptions of interviews will be studied and the findings will be reported and interpreted accordingly.

The following research questions addressed throughout the study will be examined and the findings and interpretations will be presented in turn:

**RQ 1:** What are the perceptions of responsibility of learners in English preparatory classes?

**RQ 2:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility with regard to gender?

**RQ 3:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learning training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 4:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility after learner training and awareness building sessions in relation to gender?

**RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference in learners' motivational level after learner training and awareness building sessions?

**RQ 6:** How do learners evaluate learner training and awareness building sessions?

#### **5.1.1 RQ 1: What are the perceptions of responsibility of students in English preparatory classes?**

In order to find out students' perceptions of responsibility at the beginning of the study, descriptive statistics was conducted and mean values were computed on SPSS. The total mean value of the pre-test on responsibility was found to be 3,75 (see Table 6).

**Table 6: Total mean value of responsibility pre-test**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>Responsibility pre-test</b>	30	3,75	,34

The highest and lowest mean values for participants' perceptions of responsibility at the beginning of the study are presented in Table 7 (see Appendix 15 for the descriptive statistics of all items). When Table 7 is studied, the item with the highest mean (mean: 4,73) reveals that most of the participants believe that their own efforts are essential in their learning. The other highest scoring items, item 17 (mean: 4,70), item 30 (mean: 4,60), item 31 (mean: 4,53), indicate that learners feel the need to learn how to learn English better. In other words, their metacognition needs to be enhanced. The third item (mean: 4,70), of which mean value is equal to the second highest scoring item, implies that the students are aware of what they are

not good at English, so they pay more attention to that phase of the lesson. However, it is surprising to notice that the item with the lowest mean value (mean: 2,63) shows that the participants are not aware of their strengths and weaknesses in English, which seems to be contradicting with the result of second item in the table.

**Table 7: Descriptive statistics of learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English before treatment**

Items of questionnaire on responsibility	N	Mean	SD
15. My own efforts as well as the teacher's will contribute to my learning.	30	4,73	,58
17. I would like to know how I can learn English better.	30	4,70	,47
3. I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at.	30	4,70	,89
30. I want to know what kind of a learner I am.	30	4,60	,56
31. I look for advice from my teacher about how I can improve my English.	30	4,53	,68
1. I would like my teacher to share the information about my progress in English with me.	30	4,50	,68
27. How I do in English is a matter of luck.	30	4,47	,68
16. I set my own goals in learning English.	30	3,37	1,00
29. I evaluate my progress in English.	30	3,27	,87
2. I know what I should practise more in English.	30	3,00	1,08
28. I plan my English studies carefully.	30	2,93	1,05
10. I am aware of the ways that I learn English best.	30	2,80	1,06
7. I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses in English.	30	2,63	,89

Though the highest scoring item (mean: 4,73) signifies that learners find their efforts significant in their learning, the mean value of item 27 (mean: 4,47) suggests that learners attribute success to luck. In others words, they attribute success in learning English to an uncontrollable, external and stable factor (see Saticilar 2006) which is not expected to be a characteristic of responsible learners who think that they are in control of their learning.

Item 2, with the mean value of 3,00, reveals that participants are not very aware of their weaknesses in English; for this reason, they do not really know what they need to practise more. Another low scoring item, item 7 (mean: 2,80), also signals the fact that learners' metacognitive awareness is not well-built. In addition, three of the low scoring items, item 16 (mean: 3,37), item 29 (mean 3,27) and item

28 (mean: 2,93) point to the fact that learners do not tend to employ metacognitive strategies such goal-setting, planning and evaluating to regulate their learning.

To sum up, learners' overall metacognition seems to be low. What is more, they do not tend to utilize metacognitive strategies a lot. In addition, an inconsistency exists in terms of locus of control because they attribute success and failure to both internal/controllable factors (effort), and external/uncontrollable factors (luck).

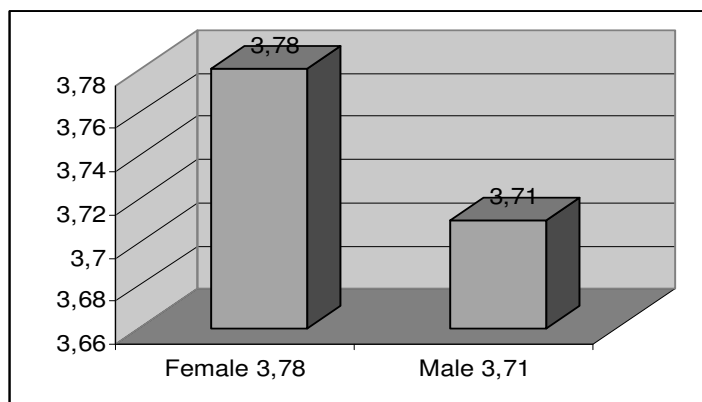
### **5.1.2 RQ 2: Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility with regard to their gender?**

After learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English were identified by means of descriptive statistics, an Independent Samples T-test was employed to compare the differences in learners' perceptions of responsibility concerning gender (see Table 8).

**Table 8: Independent Samples T-test results for gender differences in the perceptions of responsibility before treatment**

<b>Gender</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>f</b>	<b>Sig.</b>
<b>Female</b>	17	3,78	,35	,592	28	,262	,559
<b>Male</b>	13	3,71	,34				

As Table 8 indicates, there is not a significant difference between male and female students' perceptions of responsibility in learning English ( $p > .05$ ). That is, there are no meaningful differences in learners' perceptions of responsibility in terms of gender. The graphic representation of these findings is illustrated in Figure 11:



**Figure 11: Gender differences in the perceptions of responsibility before treatment**

### **5.1.3 RQ 3: Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learning training and awareness building sessions?**

As mentioned before, the main objective of this study is to discover whether learner training and awareness building activities would cause any considerable changes in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English. In order to realize whether a notable change occurred in learners' perceptions of responsibility after the sessions, a Paired Samples T-test was carried out (see Table 9).

**Table 9: Paired-Samples T-test results for the differences in learners' perceptions of responsibility after treatment**

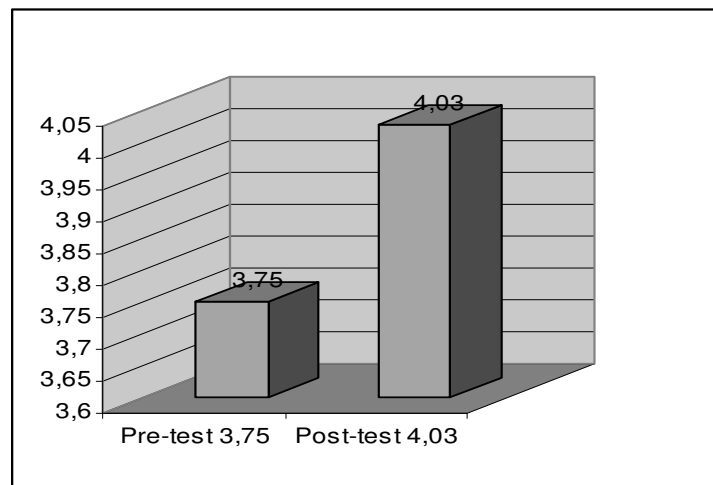
	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
<b>Pre-test</b>	30	3,75	,34	-3,196	29	<b>,003</b>
<b>Post-test</b>	30	4,03	,32			

The values in Table 9 reveal that the difference between the mean values of pre-test (mean: 3,75) and post-test (mean: 4,03) is statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ).



This result signifies that learner training and awareness building activities caused a considerable increase in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English.

In the following figure, the differences between pre-test and post-test with regard to learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English are demonstrated.



**Figure 12: Contrasting the differences in the perceptions of responsibility between pre-test and post-test**

In addition to the preceding statistical procedures conducted to find out the possible significant changes in learners' perceptions of responsibility, descriptive statistics was carried out and mean values were computed in order to identify areas of perceptions of responsibility where key differences were observed (see Table 10).

In Table 10, the item with the highest mean value (4,77) is related to metacognitive awareness. More specifically, participants appear to attach greatest importance to discovering their learning styles. Secondly, learners are also fairly interested in learning how to learn English better (item 17, mean: 4,73), which is an example of metacognitive awareness, too. Next, learners' concern to pay more attention to the lesson when they are practising something they are not so good at is noticeable again. Similar to the descriptive statistics of pre-test on responsibility, learners believe that their efforts are necessary in their learning (mean: 4,63). A

noticeable increase in the mean value of item 10 (mean in pre-test: 2,80; mean in post-test: 4,13) also signifies that learners' self-awareness about how to learn more effectively enhanced considerably.

**Table 10: Descriptive statistics of learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after treatment**

Items of questionnaire on responsibility	N	Mean	SD
30. I want to know what kind of a learner I am.	30	4,77	,50
17. I would like to know how I can learn English better.	30	4,73	,45
3. I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at.	30	4,63	,56
15. My own efforts as well as the teacher's will contribute to my learning.	30	4,63	,72
7. I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses in English.	30	4,57	,77
31. I look for advice from my teacher about how I can improve my English.	30	4,50	,63
1. I would like my teacher to share the information about my progress in English with me.	30	4,47	,63
16. I set my own goals in learning English.	30	4,43	,68
24. I try to find my own ways of learning English.	30	4,43	,73
32. My success in English is mainly up to my own efforts.	30	4,40	,72
29. I evaluate my progress in English.	30	4,20	,92
27. How I do in English is a matter of luck.	30	4,10	,68
21. I am in control of my success in learning English.	30	4,10	,66
10. I am aware of the ways that I learn English best.	30	4,13	,80
2. I know what I should practise more in English.	30	3,87	,73
8. Doing homework is one of the good ways to improve my English.	30	3,60	,93
5. Sometimes I try to learn things that the teacher did not give as a task.	30	3,50	,94
28. I plan my English studies carefully.	30	3,33	,88
11. I often revise what I have learned.	30	3,30	,95
6. I spend as little time as possible for my homework.	30	2,87	1,22

Another increase that deserves attention is in item 32 with the mean value of 4,40, which had the mean of 3,70 in the pre-test. This increase is a sign of the improvement in learners' perceptions of the importance of effort in their own learning. Next, it is observed that learners still attribute their success to luck to a great extent (item 27, mean: 4,10). However, decrease in the mean value of this item, which was 4,47 in the pre-test, implies that the participants do not attribute success to an uncontrollable, external and stable factor as much as they used to do. A related item to those discussed here is item 21. The easily noticeable difference between the

mean values of pre-test (3,73) and post-test (4,10) of this item points to the increase in participants' perceptions of responsibility in control level.

The increase in the mean values of some of the items in the post-test is a sign of the improvement in learners' perceptions of responsibility, especially in terms of metacognition. For example, it could be inferred that learners gained an increasing awareness of their strengths and weaknesses in their English study comparing the mean values of item 2 (pre-test, mean: 3,00; post-test, mean: 3,87). This change is also quite evident when the mean values of item 7 are compared (pre-test mean: 2,63; post-test mean: 4,57). This significant change points to the fact that learners' metacognitive awareness enhanced remarkably. Similarly, the increase in the mean value of item 24 (pre-test, mean: 3,40; post-test, mean: 4,43) shows that learners' attempts to find their own ways of learning English boosted.

The mean values of items reflecting the use of metacognitive strategies increased noticeably as well. For example, participants' tendency for goal setting turned out to be raised (item 16 pre-test mean: 3,37; post-test mean: 4,43). Secondly, learners appeared to be inclined to do more self-evaluation of their progress (item 29 pre-test mean: 3,27; post-test mean: 4,20). Finally, an increase was depicted in learners' tendency to plan their studies in the post-test (item 28, pre-test mean: 2,93; post-test: 3,33); yet it is not at a satisfying level.

A final note to be mentioned about the results in Table 10 is that learners still appear not to give sufficient importance to homework assignments which are a common opportunity for learners to study independently. Only a slight decrease in the mean value of item 6 (pre-test mean: 3,00; post-test mean 2,87) could be interpreted as learners tend to spend a little more time on their homework (see Appendix 16 for the descriptive statistics of all items).

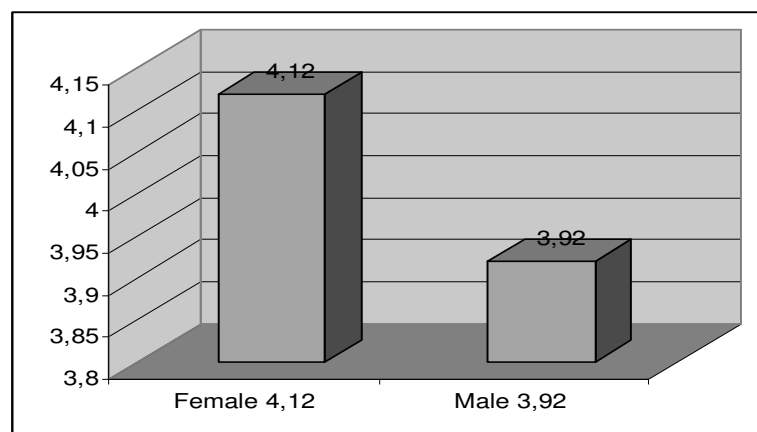
**5.1.4 RQ 4: Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility after learner training and awareness building sessions in relation to their gender?**

With the purpose of answering the fourth research question, which is to do with the gender differences in perceptions of responsibility, an Independent Samples T-test was undertaken (see Table 11).

**Table 11: Independent Samples T-test results for gender differences in perceptions of responsibility after treatment**

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	df	f	Sig.
Female	17	4,12	,25	1,80	28	,098	,083
Male	13	3,92	,38				

Similar to the results of the second research question, which is about gender differences in perceptions of responsibility prior to the treatment, no significant difference was found again between male and female learners' perceptions of responsibility after treatment ( $p > .05$ ). The differences in perceptions of responsibility in relation to gender are displayed in Figure 13.



**Figure 13: Gender differences in the perceptions of responsibility after treatment**

### 5.1.5 RQ 5: Is there a significant difference in learners' motivational level after learner training and awareness building sessions?

In order to find out whether a significant change came about in learners' motivational level in learning English, firstly descriptive statistics of pre-test motivation was carried out and mean values were calculated. The mean value of participants' total motivational level was found to be 4,31 (see Table 12).

**Table 12: Total mean values of motivation pre-test**

	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
Pre-test intrinsic motivation	30	4,34	,46
Pre-test extrinsic motivation	30	4,27	,42
<b>Pre-test total motivation</b>	30	<b>4,31</b>	,39

The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in two parts in relation to the two dimensions of motivation: intrinsic motivation (see Table 13) and extrinsic motivation (see Table 14).

**Table 13: Descriptive statistics of learners' intrinsic motivation in learning English before treatment**

<b>Items of questionnaire on motivation</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
3. I would like to be able to speak English.	30	4,83	,38
2. I would like to visit an English-speaking country.	30	4,77	,57
6. I want to do well in English class.	30	4,67	,66
19. It makes me happy to think that I learn English.	30	4,57	,57
7. I would like to meet English-speaking people.	30	4,53	,63
13. I'd like to learn English even if I didn't have to.	30	4,50	,63
18. Learning English is important for my personal development.	30	4,33	,66
1. I like English.	30	4,20	,92
12. When I learn new things in English, I feel satisfied.	30	4,20	,92
4. I enjoy English lessons.	30	4,10	,99
15. I find learning English enjoyable.	30	3,80	1,03
5. I find English interesting.	30	3,53	1,04

The results of descriptive statistics indicate that learners' overall intrinsic motivation appears to be fairly high (mean: 4,34) (see Table 13). Though they find English somewhat interesting (mean: 3,53) and enjoyable (mean: 3,80), it could be

noticed that their motivation to learn English (item 12, mean: 4,20; item 18: 4,33; item 19, mean: 4,57; item 6, mean: 4,67) seems to be higher. Especially, item 3 with the top mean value of 4,83 is a sign of learners' high motivation to learn English.

**Table 14: Descriptive statistics of learners' extrinsic motivation in learning English before treatment**

Items of questionnaire on motivation	N	Mean	SD
8. I will need to know English in the future.	30	4,87	,35
9. It will be important for me to know English in the future.	30	4,87	,35
11. I need to learn English for my future career.	30	4,87	,35
14. I want only to survive the English lesson.	30	4,37	,67
16. If I had the choice I'd give up learning English.	30	4,23	,94
10. The main reason I learn English because I have to.	30	3,73	1,34
17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.	30	2,97	1,16

Participants' extrinsic motivation is also found fairly high (mean: 4,27) (see Table 14), although it is slightly lower than the mean of intrinsic motivation. When the mean values of the items of extrinsic motivation are studied in Table 14, it is noticed that all of the first three highest scoring items (mean: 4,87) involve statements related to the importance of English with respect to learners' future employment needs. Item 16 with the mean value of 4,23 supports the interpretation that learners are extrinsically motivated to learn English as they would not choose to learn English if it was not compulsory. Finally, learners are not really concerned with being more respected if they learn to speak English (mean: 2,97).

In order to find out whether the difference between total mean values of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of pre-test is significant, a Paired-Samples T-test was implemented (see Table 15).

**Table 15: Paired-Samples T-test results for the differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation before treatment**

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
<b>Intrinsic motivation</b>	30	4,34	,46	,806	29	,427
<b>Extrinsic motivation</b>	30	4,27	,42			

While the mean value of extrinsic motivation (mean: 4,27) is slightly lower than the mean value of intrinsic motivation (mean: 4,34), the difference is not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ).

Next, the difference between male and female learners' motivational level prior to the treatment was sought through the implementation of Independent Samples T-test (see Table 16).

**Table 16: Independent Samples T-test results for gender differences in learners' motivational level before treatment**

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	df	f	Sig.
Female	17	4,34	,36	,496	28	333	,624
Male	13	4,27	,44				

Table 16 shows that there is not a significant difference between female and male participants' motivation to learn English prior to learner training and awareness building sessions ( $p > .05$ ).

After necessary statistical procedures and interpretations about motivation pre-test are presented, the same procedures with follow-up descriptions about motivation post-test will be described so as to conclude the findings of the fifth research question.

With the purpose of finding out the outcomes of post-test motivation, firstly mean values were calculated and mean of post-test total motivation was found to be 4,22 (see Table 17).

**Table 17: Total mean values of motivation post-test**

	N	Mean	SD
Post-test intrinsic motivation	30	4,21	,46
Post-test extrinsic motivation	30	4,23	,42
<b>Post-test total motivation</b>	30	<b>4,22</b>	,42

Then, descriptive statistics of intrinsic motivation (see Table 18) and extrinsic motivation (see Table 19) was implemented.

**Table 18: Descriptive statistics of learners' intrinsic motivation in learning English after treatment**

Items of questionnaire on motivation	N	Mean	SD
3. I would like to able to be to speak English.	30	4,80	,48
6. I want to do well in English class.	30	4,60	,67
2. I would like to visit an English-speaking country.	30	4,60	,86
7. I would like to meet English-speaking people.	30	4,53	,86
13. I'd like to learn English even if I didn't have to.	30	4,40	,89
19. It makes me happy to think that I learn English.	30	4,40	,89
12. When I learn new things in English, I feel satisfied.	30	4,33	,88
18. Learning English is important for my personal development.	30	4,20	,91
1. I like English.	30	4,07	1,01
4. I enjoy English lessons.	30	3,73	,91
15. I find learning English enjoyable.	30	3,40	,93
5. I find English interesting.	30	3,40	1,07

The results of descriptive statistics show that participants' *intrinsic* motivation could be said to be high as in the pre-test, though it was observed that a slight decrease occurred in the mean values (pre-test intrinsic motivation mean: 4,34 and post-test intrinsic motivation mean: 4,21). Similar to the descriptive statistics of pre-test, the lowest scoring intrinsic motivation items are again the ones involving the statements about the nature of English and the study of English language (items 5 and 15, mean: 3,40; item 4, mean: 3,73; item 1, mean: 4,07). However, they seem to be quite motivated again to learn English. For example, item 30 with the mean value of 4,40 reveals that they would still like to learn English even if it was not compulsory. Similarly, item 19 (mean: 4,40) indicates that they are intrinsically motivated since they become happy when they realize that they learn English. Once again, the mean values of the first four highest scoring items point to the learners' willingness to be able to learn English due to the intrinsic factors.

The results of descriptive statistics of the remaining items of questionnaire on motivation, which involve extrinsic factors, are displayed in Table 19:



**Table 19: Descriptive statistics of learners' extrinsic motivation in learning English after treatment**

Items of questionnaire on motivation	N	Mean	SD
11. I need to learn English for my future career.	30	4,90	,31
9. It will be important for me to know English in the future.	30	4,87	,35
8. I will need to know English in the future.	30	4,87	,35
16. If I had the choice I'd give up learning English.	30	4,23	,90
14. I want only to survive the English lesson	30	4,17	,83
10. The main reason I learn English because I have to.	29	3,45	1,40
17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.	30	3,07	1,20

The results in the table above show that learners' extrinsic motivation is considerably high, especially in terms of their future professional concerns again (item 11: 4,90; items 9 and 8, mean: 4,87). On the other hand, participants are not concerned with how others will approach them if they learn English (item 17, mean: 3,07).

After the results of descriptive statistics of post-test motivation were presented and interpreted, a Paired-Samples T-test was carried out so as to discover whether there is a significant difference between total mean values of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (see Table 20).

**Table 20: Paired-Samples T-test results for the differences between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation after treatment**

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
<b>Intrinsic motivation</b>	30	4,21	,49	-,241	29	,811
<b>Extrinsic motivation</b>	30	4,23	,38			

The values in Table 20 indicate that the difference between the mean values of extrinsic motivation (mean: 4,23) and intrinsic motivation (mean: 4,21) is not statistically significant ( $p > .05$ ).

With the purpose of finding out the difference between male and female learners' motivational level after treatment, the data were subjected to an Independent Samples t-test (see Table 21).

**Table 21: Independent Samples T-test results for gender differences in learners' motivational level after treatment**

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	df	f	Sig.
Female	17	4,13	,42	-1,248	28	,001	,223
Male	13	4,33	,41				

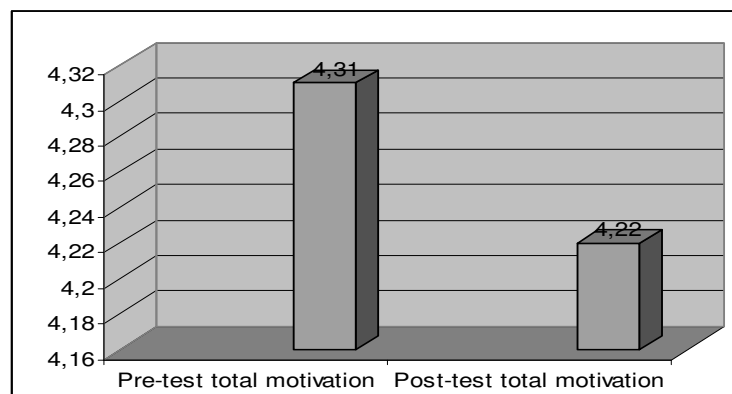
Table 21 shows that there is not a significant difference between female (mean: 4,13) and male participants' (mean: 4,33) motivation in the post-test ( $p > .05$ ).

In order to find out how significant the difference is between pre-test and post-test total motivation, a Paired-Samples T-test was carried out (see Table 22).

**Table 22: Paired-Samples T-test results for the differences between pre-test and post-test total motivation**

	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pre-test total motivation	30	4,31	,39	-,914	29	,368
Post-test total motivation	30	4,22	,42			

The values in Table 22 show that there is not a significant difference between participants' motivation before and after treatment ( $p > .05$ ). In other words, no meaningful differences occurred in learners' motivational level after treatment. Figure 14 displays these differences.



**Figure 14: Contrasting the differences between pre-test and post-test total motivation**

### 5.1.6 RQ 6: How do learners evaluate learner training and awareness building sessions?

In order to answer this research question, the interviews conducted with nine participants were first transcribed and then the findings were interpreted. As mentioned in the methodology of the study, the interviewees were chosen on the basis of their voluntariness. Although academic success level was not taken into consideration when selecting the interviewees, it was noticed that their level ranged from 'very high' to 'low' according to end-of-the-term grades (The average is accepted to be '60' out of '100', which is the passing grade in English Preparatory Programme). Three of the participants (33, 3%) had 'very high' level of academic success; four participants' (44, 4 %) academic success level was 'high'; and the academic success level of two participants (22, 2 %) was 'low' (see Table 23).

**Table 23: Interviewees' academic success level in English**

No	Gender	Level of academic success (out of 100)	Explanation
1	Female	92	Very high
2	Female	74	High
3	Male	86	Very high
4	Male	80	High
5	Male	52	Low
6	Female	92	Very high
7	Female	76	High
8	Female	52	Low
9	Female	70	High

The interviewees were asked questions from general to specific (see Appendix 14). The *first* question was the most general one: '**What do you think about the activities done in the sessions?**' On the whole, the participants had quite positive opinions about the activities. 7 participants out of 9 told that they found the activities very useful. For example, P-9 said that:

“Firstly, the activities have been very useful in terms of getting to know myself. Furthermore, I have learned a lot of things about what I can do to learn better.”

P-5 also reported that:

“We learned the importance of learning. Therefore, I think the activities have been very useful and to speak frankly, I liked them very much.”

One participant stated that the activities were very positive that she had the chance to question herself. Another participant said that the activities were very important to her.

The *second* interview question was: ‘**How have the activities contributed to you personally?**’ The responses to this question exhibit variance. Actually, each interviewee responded to this question quite differently (see Table 24).

**Table 24: Interviewees’ responses to the second interview question**

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Participant’s answer</b>
P-1	“I became more aware of things about language learning and got more concentrated. I also learned how to learn more easily.”
P-2	“I learned to give more importance to the homework assignments. I used to think that the teachers have to teach us but now I think that we are also responsible for learning.”
P-3	“I had already known most of these things but you reminded them to me again.”
P-4	“These activities reminded me how necessary learning a foreign language is. I became aware of the fact that English is more important than I was told before.”
P-5	“Now I think that I have more responsibility for my learning. And I also think about how I should be in the lessons. Once again, I can say that I have gained the feeling of responsibility.”
P-6	“I noticed that I could describe people accurately after we had analyzed three types of students in one of the sessions.”
P-7	“I became more aware of how to learn English better.”
P-8	“I learned to overcome my prejudices about my inability to learn English. In a way, my self-confidence boosted. Moreover, I became more aware of the indispensable and important place of English in my life.”
P-9	“I learned what kind of a learner I am.”

When Table 24 is examined, it is noticed that three participants' (P-1, P-7 and P-9) awareness of foreign language learning process seems to have developed, which actually backs up the results of quantitative findings. In addition, two of these participants (P-1 and P-7) stressed that they learned how to learn English more effectively. What is more, the ninth participant's self-awareness as a learner also appears to have enhanced. Furthermore, two participants (P-2 and P-5) stated that they started to think that they had more responsibility for their learning attributing this to learner training activities. This finding also supports the statistical results of the third research question. While no significant differences in learners' motivation were found out via statistical procedures, qualitative findings from the interview reveal that some participants' motivation seemed to be enhanced. For example, two participants' (P-4 and P-8) motivation to learn English could be said to have increased as both of them stressed that they realized how important English was in their life. Moreover, one participant (P-3) expressed that the activities helped him to remember what he had already known. Finally, one participant (P-6) reported that she realized that she had been more able to describe people accordingly after one of the sessions (see Session 2 – Appendix 6).

The *third* question that the participants were required to answer was: '**Have you ever had such kind of experience before?**' Six of the participants (67 %) stated that they had never had such kind of experience before. Three of them (33 %) said that they had participated in such kind of activities before but they added that they did not find them very useful. P-7 also added that such kind of activities ought to have started earlier so that they could have been more conscious about the issues related to foreign language learning.

The *fourth* interview question was: '**Have the activities been useful to you? (If so, which one do you think has been the most useful?)**' All of the participants agreed that the activities had been very useful to them. Two of the participants said that all of the activities had been very useful to them; one of them stressed on the usefulness of class discussions. Two of them stated that they had found the teacher and learner roles very helpful. One participant found both goal setting and learning

styles very useful. Four of them said that finding out their learning styles had been of great importance to them. One of the participants said that all of the activities were helpful to her. Finally, one participant found the activity on the features of good language learners very functional. One point attracting attention here is that learning styles have been of the central interest to the participants. This implies that the activities that the learners found the most useful are the ones related to improvement of metacognition. Table 25 shows how each participant answered this question.

**Table 25: Interviewees' responses to the fourth interview question**

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Participants' answer</b>
P-1	Goal setting and learning styles
P-2	Teacher and learner roles
P-3	Features of good language learners
P-4	All of the activities
P-5	Teacher and learner roles
P-6	Learning styles and character analysis
P-7	Learning styles
P-8	Learning styles and strategies
P-9	What kind of a learner am I? and learning styles

Next, the *fifth* question ‘**What were your opinions related to the process of learning English before the learner training sessions and what about your present opinions?**’ was asked to the interviewees: The interviewees' responses to this question also show variation. For example, P-1 said that:

“Before these sessions, I used to think that learning English takes a very long time and is more complex but now I know that if I set my goals and plan my studies, the time spent for learning could be reduced. I also gained an increasing awareness about learning English.”

P-2 emphasized that she became aware of her responsibility in her learning and also the importance of studying English:

“I learned to attach more importance to English and that I need to study through both writing and reading after I learned that I was a visual learner. I also learned to take more responsibility for my learning.”

Furthermore, P-3 reported that he learned things about a lot of points which he had never thought before. P-4, on the other hand, pointed out that he felt as if the thoughts in his mind came alive when the discussions were being held. In other words, he remembered what he knew previously. Similar to P-1, P-5 also emphasized that he started to think that the time allocated for learning English could be shortened if one knows how to plan his studies carefully. Likewise, P-6 made it clear that if one works hard enough, she can succeed anything. She also added that since she realized that it had been her fault when her performance got poorer, she started to put more effort into her work to improve her performance. Moreover, P-7 noted down that:

“I think that I did not use to know how to study to learn more effectively. However, with the help of these activities, I learned something new each week which increased my knowledge about how to study English.”

Participants 8 and 9 responded to the fifth question in a similar way. They stated that they had decided how to study English. They also added that they had not been aware of many things about foreign language learning before the sessions.

The *sixth* and last interview question was: **‘Do you have a final comment you would like to add?’** All of the participants evaluated the study quite positively. Three of the participants stated that the study became very effective. Two participants said that the activities were quite enlightening. Three participants pointed out that the study was rather useful. One participant indicated that the study was very necessary. The seventh participant, for example, had the following comments on the overall study:

“These activities certainly need to have been done in terms of getting to know ourselves and knowing how to learn English. Because having the desire to learn something is not sufficient alone; we should also be aware of and have knowledge about how to learn most effectively in order to be able to do something. I think these activities have contributed to this aim a lot.”

P-4 also had positive opinions about the study:

“In my opinion, this kind of activities should not only be done for your thesis study but also for a longer period of time. I hope they will continue in the second term, too. Personally, I had a lot of fun.”

To sum up, the findings of qualitative data support the outcomes of quantitative data in that learner training and awareness building activities led to an improvement in learners’ perceptions of responsibility. On the other hand, while no statistically significant difference was found in participants’ motivational level in learning English, findings of the qualitative data indicate that a moderate level of increase in their motivational level was observed.

## **5.2 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter, the findings obtained from the analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data were presented and interpreted with regard to each research question of the study in turn.



## **CHAPTER 6**

### **DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS**

#### **6.0 INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this chapter is to present the discussions of the findings by referring to the literature described in the second and third chapters. After drawing some conclusions in relation to the findings, pedagogical and methodological implications are discussed. Finally, several suggestions for further research are provided.

#### **6.1 DISCUSSIONS**

This study intends to find answers to the following research questions:

- RQ 1:** What are the perceptions of responsibility of students in English preparatory classes?
- RQ 2:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility with regard to gender?
- RQ 3:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learning training and awareness building sessions?
- RQ 4:** Is there a significant difference in learners' perceptions of responsibility after learner training and awareness building sessions in relation to gender?
- RQ 5:** Is there a significant difference in learners' motivational level after learner training and awareness building sessions?
- RQ 6:** How do learners evaluate learner training and awareness building sessions?

### **6.1.1 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 1**

The findings of the first research question indicated that the participants of the study did not seem to perceive that they have a big responsibility in their own learning in general in the beginning of the study. As mentioned in the second chapter, responsible learners are those who have an awareness of their role as a learner (Usuki 2001). Whereas, it was observed that learners' capacity for metacognitive awareness is not at a required level since most of them are not aware of their strengths and weaknesses in learning English or how they learn best. However, results from the questionnaire reveal that the participants actually signal the need to enhance their metacognitive knowledge or awareness. They especially desire to learn what kind of learners they are and also how they can learn English better. This implies that they need to be guided and informed about language learning process so that their metacognitive awareness could be built.

Another result drawn from the findings of RQ 1 is that learners also tend not to employ metacognitive strategies such as goal-setting, planning, monitoring or evaluating at a satisfying level. This implies that they are not really in charge of their learning since they do not appear to consciously monitor and evaluate their progress.

In Chapter 2, it was stated that responsible learners are those who believe that their efforts will be significant in their progress (Scharle and Szabo 2000). In this respect, the participants of the study could be said to be fairly responsible since they turned out to be placing much importance in their efforts as the findings indicate. However, it was also shown that learners tend to attribute their success and failure to luck, which is accepted as an external and uncontrollable factor in the literature (Dickinson 1995). These results indicate that there is an inconsistency in learners' attribution to success and failure. Therefore, it comes out to be rather difficult to identify whether the participants are responsible learners or not.

### **6.1.2 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 2**

With the RQ 2, it was intended to discover whether there are any significant differences between male and female learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English before the treatment. The related findings show that there is not a meaningful difference in perceptions of responsibility with regard to gender. On the other hand, as several other studies indicate, female learners usually surpass males in other aspects of learning such as attitudes towards learning English and the self as a learner (Dursun 2007), achievement attributions to failure and success (Saticilar 2006), overall strategy use (Liu 2004), etc.

### **6.1.3 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 3**

The results of the findings from RQ 3 indicate that a significant change was detected in learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after learner training and awareness building sessions.

When the noticeable differences between the findings of responsibility pre-test and post-test are compared, it was found out in what aspects of responsibility significant changes were observed. One area where a visible increase was observed is in learners' metacognitive knowledge (awareness). For example, responsibility post-test results signify that learners tend to be more aware of their strengths and weaknesses in learning English, and what kind of a learner they are; know what they should practice more; and also try to find their own ways of learning English comparing to the findings of responsibility pre-test.

Meaningful differences were also observed in learners' tendency to employ metacognitive strategies, which is another important part of metacognition. The findings draw attention to a significant increase in learners' potential for using metacognitive strategies such as goal-setting, planning, monitoring and evaluating

which allow learners to self-regulate their learning. Similar results have also been obtained in other learner training studies such as Esch's (1997), Victori and Lockhart's (1995), Nunan's (2002), and Yang's (1998). All of these researchers share the opinion that learners' metacognition is likely to be enhanced if learner training programmes are designed to involve elements like peer-interviews, reflection, counselling sessions and class discussions which aim to build an awareness on the part of learners.

The findings further signify that learners perceive that they are in control of their success in their learning while they still tend to attribute their success and failure to luck. However, it is also noticed that learners' perceptions of responsibility in control level increased whereas their tendency to attribute their success and failure to luck decreased after the treatment.

Another result to be mentioned for this research question is about learners' attitudes related to doing homework which could be considered to be forming an important part of private domain where learning is personalized and internalized by learner (Crabbe 1993). Findings indicate that learners do not attach adequate importance to homework tasks which are supposed to serve as valuable opportunities for learners to extend their learning beyond classroom.

#### **6.1.4 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 4**

Similar to the results of RQ 2, no significant changes in female and male students' perceptions of responsibility in learning English were detected after the treatment. This result appears to be surprising in this context as females are assumed to take on more responsibilities than males with respect to sociological and cultural factors. This could signal the fact that there are no consistent gender differences in various ability domains (Feingold 1992). Likewise, Lippa (2005) argues that there are various factors that might result in variation of typical gender-related behaviours.

### **6.1.5 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 5**

The results of this research question are three-fold:

First, it was tried to find out learners' motivational level before the learner training sessions started. The findings point that learners' motivation to learn English appeared to be fairly high. Next, although no significant difference was observed between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, it was noticed that the prevailing source for this high motivation is about learners' concerns related to their future employment needs. This is not surprising since attending English preparatory programme was compulsory for most of the participants. In terms of gender differences in learners' motivation prior to the treatment, female and male students' motivational level turned out to be quite close to each other.

Second, it was found out that learners' motivational level is again quite high following the treatment. Similar to the motivation pre-test, no considerable differences were found between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; while it was noticed again that learners seemed to be willing to learn English particularly because of external factors such as future professional careers. In this respect, Salehi (2005) suggests that there is not a clear-cut boundary between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as it is apparent by the findings of his study that there is a high and meaningful correlation between these two types of motivation. In addition, he states that "the two dichotomies are not mutually exclusive" (Salehi 2005: 5). Finally, no meaningful differences between females' and males' motivational level were detected again. Similar results were also reached by Dursun (2007) and Salem (2006), who have reported that no significant differences were found in learners' motivational level with respect to gender in their study.

Third, the results of statistical procedures indicate that no significant differences were found in learners' overall motivation after learner training and awareness building sessions. This result might be attributed to the general observation that learners' motivation is usually higher in the beginning of the course

but it tends to decrease through the end of the term as they are involved in so many activities and exams throughout the course.

### **6.1.6 DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS FROM RQ 6**

As for the results of the last research question, the qualitative and quantitative findings obtained from the interviews indicate that all of the interviewees appeared to have rather positive opinions regarding the learner training and awareness building sessions. The results further supported the findings of the questionnaire in that desired changes in learners' perceptions of responsibility took place. Particularly, learners' metacognitive knowledge and their potential for using metacognitive strategies enhanced. On the contrary of the statistical findings which revealed that no significant changes occurred in participants' overall motivational level, the qualitative findings signified that a relative level of increase in their motivation was observed as several of the interviewees reported that they started to perceive English as having a more important place in their lives.

When learners were asked to express their further opinions about the sessions, it was observed that all of them found the activities quite useful. The most favourable activities of the participants were the ones related to improvement of metacognition such as learner styles, teacher and learner roles and character analysis.

## **6.2 CONCLUSIONS**

This study sought to find out whether learner training and awareness building activities would have any significant effects on learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English and their motivational level. While various studies were carried out in order to investigate the effects of learner training on learner autonomy (see Esch 1997; Finch 1998; Lee 1996; Matsumo 1996; Victori and Lockhart 1995; Yang

1998), the present study particularly aimed to investigate perceptions of *responsibility* with regard to learner training. What is more, studies conducted on learner autonomy in Turkey mostly adopted teacher-based approaches that tried to seek learners' or trainee teachers' readiness or attitudes towards learner autonomy (see Özdere 2005; Sert 2006; Yıldırım 2005). Whereas, the present study attempted to investigate whether learners' perceptions of responsibility could be improved through a set of planned learner training activities aiming to raise learners' awareness and expand their knowledge of the foreign language learning process.

The results of both quantitative and qualitative findings of this study revealed that a significant increase in perceptions of responsibility was evident especially in terms of metacognitive awareness and the tendency for using metacognitive strategies of which presence is related to responsibility as mentioned in the second and third chapters. These results are in line with several other research studies indicating that a systematic and planned learner training programme built on the principles of reflective learning, peer-training, self-assessment, class discussions, and counselling is likely to enhance learners' metacognition and readiness for self-directed learning (see Cotterall 1999; Esch 1997; Finch 1998; Koda-Dallow and Hobbs 2005; Lee 1998; Nunan 2002; Victori and Lockhart 1995; Yang 1998). However, it might be useful to note that, as suggested in the literature, the level or perceptions of responsibility or autonomous learning received from awareness building and learner training activities exhibit variance from learner to learner (Toogood 2005); and also sudden and sizeable changes cannot be expected in learners' perceptions or attitudes in a short time (Bertoldi, Kollar and Ricard 1988). Nevertheless, learning to learn is an important beginning for learners so that they could be equipped with valuable skills for their life-long learning.

Another aim of the present study was to seek any possible significant increases in learners' motivational level after learner training programme. The statistical results showed that no considerable increase was witnessed in learners' overall motivation. On the other hand, as the qualitative findings show, a fair level of increase in participants' motivational level was observed. In addition, findings

pointed to no significant differences between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation neither before nor after the treatment. This point is interpreted by Salehi (2005) as no truly distinct boundaries exist between these two types of motivation. Moreover, female and male students turned out to have quite close motivational level in learning English. Such a result was also attained by Dursun (2007) and Salem (2006).

Finally, while learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English were heightened considerably, no significant differences between males' and females' perceptions of responsibility were found out neither before nor after the treatment. This result might be attributed to the fact that it is possible to meet inconsistencies or variations in different aspects of learning such as attitudes, behaviours, or abilities with respect to gender (Feingold 1992). Furthermore, it might be stated that because of changing demands and requirements in terms of various factors such as economic, practical, professional and so on, the social roles and responsibilities assigned to different genders have started to transform in Turkish society.

### **6.3 IMPLICATIONS**

The results of the present study hold several important implications regarding learners, teachers, and methodological issues. In addition, some suggestions for further research could be put forward in the light of the findings and results drawn from this study.

#### **6.3.1 IMPLICATIONS FOR LEARNERS**

Considering the fact that psychological constructs such as perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and attributions are crucial factors shaping individuals' underlying behaviours and performance, it could be concluded that learners need to be certainly



guided and educated in the process of learning so that they will attain a proper and conscious understanding and perception related to themselves as learners and also the language learning process. Therefore, it could be suggested that awareness building and learner training should be incorporated into every subject area and introduced preferably from the very beginning of education so that learners' metacognition and perceptions of responsibility could be heightened. One point that needs to be kept in mind, on the other hand, is that the form and content of this training should be adjusted to learners' cognitive maturity level and age.

### **6.3.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS**

This study, which was carried out with learners, also bears importance concerning foreign language teacher education, in-service teacher training and professional development. As discussed in the second and third chapters, the development of learner autonomy is quite dependent upon the presence of teacher autonomy. That is, if teachers are aware of, open and dedicated to the idea of autonomy, then they will more likely attempt to develop autonomy among their learners. In addition, they should also be aware of the importance of responsibility, which is the underlying dimension of autonomy.

In this respect, foreign language teacher education should also cover the issues not only related to the teaching of the content of the target language but also how to train learners so that they can become more responsible and autonomous in their learning. Secondly, the present study also sheds light on the necessity to make learner training and awareness building an essential part of in-service teacher training that might encourage working teachers to become aware of the importance of learner autonomy and responsibility and also how to assist their students to achieve this aim.

### **6.3.3 METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS**

This study also has several implications for material and curriculum development. Having known the importance of developing learner autonomy and responsibility in foreign language education, sound elements and principles of learner training and awareness building as discussed in the previous parts could be incorporated into teaching materials and also the curriculum. For example, learners could be given questionnaires focusing on different aspects of foreign language learning such as attitudes, learning styles and strategies, needs analysis and goal-setting, motivation and so on. In this way, their awareness related to language learning process could be heightened. In addition, peer or whole-class discussions, counselling sessions, and diary-keeping could be held at certain intervals so that learners could find the opportunity to reflect on various aspects of learning and also benefit from others' ideas and experience. Furthermore, learners could be assisted and guided to assess and evaluate their own performance and progress, set realistic goals and also determine the ways of achieving them. To sum up, learners' metacognition could be built well in a number of ways so as to encourage them to become more responsible and effective learners.

### **6.4 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The present study calls for further research for examining the construct of responsibility more thoroughly. For example, different dimensions of responsibility could be identified and their relationships with other variables such as motivation, academic success level, attitudes and so on might be investigated by future researchers; thereby they might contribute to the theory.

Moreover, as this study is small-scaled, thereby the conclusions are not to be generalized, future researchers could replicate this study with a larger number of participants and in longitudinal studies. In addition, since responsibility is a construct

which is supposed to be affected by a number of variables such as age; socioeconomic class; educational, cultural and family background; social attitudes and values, and so on; the relationship between responsibility and different variables could be put into investigation in further research.

### **6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

This chapter began with the discussions of findings for each research question. Then, a general conclusion was drawn in the light of the results obtained from the analysis of the findings. Pedagogical and methodological implications were followed by the suggestions for further research.

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## APPENDIX 1

### QUESTIONNAIRE ON RESPONSIBILITY

**Dear Participant,**

This questionnaire has been designed to find out your perceptions related to the process of learning English. The data that will be obtained from this application will contribute to the efforts in informing and training students about the process of foreign language learning.

There is no '**RIGHT**' or '**WRONG**' answer in this questionnaire. For this reason, it is very important to respond to the statements not as how others think, answer or how it is supposed to be but as just **how you think** in order to obtain accurate results from this questionnaire.

This questionnaire involves a statement in every line and 5 (five) options asking you how appropriate the statement is for you. Each option corresponds to a numerical value. The table below explains what these numbers mean:

Very appropriate to me	5
Appropriate to me	4
I have no idea (undecided)	3
Not appropriate to me	2
Not appropriate to me at all	1

Please read each statement carefully and circle the option that suits you best.

In addition, please specify your gender by circling the right word below.

**Gender: FEMALE / MALE**

Thank you for attention and help.

Instructor of English Nalan BAYRAKTAR BALKIR  
[bayraktar6@yahoo.com](mailto:bayraktar6@yahoo.com)

This study is being carried out as a Master thesis at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Foreign Languages (English Language Teaching) under the supervision of Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ece Zehir Topkaya ([ecetopkaya@yahoo.com](mailto:ecetopkaya@yahoo.com)).

	Very appropriate to me	Appropriate to me	I have no idea	Not appropriate to me	Not appropriate to me at all
1. I would like my teacher to share the information about my progress in English with me.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I know what I should practise more in English.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at.	5	4	3	2	1
4. My only purpose in English is to get a passing grade.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Sometimes I try to learn things that the teacher did not give as a task.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I spend as little time as possible for my homework.	5	4	3	2	1
7. I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses in English.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Doing homework is one of the good ways to improve my English.	5	4	3	2	1
9. I ask my teacher to help me with the things I am not good at.	5	4	3	2	1
10. I am aware of the ways that I learn English best.	5	4	3	2	1
11. I often revise what I have learned.	5	4	3	2	1
12. I would like to have choice in class activities.	5	4	3	2	1
13. I know what the reason is when I do well in English.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I search different ways to improve my English outside the class.	5	4	3	2	1
15. My own efforts as well as the teacher's will contribute to my learning.	5	4	3	2	1
16. I set my own goals in learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
17. I would like to know how I can learn English better.	5	4	3	2	1
18. The reason why I am bad at English is because I have bad teachers.	5	4	3	2	1
19. I try to make use of every opportunity that can help me improve my English.	5	4	3	2	1
20. I try to find and correct my mistakes before I submit my assignments to my teacher.	5	4	3	2	1
21. I am in control of my success in learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
22. I usually know what the reason is when I get good marks in English.	5	4	3	2	1
23. If I do badly at English, I usually know how to do better next time.	5	4	3	2	1
24. I try to find my own ways of learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
25. I often review my progress in learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
26. My success in English is completely out of my control.	5	4	3	2	1
27. How I do in English is a matter of luck.	5	4	3	2	1
28. I plan my English studies carefully.	5	4	3	2	1
29. I evaluate my progress in English.	5	4	3	2	1
30. I want to know what kind of a learner I am.	5	4	3	2	1
31. I look for advice from my teacher about how I can improve my English.	5	4	3	2	1
32. My success in English is mainly up to my own efforts.	5	4	3	2	1

## APPENDIX 2

### Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket, siz öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenme sürecine ilişkin algılarını belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu uygulamanın neticesinde elde edilecek bilgiler öğrencilerin dil öğrenimi konusunda bilinçlendirilmesi ve eğitilmesi çalışmalarına katkıda bulunacaktır.

Bu ankette **DOĞRU** ya da **YANLIŞ** cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle soruları başkalarının nasıl düşündüğü, cevapladığı ya da olması gerektiği gibi değil sadece **kendi düşünceleriniz** doğrultusunda cevaplamanız, anketin sağlıklı sonuçlar verebilmesi için çok önemlidir.

Bu ankette, her satırda okumanız gereken bir ifade ve bu ifadenin size ne ölçüde uygun olduğunu soran 5 (beş) seçenek bulunmaktadır. Her seçeneğe rakamsal bir değer verilmiştir. Aşağıda bu rakamların ne anlama geldiği açıklanmıştır:

Bana çok uygun	5
Bana uygun	4
Fikrim yok	3
Bana uygun değil	2
Bana hiç uygun değil	1

Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup size en çok uyan seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

Ayrıca aşağıdaki kelimelerden gerekli olanı yuvarlak içine alarak cinsiyetinizi belirleyiniz.

**Cinsiyet: KIZ / ERKEK**

İlginiz ve yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler.

İngilizce Okutmanı Nalan BAYRAKTAR BALKIR

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Bu çalışma Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Ana Bilim Dalı İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak, Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ece Zehir Topkaya ([ecetopkaya@yahoo.com](mailto:ecetopkaya@yahoo.com)) danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir.

	Bana çok uygun	Bana uygun	Fikrim yok	Bana uygun değil	Bana hiç uygun değil
1. Öğretmenimin İngilizcedeki gelişimimle ilgili bilgileri benimle paylaşmasını isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
2. İngilizcede hangi konulara daha fazla çalışmam gerektiğini biliyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
3. İngilizce dersinde eksik olduğum bir konu işleniyorsa daha fazla dikkat kesilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
4. İngilizceyle ilgili tek amacım dersten geçer not alabilmektir.	5	4	3	2	1
5. Bazen öğretmenimin ödev olarak vermediği konuları da öğrenmeye çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
6. Ödevlere mümkün olduğunca az vakit ayırırım.	5	4	3	2	1
7. İngilizcede güçlü ve zayıf olan yanlarımla farkındayım.	5	4	3	2	1
8. Ödev yapmak, İngilizcemi geliştirmenin etkili yollarından biridir.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Öğretmenimle konuşup zayıf olduğum konularda bana yardımcı olmasını isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
10. İngilizceyi en iyi hangi yollarla öğrendiğimin farkındayım.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Öğrendiklerimi sık sık gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
12. Bana, ders içi etkinliklerle ilgili seçim hakkı tanınmasını isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
13. İngilizcede başarılı olduğumda bunun sebebini bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Sınıf dışında İngilizcemi geliştirmenin çeşitli yollarını ararım.	5	4	3	2	1
15. Öğretmenimin olduğu kadar kendi çabamın da öğrenmeye katkısı olacaktır.	5	4	3	2	1
16. İngilizce öğrenmede kendi hedeflerimi koyarım.	5	4	3	2	1
17. İngilizceyi nasıl daha iyi öğrenebileceğimi bilmek istiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
18. İngilizcede başarısız olmamın sebebi kötü öğretmenlerimin olmasıdır	5	4	3	2	1
19. İngilizcemi geliştirmeme yardımcı olabilecek her türlü imkândan yararlanmaya çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
20. Ödevlerimi öğretmenime teslim etmeden önce yanırlarımı bulup düzeltmeye çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
21. İngilizce öğrenmedeki başarımla benim kontrolüm altındadır.	5	4	3	2	1
22. İngilizce sınavlarından iyi notlar aldığımda genellikle bunun sebebini bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
23. İngilizcede başarısız olursam durumumu nasıl düzeltebileceğimi genellikle bilirim.	5	4	3	2	1
24. İngilizce öğrenirken kendime has öğrenme yollarını bulmaya çalışırım.	5	4	3	2	1
25. İngilizcedeki ilerlememi sık sık gözden geçiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
26. İngilizcedeki başarı durumum tamamen kontrolüm dışındadır.	5	4	3	2	1
27. İngilizcede başarılı ya da başarısız olmam şansa bağlıdır.	5	4	3	2	1
28. İngilizce çalışmalarımı dikkatli bir şekilde planlarım.	5	4	3	2	1
29. İngilizcedeki gelişimimi kendi kendime değerlendiririm.	5	4	3	2	1
30. Ne tür bir öğrenen olduğumu bilmek istiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
31. Öğretmenimden, bana, İngilizcemi nasıl geliştirebileceğimle ilgili tavsiyelerde bulunmasını beklerim.	5	4	3	2	1
32. İngilizcede ne kadar başarılı olduğum benim gayretlerime bağlıdır.	5	4	3	2	1

## APPENDIX 3

### QUESTIONNAIRE ON MOTIVATION

**Dear Participant,**

This questionnaire, which is a part of a thesis study on learner autonomy, has been designed in order to find out your motivational level in learning English. The data that will be gathered as a result of this application will constitute an important part of a scientific research.

There is no '**RIGHT**' or '**WRONG**' answer in this questionnaire. For this reason, it is very important to respond to the statements not as how others think, answer or how it is supposed to be but as just **how you think** in order to obtain accurate results from this questionnaire.

This questionnaire involves a statement in every line and 5 (five) options asking you to what extent you agree with the statement. Each option corresponds to a numerical value. The table below explains what these numbers mean:

I strongly agree	5
I agree	4
I am not sure	3
I disagree	2
I strongly disagree	1

Please read each statement carefully and circle the option that suits you best.

In addition, please specify your gender by circling the right word below.

**Gender: FEMALE / MALE**

Thank you for attention and help.

Instructor of English Nalan BAYRAKTAR BALKIR

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This study is being carried out as a Master thesis at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Institute of Social Studies, Department of Foreign Languages (English Language Teaching) under the supervision of Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ece Zehir Topkaya ([ecetopkaya@yahoo.com](mailto:ecetopkaya@yahoo.com)).



	I strongly agree	I agree	I am not sure	I disagree	I strongly disagree
1. I like English.	5	4	3	2	1
2. I would like to visit an English-speaking country.	5	4	3	2	1
3. I would like to be able to speak English.	5	4	3	2	1
4. I enjoy English lessons.	5	4	3	2	1
5. I find English interesting.	5	4	3	2	1
6. I want to do well in English class.	5	4	3	2	1
7. I would like to meet English-speaking people.	5	4	3	2	1
8. I will need to know English in the future.	5	4	3	2	1
9. It will be important for me to know English in the future.	5	4	3	2	1
10. The main reason I learn English is because I have to.	5	4	3	2	1
11. I need to learn English for my future career.	5	4	3	2	1
12. When I learn new things in English, I feel satisfied.	5	4	3	2	1
13. I'd like to learn English even if I didn't have to.	5	4	3	2	1
14. I want only to survive the English lesson.	5	4	3	2	1
15. I find learning English enjoyable.	5	4	3	2	1
16. If I had the choice, I'd give up learning English.	5	4	3	2	1
17. If I learn to speak English, other people will respect me more.	5	4	3	2	1
18. Learning English is important for my personal development.	5	4	3	2	1
19. It makes me happy to think that I learn English.	5	4	3	2	1

## APPENDIX 4

**Sayın katılımcı,**

Bu anket, 'öğrenci otonomisi' üzerine yapılmakta olan tez çalışmasının bir parçası olarak siz öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenimine ilişkin motivasyon durumunu tespit etmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu uygulamanın neticesinde elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel bir araştırmanın önemli bir bölümünü oluşturacaktır.

Bu ankette **DOĞRU** ya da **YANLIŞ** cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle soruları başkalarının nasıl düşündüğü, cevapladığı ya da olması gerektiği gibi değil sadece **kendi düşünceleriniz** doğrultusunda cevaplamanız, anketin sağlıklı sonuçlar verebilmesi için çok önemlidir.

Bu ankette, her satırda okumanız gereken bir ifade ve bu ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı soran 5 (beş) seçenek bulunmaktadır. Her seçeneğe rakamsal bir değer verilmiştir. Aşağıda bu rakamların ne anlama geldiği açıklanmıştır:

Kesinlikle katılıyorum	5
Katılıyorum	4
Emin değilim	3
Katılmıyorum	2
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	1

Her bir ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup size en çok uyan seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız. Ayrıca aşağıdaki kelimelerden gerekli olanı yuvarlak içine alarak cinsiyetinizi belirleyiniz.

**Cinsiyet: KIZ / ERKEK**

İlginiz ve yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler.

İngilizce Okutmanı Nalan BAYRAKTAR BALKIR  
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	Kesinlikle katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Emin değilim	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
1. İngilizceyi seviyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
2. İngilizcenin konuşulduğu bir ülkeyi ziyaret etmek isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
3. İngilizce konuşabilmek istiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
4. İngilizce derslerini seviyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
5. İngilizcenin ilginç olduğunu düşünüyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
6. İngilizce dersinde başarılı olmak istiyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
7. İngilizce konuşan insanlarla tanışmak isterim.	5	4	3	2	1
8. İleride İngilizceye ihtiyacım olacak.	5	4	3	2	1
9. Benim için İngilizce bilmek ileriki hayatımda da çok önemli olacak.	5	4	3	2	1
10. Zorunlu olduğum için İngilizce öğreniyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
11. Gelecekteki kariyerim için İngilizce öğrenmem gerekli.	5	4	3	2	1
12. İngilizcede yeni şeyler öğrendiğimde tatmin oluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
13. Zorunlu olmasa dahi İngilizce öğrenmek isterdim.	5	4	3	2	1
14. Sadece geçer not almak için İngilizce çalışıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
15. İngilizce öğrenmeyi eğlenceli buluyorum.	5	4	3	2	1
16. Bana seçme hakkı tanınsa, İngilizce öğrenmekten vazgeçerdim.	5	4	3	2	1
17. İngilizce konuşmayı öğrenirsem insanlar bana daha fazla saygı gösterecekler.	5	4	3	2	1
18. İngilizce öğrenmek kişisel gelişimim için önemli.	5	4	3	2	1
19. İngilizce öğrendiğimi düşünmek beni mutlu ediyor.	5	4	3	2	1

**APPENDIX 5**  
**LEARNER TRAINING SESSION - I**

<b>Topic</b>	Features of good language learners
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Building an awareness of characteristics of good language learners</li> <li>2. Encouraging students to reflect on their own characteristics as a language learner; thereby to gain insights into what and how to do to be successful in learning English</li> </ol>
<b>Date</b>	24 <sup>th</sup> November 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	30
<b>Materials</b>	A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)
<b>Activities</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Discussing the characteristics of good language learners in pairs</li> <li>2. Whole-class discussion about the characteristics of good language learners</li> </ol>
<b>Procedures</b>	<p><u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other; and the teacher introduces the topic of the session</p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u> The students are asked to discuss the characteristics of good language learners in pairs.</p> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u> a) After pairs of students discuss characteristics of good language learners, whole-class discussion starts. b) All the ideas suggested by learners are written on the board.</p> <p><u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> <p><u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students summarize what they covered in the session.</p>

## APPENDIX 6

### LEARNER TRAINING SESSION – II

<b>Topic</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. What kind of a learner am I?</li> <li>2. Determining strengths and weaknesses</li> </ol>
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a. Developing an awareness of self as an individual and as a learner</li> <li>b. Widening students' perceptions upon their strengths and weaknesses in learning English</li> </ol>
<b>Date</b>	8 <sup>th</sup> December 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	29
<b>Materials</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A sheet containing scenarios of three different types of students</li> <li>2. A form including areas of strengths and weaknesses (see Appendix 6.1) (Adapted and translated from Scharle and Szabo 2000: 21) (see Appendix 6.2)</li> <li>3. A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)</li> </ol>
<b>Activities</b>	<p><b>I. What kind of learner am I?</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Reading scenarios of three different types of students</li> <li>2. Identifying these students' personality types and characteristics as a learner</li> <li>3. Writing about their own personality and characteristics as a student</li> </ol> <p><b>II. Determining strengths and weaknesses</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Identifying areas of language to be studied</li> <li>2. Determining the areas in which the students find themselves strong or weak in English</li> </ol>
<b>Procedures</b>	<p><u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other.</p> <p><b>I. What kind of a learner am I?</b></p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The students are given sheets containing scenarios of three types of students and they read the descriptions.</li> <li>b) The students discuss and identify three students' personality types and characteristics as a learner in pairs.</li> <li>c) Pair-work leads to whole class discussion about these three different types of learners and words associated with personality are written on the board for each student.</li> </ol> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u> After having the previous discussion, students analyse themselves as an individual and a learner and write their reflection on a piece of paper.</p> <p><b>II. Determining strengths and weaknesses</b></p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The students brainstorm about the language areas they study.</li> <li>b) These areas are written on the board.</li> </ol> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The students are given the forms containing areas of strengths and weaknesses in learning English.</li> <li>b) The students determine the areas in which they view themselves as strong and weak.</li> </ol> <p><u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> <p><u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students review what they covered in the session.</p>

## APPENDIX 6.1

### SCENARIOS OF THREE DIFFERENT TYPES OF STUDENTS

*Aşağıdaki paragrafları okuyup her öğrenci için uygun olan en belirgin kişilik tiplerini bulunuz.*

**1. Öğrenci:** Zeynep matematik dersinin birinci sınavından geçer not alamamıştır. Sınavdan bir gece önce sabaha kadar hiç uyumadan çalışmış olmasına rağmen neden başarısız olduğunu anlayamamıştır. Planlı ders çalışmaktan ve düzenli bir tekrar yapmaktan çok çabuk sıkılan bir öğrencidir. Fakat başarısızlığının nereden kaynaklandığını ve durumunu düzeltmek için neler yapmasını gerektiğini bulmaya çalışmamaktadır. Aldığı düşük not nedeniyle hayal kırıklığına kapılıp notunu düzeltemeyeceğini ve asla başarılı olamayacağını düşünmeye başlamıştır. Bu durum da onu karamsarlığa sürüklemektedir.

**2. Öğrenci:** Fatih derslerine düzenli olarak çalışan ve ödevlerine oldukça fazla zaman ayıran bir öğrencidir. Tarih dersini çok sevmesine ve yeterince bilgili olmasına rağmen derste söz almaktan uzak kalmayı tercih etmektedir. Doğru cevabı bildiğinden emin olsa dahi öğretmen ona söz hakkı vermedikçe derse katılmamaktadır. Çok çalışmasına rağmen sınavlardan iyi bir not alamayacağını ve bildiği her şeyi unutacağını düşünüp kaygılanmaktadır. Konuşmayı çok fazla sevmeyen ve genelde yalnız kalmaktan ve tek başına çalışmaktan hoşlanan bir öğrencidir.

**3. Öğrenci:** Simge seçmeli ders olarak Almanca almaktadır. Dil öğrenmeyi sevdiği için Almanca derslerinden çok hoşlanmaktadır. Yanlış yapacağı korkusuyla derse katılmaktan çekinmemektedir. Derste ve ders dışında arkadaşlarıyla birlikte çalışmaktan ve beraber vakit geçirmekten büyük bir keyif almaktadır. Zayıf olduğu konuların farkında olup bu konularda daha başarılı olabilmek için neler yapabileceğini ve kimlerden yardım alabileceğini araştırmaktadır. Üzerine düştüğü takdirde her şeyi başarabileceğine inanmaktadır. Başarısız olduğu durumlarda kolay kolay paniğe kapılmaz.

## APPENDIX 6.2

### İNGİLİZCEDE GÜÇLÜ VE ZAYIF YANLARIN BELİRLENMESİ FORMU (Form for determining strengths and weaknesses in English)

İngilizcede neleri yapabildiğinizi ve neleri yapamadığınızı düşünün. (Örneğin; başka bir öğrenciyle konuşmak, gramer alıştırmalarını yapmak, gramer hatası yapmadan konuşmak, gramer ve imla hataları olmayan yazılar yazmak, kasetten dinlenen konuşmaları anlamak, sınıfın önünde konuşmak, kelimeleri doğru telaffuz edebilmek, kelimelerin anlamlarını ve yapılarını kavrayabilmek). Aşağıdaki cümleleri birden fazla örnekle tamamlamaya çalışın.

İngilizcede çok iyi olduğum alanlar

.....

.....

.....

İngilizcede iyi olduğum alanlar

.....

.....

.....

İngilizcede çok iyi olmadığım alanlar

.....

.....

.....

İngilizcede zorlandığım alanlar

.....

.....

.....

İngilizcede iyi olduğunuzu düşündüğünüz fakat daha da geliştirmek istediğiniz ya da zorlandığınız ama çok fazla önemsemediğiniz başka alanlar var mı? Başka yorumlar eklemek ister misiniz?

.....

.....

.....

## APPENDIX 7

## LEARNER TRAINING SESSION – III

<b>Topic</b>	Needs analysis and goal-setting
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Allowing students to think about their needs in learning English and become aware of them</li> <li>2. Encouraging learners to determine their objectives and goals and think about the ways to achieve them</li> </ol>
<b>Date</b>	9 <sup>th</sup> December 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	29
<b>Materials</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A questionnaire on goal-setting and needs analysis (see Appendix 7.1)</li> <li>2. A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)</li> </ol>
<b>Activities</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Brainstorming about different needs and objectives/goals related to learning English</li> <li>2. Completing a questionnaire on goal-setting and need analysis</li> <li>3. Whole-class discussion</li> </ol>
<b>Procedures</b>	<p><u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other.</p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u> a) The students brainstorm about various English learning needs and objectives/goals. b) The students' suggestions are written on the board.</p> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u> a) The questionnaires are distributed to the students and they are given instructions about how to complete it. b) The students first determine their needs and preferences. c) Then they are asked to write some of their objectives/goals in the space provided. d) Next, they are asked to think about different ways to attain their objectives/ goals. f) Some examples of objectives/goals are given by the students and students suggest their own ways to achieve those objectives/goals.</p> <p><u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> <p><u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students summarize what they covered in the session.</p>



## APPENDIX 7.1

### HEDEF BELİRLEME VE İHTİYAÇ ANALİZİ ANKETİ (Needs analysis and goal-setting questionnaire)

Değerli katılımcı;

Bilimsel bir araştırma için kullanılacak olan bu anket sizlere daha faydalı bir eğitim vermek üzere ve eğitim ihtiyaçlarınızı ve önceliklerinizi belirlemek amacıyla uygulanmaktadır. Bu anket İngilizce hazırlık sınıfı öğrencilerinin İngilizce öğrenimine olan bakış açılarındaki farklılıkları ve bir yabancı dil olarak İngilizceye duydukları gereksinimleri araştırmak ve hedeflerini belirlemelerine yardımcı olmak amacı taşımaktadır.

#### Kişisel Bilgileriniz:

Adınız:

Doğum tarihiniz:

Soyadınız:

İlgi alanlarınız:

**Neden İngilizce öğrenmeye ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz?** (Birden fazla seçenek işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

- akademik sebeplerden dolayı
- okul dersleri için
- öğretmek için
- zevk için
- iyi bir iş bulmak için
- farklı insanlarla tanışmak için
- İngiliz kültürünü öğrenmek için
- yurt dışına çıkmak için
- diğer sebeplerden dolayı (belirtiniz): .....

#### Kendinizi dört beceriden hangilerinde daha başarılı hissediyorsunuz?

( aşağıda verilen becerilerin önünde bulunan rakamları çoktan aza doğru sıralayarak kutucukların içine yazınız)

1-okuma

2-yazma

3-dinleme

4-konuşma

--	--	--	--

*çok*

*az*

**İngilizce öğreniminizde öncelikli olarak geliştirmek istediğiniz alanlar/beceriler hangileridir?** (Geliştirmek istediğiniz alanları öncelik sırasına göre 1 ile 7 arasındaki rakamlarla numaralandırın: 1= En yüksek önceliği olan, 7= En düşük önceliği olan)

Alan/Beceri	Öncelik sırası
Kelime bilgisi	
Gramer	
Dinleme	
Konuşma	
Okuma	
Yazma	
Telaffuz	

#### Derste kullanılmasını istediğiniz materyalleri en çoktan en aza doğru sıralayınız.

- 1-ders kitabı    2- yardımcı kitap    3- tepegöz    4-sözlük    5-gerçek nesnelere
- 6- video    7-kasetçalar    8-çalışma kâğıdı    9-resimler

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*çok*

*az*

**Sizce İngilizce dersleri .....**

- öğretmen merkezli olmalıdır  
 öğrenci merkezli olmalıdır  
 öğrenci + öğretmen merkezli olmalıdır

**Yanışlarınızın nasıl düzeltilmesini istersiniz? İşaretleyiniz.**

- hemen sonra  
 daha sonra  
 dersten sonra  
 öğretmenim tarafından  
 arkadaşım tarafından

**İngilizce dersinin nasıl anlatılması sizce daha faydalı olabilir?**

- yalnızca İngilizce     yalnızca Türkçe     hem İngilizce hem Türkçe

**Kısa dönemli hedeflerinizi belirleyin.** (En az üç hedef yazın. Örneğin; İngilizce zaman, yer ve hareket edatlarını doğru bir şekilde kullanabilmek, eşsesli ve eşanlamli kelimeleri öğrenmek, zamirleri kurallı bir şekilde kullanabilmek, her gün on kelime öğrenmek, alışverişle ilgili kelime ve kalıpları doğru ve akıcı bir şekilde kullanabilmek vb.)

	Kısa dönemli hedefleriniz	Hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek için yapabileceğiniz
1		
2		
3		
4		

**Uzun dönemli hedeflerinizi belirleyin.** (En az üç hedef yazın. Örneğin; daha iyi bir dinleyen olmak istiyorum, gramer bilgimi pekiştirmek istiyorum, anadili İngilizce olan ya da İngilizce bilen kişilerle orta seviyede iletişim kurabilmek istiyorum, İngilizce hikâye kitaplarını okuyup rahatlıkla anlayabilmek istiyorum vb.)

	Uzun dönemli hedefleriniz	Hedeflerinizi gerçekleştirmek için yapabileceğiniz
1		
2		
3		
4		

**Ekleme istediğiniz bilgiler/yorumlar:**

*Zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkürler*

**APPENDIX 8**  
**LEARNER TRAINING SESSION – IV**

<b>Topic</b>	1. Learning styles 2. Language learning strategies
<b>Aims</b>	1. Developing an awareness of learning styles and language learning strategies 2. Allowing students to get an understanding of their own styles and strategies
<b>Date</b>	20 <sup>th</sup> December 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at the Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	27
<b>Materials</b>	1. Learning style inventory (comprised of items related to perceptual modalities: Auditory Visual, Kinesthetic/Tactile, adapted from Boydak 2001) (see Appendix 8.1) 2. Turkish version of SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning, Oxford 1990) (translated by Dursun 2007) (see Appendix 8.2) 3. A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)
<b>Activities</b>	<b>I. Learner styles</b> 1. Completion of 'Learning style inventory' 2. Whole-class discussion on different learning styles <b>II. Language learning strategies</b> 1. Brainstorming about different strategies that students use in learning English 2. Completion of SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) 3. Whole-class discussion about different strategies employed by students
<b>Procedures</b>	<u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other.  <b>I. Learning styles</b> <u>2. Lead-in:</u> The teacher gives an example of two individuals' learning styles and draws attention to the difference between them. Then she asks several students how they prefer to learn in general. <u>3. Main-activity:</u> a) A copy of 'Learning style inventory' is distributed to each student. Students complete the inventory and find out their own learning style. b) Whole-class discussion takes place about the students' preferred learning styles and explanations are made by the teacher when necessary.  <b>II. Language learning strategies</b> <u>2. Lead-in:</u> The students brainstorm about different strategies they employ when learning vocabulary (here given as an example language area to be studied). Some of the responses are written on the board. <u>3. Main-activity:</u> a) The students are instructed about how to complete the form of SILL and calculate the points in order to find out their preferences in using different categories of strategies. b) The teacher and the students extend the discussion on various strategies and how effective they are found by particular students. <u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> <u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students review what they covered in the session.

## APPENDIX 8.1

### ÖĞRENME STİLLERİNİ BELİRLEME LİSTESİ (List for determining learning styles)

Bu anket öğrenme stillerinizi bulmanıza yardımcı olma, dolayısıyla nasıl bir öğrenen olduğunuzun farkına varmanızı sağlama amacı taşımaktadır. Listedeki cümleleri dikkatle okuyup, cümlelerin karşısındaki kutulara, kendinize uygun olan ifadeler için **E** (evet), uygun olmayan ifadeler için **H** (hayır) harflerini yazınız. Listenin sonunda değerlendirmeye ilgili açıklamaları dikkatle okuyup gerekli hesaplamaları yapıp ne tür öğrenme stiline sahip olduğunuzu bulun.

1. Sınıfta arkadaşlarımla birlikte tartışarak ve sohbet ederek öğrenmeyi severim.	
2. Kendi kendime çalışmayı severim.	
3. Yanlışlarımı öğretmenimin anlatarak düzeltilmesini severim.	
4. Düzenli bir sıram olsun isterim ve sürekli düzenli olması için çaba gösteririm.	
5. Sınıfta hareket edebileceğim her olaya var gücümle koşarım ve katılırım.	
6. Fıkra ve hikaye anlatmaktan hoşlanırım.	
7. Defterime sürekli şekiller çizerim.	
8. Daha iyi öğrenmek için müzik ve ritim kullanmayı severim.	
9. Ellerimi kullanabileceğim bir şeyler yapmaktan hoşlanırım.	
10. Sınıfta çok fazla konuşurum.	
11. Okuldaki sportif faaliyetleri severim ve katılırım.	
12. Öğretmenler sınıfta çok hareket ettiğimi düşünürler.	
13. Okul şarkılarını çok severim ve çabuk öğrenirim.	
14. İleriye dönük planlar yapmayı severim.	
15. Yeni gördüğüm şeyleri mutlaka elime alır ve incelerim.	
16. Çalışırken sık sık durur, başka şeyler yaparım.	
17. Arkadaşlarıma el şakası yapmayı severim.	
18. Çizgi roman okumayı severim.	
19. Resimli bulmaca çözmeyi severim.	
20. Sessiz okumayı severim.	
21. Okunmakta olan bir metnin bir kopyasını takip etmezsem anlayamam.	
22. Yüksek sesle okumayı severim.	
23. Masal ve kitap kasetleri dinlemeyi severim.	
24. Anlatmayı yazmaya tercih ederim.	
25. Harita, poster ve şemalarla anlatılmak istenenleri çabuk kavrarım.	
26. Görmediğim şeyi kavrayamam.	
27. Aktif olarak katıldığım etkinlikleri severim.	
28. Kendi kendime çalışmaktansa öğretmeni dinlemeyi tercih ederim.	
29. Bir ortamda ilgimi çeken şeyleri elime alıp incelemek isterim.	
30. Sınıfta tahtayı silmeyi, pencereleri ya da kapıyı açıp kapamayı hep ben yapmak isterim.	
31. Bir konuyu kendim okumaktansa başkası anlatır ya da okursa daha iyi anlarım.	
32. Gördüklerimden daha iyi anlam çıkarırım.	
33. Olay ya da konular dramatize edilirse daha iyi anlarım.	

Listede **evet** dediğiniz soruları aşağıdaki tabloda daire içerisine aldıktan sonra **her daireye 1 puan** verip, '**Toplam**' sütununa yazarak her stilde aldığınız puanları görebilirsiniz.

Öğrenme Stili													Toplam
<b>İşitsel</b>	1	3	6	8	10	13	22	23	24	28	31		
<b>Görsel</b>	2	4	7	14	18	19	20	21	25	26	32		
<b>Kinestetik</b>	5	9	11	12	15	16	17	27	29	30	33		

## APPENDIX 8.2

### DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning)

Bu ölçek üniversitemiz hazırlık sınıflarında yapılan bilimsel bir parçasıdır. Lütfen her cümleyi okuyun ve **cümlenin sizi ne ölçüde doğru ifade ettiğini gösteren rakamı** (1,2, 3, 4 veya 5). Aşağıda rakamların ne anlama geldiği aşağıda açıklanmaktadır:

Cevap	Değer
Hiç yapmam	1
Nadiren yaparım	2
Bazen yaparım	3
Genellikle yaparım	4
Her zaman yaparım	5

Unutmayın ki bu ankette **DOĞRU** ya da **YANLIŞ** cevap yoktur. Bu nedenle ankete içten ve dürüst olarak cevap vermeniz çalışmadan sağlıklı bir sonuç alınması bakımından çok önemlidir. Lütfen nasıl olmanız gerektiğini veya başkalarının yaptıklarını düşünerek veya seçenekleri doğru ya da yanlış şeklinde değerlendirerek **cevap vermenin**.

Aşağıdaki soruları belirtilen ölçeğe göre cevaplayın. İsim belirtme zorunluluğu yoktur. Lütfen **cinsiyetinizi** ve **yaşınızı** belirtin.

Okulunuz : \_\_\_\_\_ Numaranız : \_\_\_\_\_  
Cinsiyetiniz : \_\_\_\_\_ Yaşınız : \_\_\_\_\_

Anketi nasıl dolduracağınız örnekle aşağıda açıklanmıştır. **Zaman avırdığınız için teşekkürler.**

	BÖLÜM A	Hiç yapmam	Nadiren Yaparım	Bazen yaparım	Genellikle yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
1	İngilizcede yeni öğrendiğim şeylerle daha önceden bildiklerim arasında ilişkiler kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi hatırlayabilmek için onu cümle içinde kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi hatırlayabilmek için kelimenin okunuşunu ve yazılışını zihnimde bir araya getirmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Yeni öğrendiğim bir kelimeyi, kafamda o kelimenin kullanılabileceği durumları canlandırarak hatırlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Öğrendiğim yeni kelimeleri hatırlamak için melodik dizinler (örneğin; şarkı sözlerine benzer kafiyeler vs.) oluştururum.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Öğrendiğim yeni kelimeleri hatırlamak için resimli kartlar kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Yeni öğrendiğim kelimeleri hareketlerle ve davranışlarla canlandırmaya çalışırım (Örn. Zıplamak filini zıplayarak öğrenmek gibi).	1	2	3	4	5
8	İngilizce dersinde öğrendiklerimi sık sık gözden geçiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Yeni kelimeleri ya da kalıpları onları ilk gördüğüm yerleri (örneğin; kitap, tahta, tabela vs.) aklıma getirmeye çalışarak hatırlarım.	1	2	3	4	5

		Hiç yapmam	Nadiren Yaparım	Bazen yaparım	Genellikle yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
	<b>BÖLÜM B</b>					
10	Öğrendiğim yeni kelimeleri birkaç kere sözlü ya da yazılı olarak tekrar ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Ana dili İngilizce olanların konuşmasını taklit etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
12	İngilizcedeki seslerin okunuşları ile ilgili alıştırmalar yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Bildiğim kelimeleri değişik şekillerde kullanmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Sınıf içinde ya da dışında İngilizce konuşma ortamı yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5
15	İngilizce TV programları veya filmler seyredirim	1	2	3	4	5
16	Eğlence amacı ile İngilizce kitap, dergi, vs. okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
17	İngilizce yazılar (örneğin; kişisel notlar, mesajlar, mektuplar, raporlar vs. ) yazarım.	1	2	3	4	5
18	İngilizce bir şey okurken; ilk önce metni çabuk bir şekilde gözden geçiririm, daha sonra başa dönüp daha dikkatli bir şekilde okurum.	1	2	3	4	5
19	İngilizce'de öğrendiğim yeni kelimelere benzer Türkçe kelimeler bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
20	İngilizce'de cümle kalıplarını bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
21	İngilizce bir kelimenin anlamını, kelimeyi bildiğim kök ve eklere ayırarak bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
22	İngilizce'de duyduğum veya okuduğum şeyleri kelimesi kelimesine Türkçe'ye çevirmeden anlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
23	İngilizce'de öğrendiklerimin özetini çıkarırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>BÖLÜM C</b>					
24	Bilmediğim kelimelerin anlamını tahmin ederek bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
25	İngilizce konuşurken bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda istediğim şeyi anlatmak için el kol işaretleri kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Kullanmam gereken kelimeleri tam olarak bilmiyorsa yeni kelimeler türetirim.	1	2	3	4	5
27	İngilizce metinleri (örneğin; kitap, dergi, vs.) bilmediğim her kelime için sözlüğe bakmadan okumaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Birisiyle İngilizce konuşurken karşımdaki kişinin ne söyleyeceğini tahmin etmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Bir kelimeyi hatırlayamadığımda, aynı anlama gelen başka bir kelime ya da ifade kullanırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>BÖLÜM D</b>					
30	İngilizce pratik yapmak için mümkün olduğunca çok fırsat yaratmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
31	İngilizce öğrenirken yaptığım hatalardan ders çıkartmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
32	Birisiyle İngilizce konuşurken tüm dikkatimi ona vermeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

33	İngilizceyi daha iyi şekilde öğrenmenin yollarını bulmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Programımı daha verimli bir şekilde İngilizce çalışabilecek şekilde ayarlarım.	1	2	3	4	5
35	İngilizce konuşabileceğim insanlar ararım.	1	2	3	4	5
		Hiç yapmam	Nadiren Yaparım	Bazen yaparım	Genellikle yaparım	Her zaman yaparım
36	İngilizce okuyabilmek (örneğin; kitap, dergi vs.) için mümkün olduğunca çok fırsat yaratmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
37	İngilizce becerilerimi geliştirmeye yönelik belirli hedeflerim var.	1	2	3	4	5
38	İngilizce konusunda gösterdiğim gelişmeleri değerlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>BÖLÜM E</b>					
39	İngilizceyi kullanırken (örneğin; konuşurken vs.) endişelendiğimde rahatlamaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Hata yapmaktan korksam da İngilizce konuşmak için kendimi cesaretlendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
41	İngilizce öğrenirken herhangi bir başarı gösterdiğimde kendimi bir şekilde ödüllendiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
42	İngilizce konuşurken gergin ya da sınırlı olduğumda bunu fark ederim.	1	2	3	4	5
43	Dil öğrenme deneyimim ile ilgili bir günlük tutarım.	1	2	3	4	5
44	İngilizce öğrenmeyle ilgili duygularımı birisine anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>BÖLÜM F</b>					
45	İngilizce konuşurken söylenen bir şeyi anlamazsam, karşımdaki kişiden söylediğini tekrarlamasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
46	İngilizce konuşurken hatalarımın düzeltilmesini isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Öğrenci arkadaşlarımla İngilizce pratik yaparım.	1	2	3	4	5
48	İngilizce konuşan kimselerden yardım isterim.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Ders içinde sorularımı İngilizce sormaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5
50	İngilizce konuşulan ülkelerin kültürü hakkında bilgi edinmeye çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5

## DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ANKETİNİ DEĞERLENDİRME FORMU

1. Dil öğrenme stratejileri anketi üzerindeki boşlukları ( \_\_\_\_ ) numaralandırın.
2. Her ifadenin sonundaki boşluğa size en uygun düşen seçeneğin **numarasını** yazın (1, 2, 3, 4, ya da 5 şeklinde).
3. Her sütundaki sayıları toplayıp **'TOPLAM'** bölümüne sonucu yazın.
4. Toplamı, her sütunun altında bulunan sayıya bölüp ortalamayı alın. Bu ortalamayı kendisine en yakın olan 10'lu sayıya yuvarlayın (Örneğin ortalama 19,5 çıktıysa bu sayıyı 20'ye yuvarlayın).
5. Genel ortalamayı bulmak için anketin farklı bölümlerine ait toplamları toplayıp 50'ye bölün.
6. Bu işlemleri bitirdiğinizde ikinci tabloda verilen bölümleri tamamlayıp kendinizle ilgili strateji profilini belirleyin.

<b>A bölümü</b>	<b>B bölümü</b>	<b>C bölümü</b>	<b>D bölümü</b>	<b>E bölümü</b>	<b>F bölümü</b>	<b>TOPLAM</b>
1. _____	10. _____	24. _____	30. _____	39. _____	45. _____	<b>A. Toplam</b> _____
2. _____	11. _____	25. _____	31. _____	40. _____	46. _____	<b>B. Toplam</b> _____
3. _____	12. _____	26. _____	32. _____	41. _____	47. _____	<b>C. Toplam</b> _____
4. _____	13. _____	27. _____	33. _____	42. _____	48. _____	<b>D. Toplam</b> _____
5. _____	14. _____	28. _____	34. _____	43. _____	49. _____	<b>E. Toplam</b> _____
6. _____	15. _____	29. _____	35. _____	44. _____	50. _____	<b>F. Toplam</b> _____
7. _____	16. _____		36. _____			
8. _____	17. _____		37. _____			
9. _____	18. _____		38. _____			
	19. _____					
	20. _____					
	21. _____					
	22. _____					
	23. _____					
Toplam____ /9= _____	Toplam____ /14= _____	Toplam____ /6= _____	Toplam____ /9= _____	Toplam____ /6= _____	Toplam____ /6= _____	Genel toplam____ /50= _____ (Genel ortalama.)

### DİL ÖĞRENME STRATEJİLERİ ANKETİ SONUÇLARI PROFİLİ

Bölüm	Her Bölümde Belirtilen Stratejiler	Bu Bölümdeki Ortalamanız
<b>A</b>	Daha etkili bir şekilde hatırlama	
<b>B</b>	Zihinsel olarak gerçekleştirdiğiniz tüm yöntemleri kullanma	
<b>C</b>	Eksik ya da yetersiz bilgilerinizi tamamlama	
<b>D</b>	Öğrenmenizi düzenleme ve değerlendirme	
<b>E</b>	Duyularınızı idare etme/denetleme	
<b>F</b>	Diğer insanlarla birlikte öğrenme	
<b>GENEL ORTALAMANIZ</b>		

**Aşağıdaki tabloda ortalamalarınızın ne anlama geldiğini görebilirsiniz:**

<b>Yüksek</b>	Her zaman ya da büyük çoğunlukla kullanılan	4,5 ile 5,0 arası
	Genellikle kullanılan	3,5 ile 4,4 arası
<b>Orta</b>	Bazen kullanılan	2,5 ile 3,4 arası
<b>Düşük</b>	Genellikle kullanılmayan	1,5 ile 2,4 arası
	Asla ya da neredeyse hiç kullanılmayan	1,0 ile 1,4 arası



**APPENDIX 9**  
**LEARNER TRAINING SESSION - V**

<b>Topic</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Teacher and learner roles</li> <li>2. Self-assessment</li> </ol>
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Developing an awareness of teacher and learner roles in autonomous language learning</li> <li>2. Widening students' perceptions upon the importance of their responsible involvement in learning English</li> <li>3. Encouraging students to involve in self-assessment</li> </ol>
<b>Date</b>	26 <sup>th</sup> December 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	28
<b>Materials</b>	A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)
<b>Activities</b>	<p><b>I. Teacher and learner roles</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Pair-discussion about the meaning of role</li> <li>2. Brainstorming about different roles that individuals play</li> <li>3. Whole-class discussion about the roles of learners and teachers</li> </ol> <p><b>II. Self-assessment</b></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Brainstorming about the purposes of assessment</li> <li>2. Whole-class discussion about the importance of self-assessment</li> </ol>
<b>Procedures</b>	<p><u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other.</p> <p><b>I. Teacher and learner roles</b></p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The students discuss the meaning of 'role' in pairs; then they give feedback to the class.</li> <li>b) The students brainstorm about different roles that individuals play; then some examples are written on the board.</li> </ol> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The students share their opinions regarding the roles of learners and teachers in the language classroom.</li> <li>b) Some of the suggestions are written on the board</li> </ol> <p><b>II. Self-assessment</b></p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u> The students brainstorm about the purposes of assessment.</p> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u> Whole-class discussion about the importance of self-assessment takes place.</p> <p><u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> <p><u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students review what they covered in the session.</p>

**APPENDIX 10**  
**LEARNER TRAINING SESSION - VI**

<b>Topic</b>	Foreign language learning experience and process
<b>Aims</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Widening students' perceptions upon the process of foreign language learning</li> <li>2. Encouraging learners to think back on their past foreign language experience</li> </ol>
<b>Date</b>	28 <sup>th</sup> December 2005
<b>Duration</b>	50 minutes
<b>Place</b>	ZF. 05 (Prep. classes at Faculty of Agriculture)
<b>Number of students</b>	28
<b>Materials</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. A questionnaire to survey past foreign language learning experience (adapted from Scharle and Szabo 2000: 17) (see Appendix 10.1)</li> <li>2. A form to be used for reflection at the end of the session (see Appendix 11)</li> </ol>
<b>Activities</b>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Brainstorming about different aspects of learning English</li> <li>2. Completing a questionnaire to survey past foreign language learning experience</li> <li>3. Whole-class discussion</li> <li>4. Reflecting on their experience regarding the session</li> </ol>
<b>Procedures</b>	<p><u>1. Greeting and establishing rapport:</u> The teacher and students greet each other.</p> <p><u>2. Lead-in:</u> The students are invited to share their general views about learning English.</p> <p><u>3. Main-activity:</u>  <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The questionnaires are distributed to the students and they are given instructions about how to complete it.</li> <li>b) After the students fill in the questionnaire, some of the statements in the questionnaire are discussed as a whole.</li> </ol> </p> <p><u>4. Reflection:</u> The students write answers to these questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What have I learned during this training session?</li> <li>• How and where can I use what I have learned?</li> </ul> </p> <p><u>5. Wrap-up:</u> The teacher and the students review what they covered in the session.</p>

## APPENDIX 10.1

### YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENİM DENEYİMİ VE SÜRECİ ÜZERİNE BİR ANKET

A. Soruları dikkatli bir şekilde okuyup size en uygun düşen seçeneği yuvarlak içine alın.

Evet	Hayır	Bilmiyorum
1	2	3

1. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde öğretmen size her ayrıntıyı açıklıyor muydu?	1	2	3
2. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde kuralları ya da anlamları hiç kendiniz tahmin etmeye çalıştınız mı?	1	2	3
3. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde hiç ikili ya da grup çalışması yapmanız istendi mi?	1	2	3
4. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde sizden kendi çalışmanızı ya da arkadaşınızın çalışmasını düzeltmeniz istendi mi?	1	2	3
5. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde öğretmenin dersin işlenişi ya da etkinliklerle ilgili görüşünüzü aldı mı?	1	2	3
6. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde yabancı dil edinimiyle ilgili açıklamalarda bulunuldu mu?	1	2	3
7. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde ödev yapmadığınızda zayıf bir notla ya da başka bir ödev yapmakla cezalandırıldınız mı?	1	2	3
8. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde yabancı dili nasıl daha iyi öğrenebileceğinizle ilgili etkinlikler yaptınız mı?	1	2	3
9. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde ders kitabı dışında başka materyalleri kullandınız mı?	1	2	3
10. Daha önceki yabancı dil derslerinde öğretmen dersi sürekli tahtada mı anlatıyordu?	1	2	3

B. Aşağıdaki sorularla ilgili cevaplarınızı/görüşlerinizi yazınız.

1. Öğrenme nedir?
2. Öğrenme nasıl gerçekleşir?
3. Öğrenme daha çok öğrenene mi yoksa öğretene mi bağlıdır? Açıklayınız.
4. Derste öğretmenin her ayrıntıyı açıklaması sizi mutlu eder miydi?
5. Derste kuralları/anlamları kendiniz çıkartmak ister miydiniz?
6. Öğretmeninizden ders anlatmak dışında başka neler beklersiniz? (Örn. rehberlik, danışmanlık vb.)
7. Size fırsat verilse derste ne gibi etkinliklerde rol almayı isterdiniz?
8. Dersi en iyi hangi şekilde öğrenebileceğinizi düşünüyorsunuz?
9. Daha önceki yabancı dil dersleri ile bu yılki yabancı dersleri arasında ne gibi bir fark var?
10. Derste etkin mi, edilgin mi olmak sizi daha mutlu eder?
11. Yabancı dil derslerinin daha iyi işlenebilmesi ile ilgili önerilerinizi belirtiniz.

**APPENDIX 11****END-OF-THE-SESSION REFLECTION FORM**

Name/Surname:

Week \_\_\_ / Date:

1) What have I learned from this learner training session?

2) How and where can I use what I have learned?

Adı/Soyadı:

\_\_\_ . Hafta / Tarih:

1) Bu hafta katıldığım eğitim çalışmasından neler öğrendim?

2) Öğrendiklerimi nasıl ve nerede kullanabilirim?

**APPENDIX 12****MY ENGLISH DIARY****Adı/Soyadı:****\_\_\_\_. hafta / Tarih:****İNGİLİZCE GÜNLÜĞÜM*****Bu hafta:***

1. Hangi konuları öğrendim?
2. En çok hangi aktiviteler benim için yararlı oldu?
3. Dersteki performansım nasıldı?
4. Ödevlerle ilgili çalışmalarım nasıldı?
5. Derslerle ilgili hangi sorunlarla karşılaştım?
6. Karşılaştığım sorunları nasıl çözebilirim?
7. Ders dışında başka neler öğrendim?

**APPENDIX 13****YABANCI DİL ÖĞRENİMİ İLE İLGİLİ GERÇEKLEŞTİRİLEN ETKİNLİKLER  
HAKKINDA BİR ANKET**

*Aşağıdaki sorularla ilgili cevaplarınızı/görüşlerinizi yazınız.*

1. Yapılan etkinlikler hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Açar mısınız?
2. Yapılan etkinlikler sizin için yararlı oldu mu? (olduysa en çok hangisini yararlı buldunuz?)
3. Yapılan etkinlikler haricinde başka ne hakkında bilgi edinmek isterdiniz?
4. Yabancı dil öğrenme/öğretme sürecine ilişkin düşünceleriniz nelerdi? Şimdi neler?
5. Daha önce buna benzer bir deneyim yaşadınız mı?
6. Yapılan etkinliklerden kişisel olarak ne elde ettiniz?
7. Etkinliklerden öğrendiğiniz ya da farkına vardığımız şeyler varsa bunları İngilizce öğreniminizde nasıl kullanmayı düşünüyorsunuz?
8. Eklemek istediğimiz diğer yorumlar:

## APPENDIX 14

### INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What do you think about the activities done in the sessions?
2. How have the activities contributed to you personally?
3. Have you ever had such kind of experience before?
4. Have the activities been useful to you? (If so, which one do you think has been the most useful?)
5. What were your opinions related to the process of learning English before the learner training sessions and what about your present opinions? (especially in terms of perceptions of responsibility)
6. Do you have a final comment you would like to add?

### GÖRÜŞME SORULARI

1. Yapılan etkinlikler hakkında genel olarak ne düşünüyorsun?
2. Yapılan etkinliklerden kişisel olarak ne elde ettin?
3. Daha önce böyle bir deneyim yaşadın mı?
4. Yapılan etkinlikler senin için yararlı oldu mu? (olduysa en çok hangisini yararlı buldun?)
5. Etkinliklerden önce İngilizce öğrenme sürecine ilişkin düşüncelerin nelerdi? Şimdi neler? (özellikle sorumluluk algısı açısından)
6. Son olarak eklemek istediğin bir şey var mı?

## APPENDIX 15

### Descriptive statistics for learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English before treatment

Items of questionnaire on responsibility	N	Mean	SD
15. My own efforts as well as the teacher's will contribute to my learning.	30	4,73	,58
17. I would like to know how I can learn English better.	30	4,70	,47
3. I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at.	30	4,70	,89
30. I want to know what kind of a learner I am.	30	4,60	,56
31. I look for advice from my teacher about how I can improve my English.	30	4,53	,68
1. I would like my teacher to share the information about my progress in English with me.	30	4,50	,68
27. How I do in English is a matter of luck.	30	4,47	,68
4. My only purpose in English is to get a passing grade.	30	4,40	,89
9. I ask my teacher to help me with the things I am not good at.	30	4,17	1,09
22. I usually know what the reason is when I get good marks in English.	30	4,13	,73
12. I would like to have choice in class activities.	30	4,07	,69
19. I try to make use of every opportunity that can help me improve my English.	30	3,97	,81
18. The reason why I am bad at English is because I have bad teachers.	30	3,87	,97
14. I search different ways to improve my English outside the class.	30	3,77	1,10
21. I am in control of my success in learning English.	30	3,73	,91
8. Doing homework is one of the good ways to improve my English.	30	3,70	,95
32. My success in English is mainly up to my own efforts.	30	3,70	,92
23. If I do badly at English, I usually know how to do better next time.	30	3,63	,72
25. I often review my progress in learning English.	30	3,57	1,17
26. My success in English is completely out of my control.	30	3,57	1,14
13. I know what the reason is when I do well in English.	30	3,53	,86
24. I try to find my own ways of learning English.	30	3,40	1,10
16. I set my own goals in learning English.	30	3,37	1,00
29. I evaluate my progress in English.	30	3,27	,87
5. Sometimes I try to learn things that the teacher did not give as a task.	30	3,20	1,10
20. I try to find and correct my mistakes before I submit my homework assignments to my teacher.	30	3,20	1,27
11. I often revise what I have learned.	30	3,13	,90
2. I know what I should practise more in English.	30	3,00	1,08
6. I spend as little time as possible for my homework.	30	3,00	1,11
28. I plan my English studies carefully.	30	2,93	1,05
10. I am aware of the ways that I learn English best.	30	2,80	1,06
7. I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses in English.	30	2,63	,89



## APPENDIX 16

### Descriptive statistics of learners' perceptions of responsibility in learning English after treatment

Items of questionnaire on responsibility	N	Mean	SD
30. I want to know what kind of a learner I am.	30	4,77	,50
17. I would like to know how I can learn English better.	30	4,73	,45
3. I pay more attention to the lesson if we are practising something I am not so good at.	30	4,63	,56
15. My own efforts as well as the teacher's will contribute to my learning.	30	4,63	,72
7. I am aware of my strengths and weaknesses in English.	30	4,57	,77
31. I look for advice from my teacher about how I can improve my English.	30	4,50	,63
1. I would like my teacher to share the information about my progress in English with me.	30	4,47	,63
16. I set my own goals in learning English.	30	4,43	,68
24. I try to find my own ways of learning English.	30	4,43	,73
32. My success in English is mainly up to my own efforts.	30	4,40	,72
29. I evaluate my progress in English.	30	4,20	,92
22. I usually know what the reason is when I get good marks in English.	30	4,17	,70
9. I ask my teacher to help me with the things I am not good at.	30	4,17	,83
10. I am aware of the ways that I learn English best.	30	4,13	,80
19. I try to make use of every opportunity that can help me improve my English.	30	4,13	,73
4. My only purpose in English is to get a passing grade.	30	4,13	,68
27. How I do in English is a matter of luck.	30	4,10	,68
21. I am in control of my success in learning English.	30	4,10	,66
13. I know what the reason is when I do well in English.	30	4,10	,76
2. I know what I should practise more in English.	30	3,87	,73
14. I search different ways to improve my English outside the class.	30	3,87	,82
23. If I do badly at English, I usually know how to do better next time.	30	3,83	,83
18. The reason why I am bad at English is because I have bad teachers.	30	3,73	,78
25. I often review my progress in learning English.	30	3,67	1,24
20. I try to find and correct my mistakes before I submit my homework assignments to my teacher.	30	3,63	,93
8. Doing homework is one of the good ways to improve my English.	30	3,60	,93
26. My success in English is completely out of my control.	30	3,60	,86
12. I would like to have choice in class activities.	30	3,53	,82
5. Sometimes I try to learn things that the teacher did not give as a task.	30	3,50	,94
28. I plan my English studies carefully.	30	3,33	,88
11. I often revise what I have learned.	30	3,30	,95
6. I spend as little time as possible for my homework.	30	2,87	1,22